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EDITORIAL NOTE.

By act of Congress of February 14, 1903, the Department of Commerce and Labor was established and the existing Department of Labor was placed under its jurisdiction and made one of its bureaus. The title of this office has, therefore, by direction of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, been changed to the Bureau of Labor, and future Bulletins and reports will bear that name, but will be numbered in continuation of the series of the former Department of Labor.

C. D. W.

FARM COLONIES OF THE SALVATION ARMY.

BY COMMANDER BOOTH TUCKER.

The farm colonies of the Salvation Army in the United States were first organized in the spring of 1898 for the purpose of enabling stranded but worthy families to keep together and ultimately, by their own exertions and payments, to become home owners. Experience has shown that, while it is comparatively easy to take care of the unmarried poor in the cities, and to find sufficiently remunerative work for them there, the case is different with the family.

In case of sickness or loss of work the position of the women and children is especially distressing. Rent has to be paid, hungry mouths have to be fed, clothing must be provided, and the numerous requirements of a growing family must be met.

It is stated that in London 3,000 families consisting of 9 persons each, 7,000 of 8, and 23,000 of 6 or 7, live huddled together in dwellings of but one room. The furniture ordinarily consists of one bed, and as many as can do so get into it, while the others sleep under it, that being the next warmest place.

While conditions are not at present so bad in American cities, they are rapidly trending in the same direction. Hence the colonies of the

Salvation Army were specially organized for the purpose of relieving city congestion and of preventing families from being broken up, the theory of redemption being thus formulated: "Place the waste labor on the waste land by means of the waste capital and thereby convert the trinity of waste into a unity of production;" or, as it has been tersely put by one of our great writers and thinkers, "The landless man to the manless land."

In the United States the experiment now comprises the following three colonies: (1) Fort Amity, in Colorado, in the fertile valley of the River Arkansas; (2) Fort Romie, in California, not far from the famous Hotel del Monte, near the Bay of Monterey; (3) Fort Herrick, in Ohio, about 20 miles from the city of Cleveland.

FORT AMITY, COLO.

Early in April, 1898, a section of land consisting of 640 acres (since increased to nearly 2,000) was purchased in the neighborhood of Holly, on the line of the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railroad, 267 miles east of Denver, in the valley of the Arkansas River. An abundant supply of water from the Buffalo Canal is supplemented by a still more abundant subsurface underflow, while an immense system of inland reservoirs in course of construction will serve to irrigate a vast tract of land in the neighborhood. Hence this colony has an almost unlimited opportunity for expansion and is the most important under control of the Salvation Army. The soil is rich and the climate superb, the elevation being some 3,500 feet above the level of the sea, thus avoiding the extremes of heat and cold. The mining camps of Colorado afford an excellent market on the one hand, while on the other the colony is on the highway to the principal cattle markets of the midwestern States, being linked to both by the Santa Fe Railroad.

The principal crops include the famous "netted gem" cantaloupe, for which Colorado has gained a great reputation. The recent establishment of a beet-sugar factory in the valley of the Arkansas River, within easy reach of the colony, has brought to its very doors a market for another valuable crop for which good prices can be obtained.

For stock raising the valley is probably without its equal, being on the way to the Kansas City and Chicago stock yards. Here the alfalfa, or lucerne, on which cattle and hogs so quickly fatten, flourishes in rich profusion, requiring but little care beyond occasional watering and being cut several times year after year without replanting. Alfalfa also produces the best quality of butter and honey, for both of which products the valley is famous. At the same time the boundless prairies which surround the colony furnish pasture for the greater part of the year. For berries, fruit, cabbages, onions, and other agricultural produce the soil is also admirably suited.

It is intended in the near future to establish an extensive sanitarium for working men. The need for such an institution has been keenly

felt for many years. It would, moreover, provide a home market for the colonist's produce. An orphanage has been erected, at a cost of \$20,000, with the intention that as orphans grow up they may marry and settle upon the land, forming ultimately the best colonists.

An agricultural credit association has recently been established, modeled upon the plan of the Raiffeisen village loan associations of Germany. This is believed to be the first experiment of the kind in America, although the system has been highly recommended by the United States Government.^(a)

Two schoolhouses have been established in the colony by the county and will shortly be replaced by a much larger building. Their capacity is already taxed to the utmost, the children of school age numbering 140. A post and money order office has also been established. The recent erection by the railroad company of a freight depot with siding has further enhanced the value of the colony and improved its prospects. Plans have lately been made for a passenger depot, the building of which will be begun at once.

There are now about 300 colonists, including men, women, and children, in the Fort Amity colony.

FORT ROMIE, CAL.

Nestled in the beautiful valley of the Salinas River, near the bay of Monterey, is the California colony. A fine sweep of 519 acres of rich agricultural land has been purchased. The land has been divided into 10-acre tracts, cottages have been built, and an irrigation pumping plant has been erected to supply water from the river.

The soil is admirably adapted to the growth of potatoes, sugar beets, and alfalfa, as well as almost every other variety of agricultural produce. The nearness of the famous beet-sugar factories of Mr. Claus Spreckels at Watsonville and at Salinas renders the success of this colony doubly certain. The valley is famed for its potatoes, which command the highest market price.

There are now about 70 colonists, including men, women, and children, in this colony. One family has already paid for its holding.

FORT HERRICK, OHIO.

Within about 20 miles of the city of Cleveland and close to the childhood home of President Garfield, at Mentor, is a beautiful sweep of level land, fringed with a second growth of wood on its western boundary and containing about 288 acres. The entire tract has been cultivated, several cottages erected, and 33 persons settled.

^a Cooperative Credit Associations in certain European Countries. Report No. 3, Miscellaneous Series, Division of Statistics, United States Department of Agriculture, 1892.

The owners of the land, Hon. Myron T. Herrick and Mr. James Parmelee, have deeded the land to the Salvation Army for colonization purposes, and the citizens of Cleveland, together with some other friends, have contributed \$20,000 toward the enterprise. This extremely generous action will give a splendid start to the Ohio colony, and the intention is to make it a model institution of the kind and an important training ground for the colonies in the West. A small schoolhouse has been built, drinking water is being piped from springs in the neighborhood, and part of the land is about to be tile drained.

COLONY FINANCE.

As the colonies are intended for the worthy families of the city poor, who often have no money even for their traveling expenses, it becomes necessary to provide the capital. The fact that the surplus population of the great cities does not more readily transfer itself to the country districts is not due, as is often supposed, to their attachment to the former and dislike for the latter. If the necessary capital is forthcoming, and they are placed in a position to become home owners, and not mere tenants or farm laborers, the movement of population can be carried out with celerity and success.

Another mistake commonly made in the attempted removal of the city poor has been the effort to colonize the unmarried poor. This is false economy. The family will prove cheaper in the long run, since the wife and children supply unpaid labor. To illustrate: On one of the colonies at the time of a recent visit the father was found cultivating his own land, while the children were earning as much as \$2 daily, picking berries for a neighboring farmer. The wife meanwhile looked after the house, the baby, the meals, and the poultry. All were busy, all were earning money. The family had but recently arrived, and were already self-supporting. It was only necessary to find them a cottage, team, agricultural implements, and seed.

In another case the father was able to make good wages as a carpenter, putting up cottages and barns for the colony and neighbors, while the wife and children looked after the home and farm. Five acres were sufficient to supplement his earnings.

Hence it is seen that with management and the selection of a tract of good land, the main requirement is a sufficiency of capital to erect cottages, purchase live stock and implements, and meet traveling and other expenses. The average cost per family amounts to \$500, apart from payments for land, and exclusive of general land improvements, such as irrigation works, water supply, and other general utilities. For this sum a family can be fairly launched.

For the purpose of raising the necessary funds, thirty-year gold bonds for \$150,000 have been issued on the Colorado and California colonies. Interest is payable semiannually at 5 per cent. A sinking fund of 2

per cent has been established, and the bonds are guaranteed by the Salvation Army, Incorporated.

In addition to the above a colony endowment fund, consisting of donations, has been organized. This fund now amounts to about \$30,000. The money is loaned to the colonists in the usual way, being reinvested as fast as it is repaid.

The colonists receive a contract for the purchase of the land and cottage, and are supplied with live stock and implements, a regular account being furnished to the head of each family at stated intervals, showing his indebtedness. The sense of ownership is from the first cultivated, with excellent results. The experience of the Salvation Army is adverse to community of ownership in such settlements. Such ownership usually results in the lazy doing nothing and expecting everything, while the industrious do everything and get nothing—at least nothing commensurate with their toil. Thus a premium is placed upon idleness. This commonly ends in the industrious becoming discouraged, pulling out, and going where they can get the rewards of their industry. The others are then quickly scattered.

The first colonists reached Fort Amity in April, 1898. Most of them had their own household goods. Here and there one had a team of his own. Otherwise they were simply workingmen from the large cities, chiefly New York, who had been unable to accumulate any property. Their railroad fares were paid and their goods shipped to Fort Amity. They were settled upon plots of from 10 to 20 acres each, received a house to live in, the necessary tools and implements, a horse or two each, one or two cows, pigs, and poultry.

The cost of all this was a debt against the colonist. The first were set to work making improvements—irrigating ditches, fences, etc. They were allowed the current rate of wages, \$2 a day. Half of this was credited on their debt, the other dollar paid their living expenses until the returns from their land began to come in. In April, 1902, the first colonist discharged his entire debt to the Army. He arrived at Fort Amity in March, 1899, his entire capital, the savings of ten or twelve years of married life, being a team and some household furniture. He has now 20 acres with a neat stone cottage built by himself, all free from incumbrance. His entire debt to the Army was \$900. In three years he paid it off, besides supporting a wife and three children and building his house.

The rapid increase in land values caused by the close settlement of the land serves to protect the investment from any probability of loss. For instance, unimproved land which was bought for from \$20 to \$27 an acre is now selling at \$40, while the colonists value the same land improved at \$100, and sales have been made at even a higher price. In another colony land which was bought for \$50 is selling for \$100.

As an explanation of the comparatively high prices of the land it

should be explained that it has been deemed wise to pay the best prices for good soil, it being regarded as false economy to get poor land even as a gift, since the expenditure and improvements cost the same in either case, while the return is far greater if the soil is good.

The question is frequently asked whether any difficulty is found in recovering payments from the colonists. To this the following reply may be made:

1. So far from the colonists being unwilling to meet their liabilities they are eager to pay them off at the earliest possible moment.

2. Even were this not the case the rapid rise in land values would afford sufficient protection from loss.

3. An experience of nearly five years has shown that few outlets for capital are known so absolutely free from risk as colonization schemes of this kind, provided, of course, the enterprise be honestly and sensibly managed. It must be remembered that this statement is made after an experience with two severe droughts, insect pests, heavy interest for borrowed capital, repayments of short loans, insufficiency of capital, and serious variations of market in the sale of the produce, so that it can not be said that the success of the experiment has been due to an absence of the ordinary difficulties with which agricultural operations must necessarily contend.

In this connection the words of Mr. James A. Davis, the industrial commissioner of the Santa Fe Railroad, who has watched the colony in Colorado from its inception and is familiar with all its workings, may be quoted: "As a colonization plan it is the most practical and feasible that has ever come to my attention. As an investment I consider it sound." To these words may be added the following letter from the late President Benjamin Harrison:

I recall with pleasure my conversation with you in which you outlined your plans for colonizing the poor of our great cities on small homestead farms. I was much interested in what you said, as the work seemed to have great promise in it, especially in view of what seemed to me the very practical and business-like lines on which you had laid it down. It is a very pitiful thing to see industrious and worthy people who have been enticed from their country homes into the city, and are bound there hand and foot by their inability to accumulate enough to get back to the life in which they were reared, and in which they might have success. Your plan to make a thorough inquiry into the adaptation of the people to be helped, and not to take any except those whose habits seem to promise success, and to help these, not by gifts that pauperize, but by loans to be repaid, seems to me to be highly wise and commendable.

FARM COLONIES IN SOUTH AFRICA.

Several farm colonies have been established by the Salvation Army in South Africa. On a small farm near Cape Colony needy whites are taken care of when stranded, and are provided with a temporary home

and work. The Government allows an annual grant of \$1,000 toward the expenses.

A tract of 3,000 acres has been granted to the Salvation Army in Rhodesia and two similar tracts in Zululand for the formation of native settlements. The work has made considerable progress in spite of the war, the labors of the Salvation Army officers receiving the warmest encouragement, both from Boers and from British officials.

FARM COLONIES IN AUSTRALIA.

A large tract of valuable land, covering 20,000 acres, has recently been deeded to the Salvation Army in Western Australia by the Government for colonization purposes. As a rule no individual grant is allowed to exceed 5,000 acres, but in the present instance a special exception was made by the legislature, for the purpose of assisting in the efforts to settle the worthy poor.

The Collie settlement is situated in the southwestern portion of Western Australia, 125 miles by rail from Perth and 40 miles by rail from the nearest seaport town, Bunbury. The celebrated coal mines of the Collie River are 3 miles from the settlement. The 20,000 acres consist of forest, scrub, and open country, with 17 miles of river frontage. A large number of paddocks have been fenced and the outer boundaries are nearing completion. The various colony buildings are now being erected and will include a large home for boys at Gibb's Ford and a girls' home at Pollard's Homestead.

In addition to the above tract of land, several smaller colonies have been established, occupying nearly 3,000 acres, and including three industrial farms for criminal and neglected boys, and three industrial homes for girls, with total accommodations for 362. There is also a home for aged men. Toward the above homes and farms the Australian Government contributes annual grants amounting to \$15,000, the total annual expenditure of the Salvation Army upon them amounting (exclusive of Collie) to \$45,000.

SALVATION ARMY LAND AND INDUSTRIAL COLONY AT HADLEIGH, NEAR LONDON, ESSEX, ENGLAND.^(a)

This colony is situated near the mouth of the Thames, about 30 miles from London. Many sites were offered, but the one at Hadleigh comprising about 3,000 acres was selected as being the most likely to afford the greatest number of advantages, because of its geographical situation. The colony comprises a tract of land extending from the vicinity of Benfleet Station to Leigh Station, on the London, Tilbury and Southend Railway—a distance of 3 miles.

^aThe information relating to the Hadleigh colony was furnished by Colonel Lamb, the manager of the colony.

This railway flanks the southern side of the settlement and cuts through the southeast portion. Beyond is the fore shore of the Essex coast. The London main road to Southend passes through the northern side.

The colony has been divided into sections, as follows, each under a responsible superintendent:

	Acres.
Arable farm land.....	600
Pasture land.....	1,000
Market garden.....	300
Brick field, No. 1 } Brick field, No. 2 } about.....	100
Brick field, No. 3 }	
Fore shore and fishing.....	1,000
Total.....	3,000

The expenditures for the Hadleigh colony have been approximately as follows:

Original cost of the land.....	\$200,000
Buildings, railways, wharf, and other necessities.....	125,000
Purchase of adjoining lands.....	125,000
Cattle, sheep, horses, and general stock.....	100,000
Wagons, machinery, implements, etc.....	50,000
Total.....	600,000

The gates of the colony are open to every destitute man, irrespective of creed or nationality. The bulk of the men are housed in dormitories, classified according to the character of the men and other conditions generally.

Admission dormitory contains about 30 beds. As the individual progresses in usefulness and good conduct, he is promoted step by step until he reaches the dormitory, constructed internally to accommodate only 3 men in one room.

A grade above this is Castle House, with sleeping accommodation for some 30 men. This is chiefly reserved for timekeepers, foremen, and others of good character.

The highest class is Park House, a select residence situated in the center of the market garden, which can accommodate only about 20. The essential qualification for admission to this enviable retreat is an irreproachable character. The object of thus grading the men is to hold before them a constant inducement for self-improvement. The motto of each grade is "excelsior."

LABOR CONDITIONS.

The labor of the colony, instead of being cheaper, is on the whole more expensive than that of other employers, because of the excessive amount it costs to maintain a large section of almost useless workers. Owing to the character of the colony there is always a large proportion

of "wastrels" continually on hand, whose labor, during the probationary period of six weeks or three months, can not by any means be reckoned as an equivalent for their maintenance. The ordinary employer rejects this class entirely and, moreover, in slack seasons dispenses with a number of his average hands, whose rate of wages here is equal to that obtainable outside.

There is also a considerable number of those who are permanently incapable, either from old age or other causes. These constitute a serious incumbrance, from a commercial standpoint, which the ordinary employer has not to reckon with. This drawback, however, is counterbalanced to a considerable extent in the case of workhouse men by the subsidies of the boards of guardians, and is likely to be more so by the Government subsidies which the colony is likely to receive in the near future.

The administration of the colony is, however, for this and other reasons, more expensive than that of an ordinary commercial undertaking.

For the last two years the average number of men employed on the colony has been about 300, exclusive of the outside local labor which it is necessary to employ during the fruit-picking season.

COST OF WORKING.

After paying administration expenses, there have been the following annual deficits in the working of the colony:

1892	\$22, 445	1896	\$25, 465
1893	18, 625	1897	3, 550
1894	12, 225	1898	4, 275
1895	29, 500	1899	6, 895

A small grant per head from the general funds, on account of the training of the newcomers during the probationary period, would entirely wipe out the deficit of the last three years.

The fore shore and fishing section on the eastern extremity of the colony is let to the fishermen of the Leigh village, and is a source of steady income.

The operations of the Salvation Army here, as elsewhere, have been productive of much good among the suffering and distressed of humanity, and despite the almost insuperable difficulties that have from time to time confronted the administration, the colony to-day is in a flourishing condition.

Notwithstanding that year by year the working has shown a deficit, the enterprise from a commercial standpoint can not be looked upon as otherwise than a financial success, in view of the fact that the annual deficit has almost reached vanishing point. Moreover, the aggregate deficiency is more than counterbalanced by an enhanced value of the land and colony generally.

THE MANAGEMENT OF THE COLONY.

To manage the colony the fittest are selected, irrespective of religious persuasion, provided there is evidence of a Christian tendency and proof of total abstinence.

Experienced men are at the head of each department. They report to, and take general directions from, the manager, who is resident on the colony.

The manager is assisted at the head office by a staff of officers who attend to the booking, correspondence, etc., under his personal guidance and direction.

In addition there is a properly equipped repairs section for effecting all necessary repairs on any part of the colony, and a traffic department which conducts all traffic, whether by road, rail, or water.

A citadel, or hall for public meetings, of commodious structure, is built inside the colony gates, for which rent is paid by means of free offerings by the men and attendants from the neighboring village and district. There are two spiritual officers in charge, who are supported in like manner.

All religious and semisecular meetings are held in this building and the men are expected to attend service at least once on Sunday either here or at some of the churches in the neighborhood. Special meetings are held every Saturday evening, more particularly for the benefit of the men, and one of the conditions of admission to the colony is that everyone must attend. They are usually of a semisecular character and are largely attended by residents in the vicinity.

Houses are provided in Castle avenue and in Orchard terrace for married men employed in the colony. There are also in Castle avenue a bakery and stores where every domestic commodity is obtainable at lowest market prices.

Farther along is a free library and reading room where a variety of excellent books, daily and weekly papers, and numerous magazines are provided for the men free of charge.

In close proximity is a blacksmith's shop where two smiths work at the anvil.

Lastly comes the house department, under the supervision of an officer whose duties are those of a superintendent and comprise catering for the men, control of kitchen and dining-room staff, dormitory orderlies, etc. He is furthermore responsible for the good conduct of the men after working hours, and is mainly responsible for the allocation of fresh comers to whichever department or section the capabilities and circumstances of the individual seem best to adapt him.

The superintendents of other departments have entire control of the men working under them, and from time to time make recommenda-

tions to the manager for an increase of remuneration to such of their men as are deemed worthy of advancement. Under no circumstances can the minimum allowance which is to be paid in tokens, for the purchase of food, be reduced. Industrious and energetic men speedily obtain the standard rate of outside wages with the additional advantage of full time.

AGRICULTURAL AND OTHER INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITIES.

Among the first efforts made in the farming section was stock raising, and in this the colony was singularly unfortunate for a succession of years. So discouraging were the results that an abandonment of the experiment was seriously contemplated. The misfortunes were chiefly in the form of abortions—this was the case almost without exception. Consequently, there was the somewhat serious loss of the young stock, coupled with the deteriorated value of the cows, which for conscientious reasons could be disposed of only to the butcher. The best available skill was procured, which resulted in an extraordinary manifestation of diverse opinions. The malady was attributed to the food, the water, the atmospheric and other influences, as well as to the bull, yet no remedy was discovered, though strangely enough the phenomenon disappeared as mysteriously as it came, and excellent cattle are now being bred.

Efforts to raise various breeds of sheep have been made and are being continued, with little hope, however, of forming a flock, owing to the unsuitability of the soil. Ewes in lamb are bought and after one dropping are sold. If kept longer they get poor. The policy is to buy a flying flock in spring and sell before the trouble begins—thus clearing all out the second year. It is by this means that such a large tract of pasture land can be utilized in a profitable manner.

In commencing operations in the cultivation of market-garden produce every conceivable obstacle was encountered. Sour unfertile soil, overrun with weeds, unskilled and unwilling workers, scarcity of water, and a variety of other difficulties were met. A commendable achievement, therefore, is the great expanse of standard fruit trees planted 7 or 8 years ago, and not yet in full fruit bearing, to which additions are still being made. These, together with the vast rows of gooseberry, black currant, strawberry, raspberry, and other fruit-bearing bushes, as well as the immense vegetation which covers the extensive orchards, entirely dispel the misconceived notion that Kent alone could grow fruit and that Essex soil was incapable of producing anything but wheat.

An early class of potatoes is largely grown. These are put on the first market and realize top prices, this of course necessitating buying from neighbors or others later in the season, but at much lower

prices, the large quantity of potatoes required for consumption by the colony.

Poultry farming has been exceptionally successful. A few years subsequent to starting this industry the services of an experienced breeder were secured, and the results have been phenomenal. Apart from the large quantity of eggs sent away at high prices numbers of birds are bred each season, and they have been crossed to such a degree of perfection that specimens exhibited at all the principal shows and exhibitions throughout the United Kingdom have invariably won first, second, or special prizes.

This led to Her Majesty the Queen becoming a purchaser. The Right Hon. Cecil Rhodes was also an extensive buyer of the best poultry of the colony for his South African homes.

After various attempts at breeding, it was at last found that the land favored principally a "Yorkshire" pig—middle white—and in the development of this stock excellent results have been obtained.

The inconvenience and loss caused by a scarcity of water is now at an end. An artesian well has been sunk which will give a sufficient supply for all the colony's industries and for kitchen and cattle sheds, in addition to making provision for a very large supply on the market garden. It is probable also that the water will be conducted to the village of Hadleigh, and produce increased income.

The three brickyards, each yielding a distinct class of brick, are practically inexhaustible. The efficient and economical working of two of the brickyards is now completely accomplished. One is capable of turning out 80,000 bricks a week all the year round, at a net profit of not less than \$2 per thousand. As the output of the other, 2,000,000 bricks were sold last season, and netted a profit of \$1.50 per thousand. The output will not diminish, but will largely increase, while the net profit is almost sure to increase.

With the remaining brickyard a variety of complications have from time to time presented themselves, but this also gives promise of excellent results with the completion of certain experiments, which were rendered necessary in the application of modern machinery to the treatment of refractory clay. The average output on this yard will not be less than 50,000 a day, and the profit is estimated to be handsome. The process adopted here produces bricks of more than ordinary stability, which are in great demand for building bridges and other structures where the resistance of pressure is an essential element in the bricks. All three yards can not fail to be a lasting source of ever-increasing revenue, more than sufficient to meet any probable deficiency that may result in the working of either of the agricultural sections.

Other industries which were originally contemplated and started as likely sources of income were abandoned for economic reasons.

Chair making, for instance, could only be successfully carried on by the exclusive employment of skilled hands, which it was found next to impossible to secure.

Steam joinery was also abandoned in consequence of the location of the operations rendering the transmission of the manufactured article a much too expensive process.

A vigorous effort was made to breed rabbits, but it was unsuccessful and was abandoned.

Southend, a large town about 5 miles distant, is a ready market for the garden and farm produce of the colony. There is also a rapidly growing demand for these commodities in the immediate neighborhood. Thus is secured a quick sale at better prices than if the produce were sent to London.

Most of the bricks are sent to London by barge from the wharf of the colony, or by rail.

It has been presumed that the colony has taken advantage of supposed cheaper labor, and undersells competitors. That the labor is not really cheap has already been demonstrated. As for underselling, the colony's produce invariably commands the highest prices in the market. This is partly due to the fact that experienced salesmen are employed, and also to the fact that the best products of all kinds that can be secured are taken into the open market and sold at the best prices available.

The sales of the various products amounted last year to about \$125,000, and could be increased, with an increasing rate of profit, by the introduction of sufficient working capital.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE DEVELOPMENT.

An industrial home for boys would be a great boon to the colony, inasmuch as it would remove or counteract one of the greatest difficulties with men, the majority of whom leave as soon as they become useful. The boys might be committed to the care of the colony for a definite period and so long could be relied upon for their labor. A subsidy from the Government might be granted for educational and other purposes. This home could be erected for \$50,000.

Any number of the aged poor might be boarded out in suitable homes, and contributions sufficient to maintain them made by the poor-law authorities. Suitable labor, such as poultry rearing and flower cultivation, could easily be provided and their earnings would go to swell the revenue. Fifty such houses would cost about \$50,000.

A valuable and remunerative extension of existing brickyards would cost about \$25,000.

Extension of the railway to the highlands of the colony would mean an outlay of commendable wisdom (\$25,000).

For want of the necessary capital there are still considerable tracts of land undeveloped, besides large tracts of land on the higher levels adjacent to it which ought to be acquired for extension of future operations, so as to afford greater facilities for a more successful manipulation of sheep and other stock, the higher levels to be in working in winter and the low lands in summer. To acquire this additional land and develop that already owned would require \$30,000.

There is a range of hilly land running along the center of the colony upon which there are no made-up roads, although it would be quite possible to construct them. A good road here would add considerably to the value of the stretch of land which fringes the bottom of the hills and would materially enhance the value of the two adjacent brickyards. On such a road and on one or two main roads through the colony it would be a profitable investment to spend, say, \$25,000.

For the use of the colony and for general water conveyance, six new barges should be acquired at a cost of \$25,000.

Increased cottage accommodation for workers on the colony should be constructed at a cost of \$10,000.

An excellent and safe investment would be in building workmen's houses at the eastern extremity of the colony, near the village of Leigh, a rapidly growing place, with railway station, 45 minutes from London. The outlay on such a scheme should be about \$50,000.

Greenhouses for early fruit cultivation should be built at a cost of \$25,000.

The stock of sheep and cattle might with advantage be increased by an outlay of \$10,000.

The advantages of an installation of free power and light it is next to impossible to overestimate. The saving effected in the manipulation of present operations on the brickyards alone would be enormous. The dissemination of such power throughout the estate would effect economy in every direction. The light would be a lasting boon. Such a plant could be furnished at a cost of about \$30,000.

When completed for the requirements of the colony the advantages of the plant might be extended to Hadleigh Village, which is close by, and thus become an additional source of income.

SOME CONCLUSIONS.

As a result of close observation, and the experience of some years' work among the classes designed to be benefited by the scheme, the conclusion is reached that all and more than all that General Booth promised in his "Darkest England" scheme can be accomplished.

The following essentials to success are suggested:

1. A suitable estate with some natural wealth (agricultural, pastoral, mineral, etc.).

2. The employment of experienced and devoted men and women as overseers.

3. The work on a sufficiently large scale to carry the incidental supervising expenses.

4. Sufficiently large also to make the settlement interesting and lively, not a mere hamlet or group of houses.

5. The principles of all the business departments must be commercially sound.

6. The doors should be open to all—married or single, without respect to creed or nationality.

COLONIZATION OF NEW ZEALAND.

The first Government to undertake colonization on a systematic plan was New Zealand. From the year 1870, when Sir Julius Vogel sent to the agent-general in London to dispatch 50,000 settlers in six months, up to 1894, when the Advances to Settlers Act was passed and \$15,000,000 voted for colonization purposes, the entire ground of the systematic employment and settlement of the working classes as self-supporting home owners has been covered with sagacity and enterprise.

In one case a vast estate comprising 84,000 acres was bought back from its owner, resurveyed, and divided up into farms of from 50 to 100 acres and grazing farms of from 500 to 3,000 acres. One chief township and three villages were marked out with 2,000 acres near the central town site for suburban and garden lots. In 1892 the entire population of the estate consisted of one family and its attendants. In 1898 the population had increased to more than 1,000. The farms had been eagerly taken up and were paying the Government 5½ per cent on the net cost, besides yielding the owners a good living.

Other large estates have been similarly bought back and settled by the Government, to the mutual satisfaction of the land owner and the settler.

The bold and generous policy which has been pursued by the New Zealand Government has many remarkable features.

In the first place, the married man with a family is given a distinct preference to the single man. Instead of marriage being discouraged, families broken up, and the single man, for false reasons of economy, given the preference, the exact opposite is the case. The married settler takes root more readily, is not liable to leave his farm, and is supplied with an abundance of unpaid and energetic labor. Again, the man without land is given the right of way in preference to the man who already has a farm in some other locality. This is in remarkable contrast to the "robbing Peter to pay Paul" plan pursued by our own railways and land-owning interests, which has stripped New

England of its best farmers to colonize the Middle States and which is now denuding the Northern and Central States to colonize the West and South.

Applicants for land in New Zealand are put through a rigid examination, and if it is found that they have farms elsewhere they are denied the privilege of occupying Government lands. The man who has neither land, money, nor experience in farming is carefully "shepherded" by the Government, is placed on road making, forest clearing, and general land improving, till he has gained the necessary knowledge, and is then helped to become a permanent settler and home owner. Under this enlightened tutelage the very tramp becomes in a few years a taxpayer, and even during the preparatory chrysalis stage meets all the expenses of his transformation, without being brought into competition with outside labor.

Mr. Lloyd thus summarizes the work of these "improved farm settlements," whose special object is the systematic employment and training of the out-of-works, for whose benefit civilization has elsewhere provided nothing better than "poorhouses, jails, and potter's fields."

There are 45 of these improved settlements. They cover an area of 73,320 acres. There were on them, at the last report, 513 land holders and 1,854 residents. The settlers had cleared 15,141 acres of the bush and had grassed 20,814. They had been advanced \$286,645, while the total value of the improvements which had been made by them was \$420,840, and they have paid in rent and interest \$13,210 yearly.

The farm laborer, who has been brought up on the land but has never had an opportunity of owning any, is wisely helped with the necessary advances which enable him to become a home owner.

The family which possesses a small amount of capital meets with abundant encouragement. Careful inquiries having been made as to their probable requirements and previous experience, they are assisted in obtaining the kind of farm on which they are likely to obtain the best results, and the improvements that their own capital enables them to make can afterwards be supplemented by the loans which they can obtain under the Advances to Settlers Act.

In addition to the settlement of farm lands, this act enables the workingman in the town to acquire suburban lots and gardens in the neighborhood of his work.

The loans granted by the Government can be either on the installment or on the fixed-loan system. On the installment plan mortgages are repayable by 73 half-yearly payments of principal and interest combined. These amount to only £3 (\$14.60) per half year on each £100 (\$486.65) advanced, thus placing the payments within easy reach of the settler.

On the fixed-loan system mortgages may be granted for any period not exceeding ten years, the principal being repayable at the end of the term.

Interest is charged at the rate of 5 per cent, reducible to $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, provided payment is made not later than fourteen days after due date, and there are no arrears.

No loans are granted for less than £25 (\$121.66) or more than £3,000 (\$14,599.50). After not less than one-tenth of the loan has been paid, it may be readjusted, thus allowing further elasticity to the act. The loan may, moreover, be repaid in whole or in part on the due date of any installment.

CANADIAN COLONIZATION.

While the Canadian Government has not at present adopted the New Zealand methods of colonization in their entirety, it has gone considerably beyond the ordinary American policy, inasmuch as there is an organized department for the purpose of promoting immigration, considerable sums of money being expended in the employment of agents, distribution of literature, and in definite efforts to turn the tide of immigration in the direction of the agricultural districts of Canada.

According to the annual report for 1901 the total number of immigrants for the year amounted to 49,149, of whom 17,987 went from the United States. In his report to the Canadian Government, Mr. W. J. White, inspector of agencies in the United States, says:

Since 1897 an active propaganda has been established and year after year has shown marked increases in the number of settlers who have gone to western Canada. The past year has been the most gratifying of all, exceeding anything that had been anticipated.

It is no longer the man with limited capital who comes to Canada, but the one who has, in many cases, a large bank account to his credit. It is no uncommon thing to see colonists filling a large train with their effects, going to Canada and settling in districts by themselves, quickly surrounding themselves with every social comfort and making not only their own settlement attractive, but adding value to the lands which surround it.

The American settler brings with him an experience which makes it very easy for him to soon get a return from the land which he has occupied, the usual difficulties of pioneering proving no obstacle to him. They at once have schools established, churches erected, and cause villages to spring up very quickly. The thousands of Americans who have made their homes in Canada during the past 5 years have all proved good citizens.

The reports of the agents show that 3,024 persons migrated during the year from Michigan, taking with them 93 carloads of stock and effects. From Wisconsin more than 500 persons migrated, taking with them a total of over \$500,000 worth of property. One hundred settlers

from Indianapolis, where the agency has only recently been established, took with them nearly \$100,000 worth of property. From Nebraska 1,661 settlers migrated, taking 154 carloads of settlers' effects and a capital of \$1,762,000. From South Dakota about 1,000 persons migrated, with 216 carloads of effects. From North Dakota 2,203 settlers migrated, with 354 carloads of goods and \$307,000 worth of effects, besides personal capital. A very large migration also took place from Minnesota—2,060 farmers, 241 carloads of effects valued at \$323,800, and a cash capital of \$2,273,000.

The methods adopted with so much success by the Canadian Government to promote immigration are:

1. The location of agents at suitable centers.
2. The distribution of an enormous quantity of advertising matter, amounting during the last year to 1,193,000 copies, and including atlases and full particulars regarding the districts which it is desired to colonize.
3. Exhibits of agricultural produce, which are taken to all the various county fairs, when lectures are given, literature distributed, and information supplied to would-be settlers.
4. The conducting of settlers to the land and advising them as to the best localities for settlement, thereby protecting them from being deceived by designing persons who are interested in the sale of land and who so often rob the settlers of their little savings and leave them in a state of destitution to go to the cities, because they have been stripped of their limited supply of capital.

It will be seen, therefore, that while the Canadian Government does not go so far as that of New Zealand, and has no system of "advances to settlers," it has an intelligent and well-organized plan for the systematic colonization of persons possessing a small amount of capital, for guiding them to the best locations, and for protecting them against the depredations of land sharks.

The Canadian Government also assists in the establishment of creameries, providing the necessary capital, where the supply of cows in the neighborhood justifies the same. Its agents speak enthusiastically in regard to the success of the plans which have been adopted and as to the future prospects of the same.

COLONIZATION OF IRRIGATED LANDS.

Irrigation is a means to an end, and that end is colonization. Upon the rapid and complete occupation of irrigated lands by a sturdy and aggressive community of small farmers the success of great projects of colonization must ultimately depend.

To colonize promptly and effectively the lands which are to be irrigated it is not necessary to wait for the ordinary inflow of

farmers possessing capital. The vast aggregations of labor in our great centers of population should be utilized. That this is feasible has been demonstrated.

The farm colonies of the Salvation Army were organized in 1898 to prove the possibility of relieving the congestion of the great cities, by removing worthy but poor families, furnishing them with the necessary capital, and settling them as home owners upon the land.

It was argued by those who, while friendly to the scheme, doubted its practicability, that (1) they would not go, (2) they would not stay, (3) they would not work, and (4) they would not pay. Four years of patient experiment have served to prove that these objections were groundless. The worthy poor of the great cities have gone, have stayed, have worked, and have paid. As a result of their successful toil they have become home owners, and the percentage of failures has been much smaller than was anticipated. Not only so, but thousands more would have gladly settled had the necessary capital been available.

The difficulty has not consisted in the lack of settlers. Suitable families by thousands are ready to move. Nor, again, has it been the lack of land. Millions of acres have been obtainable on the most reasonable terms. The great stumbling-block has been the paucity of capital available for carrying on the work. It has come in dribbles, and has required to be spread over a considerable area and a long interval of time. Had the funds been available for operating on a larger scale with a sufficiency of capital, far more satisfactory results would have been obtained.

That colonization is practicable, where the farmer or settler has capital of his own to invest, has never been denied; hence the strenuous efforts of the West and South to obtain from the Eastern and Central States settlers who have money. The prospect of acquiring cheaper and more fertile land has in some cases led to the wholesale abandonment of entire districts which were once prosperous and might have remained so.

Now, if the farmer with a small amount of capital can accomplish such remarkable results in settling up and developing new lands, why should not the farm laborer, or the sturdy toiler of the city, who has no capital, achieve similar success, if the necessary capital be provided from an outside source? There are many things in his favor. His habits are usually more economical than those of the farmer with a little capital. His children are willing to help in the fields, and do not crave an expensive college education. The cheap, intelligent, and industrious labor of his family is far better than the unsatisfactory and hired labor on which the other usually depends. The small size of his farm enables him to cultivate it intensively, while the nearness of the various homesteads enormously increases the value of his land, and

thereby automatically duplicates the result of his toil. His payments for interest are also smaller.

For instance, 1,000 acres occupied by 10 families in lots of 100 acres each will probably produce less than half as much as the same thousand acres occupied by 50 families in lots of 20 acres each. But, even granting that the produce should be the same, the real estate value would be enormously enhanced by the fact that in the former case the population would amount to about 50, and in the latter to 250. Hence the 20 acres of the small farmer would in a few years be worth more than the 100 acres of the larger holding, while the interest charges and payments for hired labor would be proportionately less.

This rapid increase in value of land thus thickly settled serves as ample security for the capital invested, provided that the management be honest, capable, and fairly economical.

Land bought four years ago at \$25 is selling to-day as high as \$100, while town-site land has been sold at a rate equivalent to more than \$3,000 an acre.

Hence, so far from colonization being a risky enterprise, when carried out under proper auspices, it affords a maximum of security with a minimum of risk.

It will be invariably found that where colonization has failed it has been due to avoidable errors. For instance, from false motives of economy single men have been preferred to married men; small families, or none at all, to large ones. Or, again, the ownership of the farm has been refused, or communistic principles have been adopted. The majority of failures have been due to unpractical ideas. Everybody has owned everything in general, and nobody has owned anything in particular. Hence the industrious have not received the proper reward of their toil, have become discouraged, and have retired; while, left to themselves, the shiftless and unproductive have soon shipwrecked the most promising enterprises.

Again, in many cases no care has been exercised in the choice of colonists, or they have been handled harshly, suspiciously, and without sufficient tact or energy.

In other instances the enterprise has languished for lack of capital or owing to the absence of judicious oversight.

Indeed, the wonder is that in view of the general absence of system the results have been on the whole so remarkable in the occupation of vacant lands. But the time has now come when scientific colonization must take its place alongside scientific agriculture. The causes of failure must be ascertained and avoided. The principles must be discovered and followed which will insure a maximum of result with a minimum of risk.

As already stated, the Salvation Army is now operating three colo-

nies in America—one in California, one in Ohio, and one in Colorado. About 400 persons have been settled upon some 3,000 acres of land. The families are entirely self-supporting. Some of them have paid for their holdings. Many of the 20-acre farms are valued at from \$2,000 to \$5,000. On some of them stone cottages and barns have been erected. But interesting and successful as has been this experiment, it is not necessary to rely exclusively upon the data thus furnished. A far larger and more extensive effort, already discussed to some extent in this article, has been made by the New Zealand Government. While others have been talking or dreaming, the enterprising Government of New Zealand has been acting and laying down lines which will undoubtedly be followed before long by the leading nations of the world.

The expenditure of \$15,000,000 by that country upon the colonization of lands has been conducted on a system which leaves but little to be desired. The small farmer who is being crushed by exorbitant interest, and driven to sell his farm or abandon it and turn to the city, can in New Zealand borrow money from the Government at 4½ per cent and repay it in thirty-six and one-half years, or sooner, if he desire. This checks the exodus from the country to the city.

The farm laborer who wants to become a home owner can buy land from the Government and borrow money at the same low rate of interest and on the same easy terms of repayment. This serves as check No. 2 to the abandonment of the country for the city.

The artisan or clerk in the city who wants to buy a farm and own a home can have his savings supplemented in the same generous manner.

If he prefers to have a cottage and a garden near the city, he can borrow for this purpose and build himself a home near his work, thus supplementing his wages by his garden produce and preparing for the evil day when he may be thrown out of work.

If he is stranded in the city and can not get work, the Government, instead of committing him to a semipenal pauper institution sends him into the country to make roads and improve some part of the national estate. He is paid wages, part of it in cash for his support and part of it in getting into shape a tract of land which is to become his future home, and on which he can, in due time, obtain from the Government a loan for improvements. His family, if he has one, is brought to him, and he is charged with the expense. If he has none, he is encouraged to marry and settle down. In this way nearly 50 industrial colonies have been established, and thousands of acres of land occupied.

Not a dollar has been lost by the Government, and while other nations are sinking millions upon their poor in useless waste, and

never dreaming of recovering a cent, New Zealand is borrowing at 3 to 3½ per cent, lending at 4½, and settling its lands with taxpayers by means of those who would ordinarily be a burden on its revenues.

This interesting experiment in sociology has been going on for some ten years with complete success; and there seems absolutely no reason why, *mutatis mutandis*, the system should not be adopted in this country and throughout the civilized world. It would mean not only the settlement of our unoccupied lands, but the reoccupation of our abandoned farms by a thrifty, industrious population who would yield a rich revenue to the taxgatherer. Such a policy breathes the very essence of Christianity.

Important as has been the question of colonization in the past, it assumes double significance in view of the immense strides that public sentiment has recently taken upon the question of irrigation. The vast works that are now being planned and will shortly be constructed make it important that prompt and regular returns should be insured for the capital about to be expended by the speedy and systematic occupation of the lands thus opened for cultivation. It is the small farmer who is especially needed for the occasion, and it will be found that wisely guided colonization will prove a most valuable handmaid to irrigation.

Everyone who has had any experience in the question is aware that the one discouraging feature in irrigation has been the slowness with which the lands have been occupied on the usual voluntary principle of settlement by farmers possessing a small amount of capital. The heavy expenses connected with the upkeep of canals and reservoirs make it imperative that the land should be occupied with the utmost celerity. Otherwise the charges for irrigation, falling on the few, become extremely burdensome, if not impossible, alarming prospective settlers and effectually preventing, or at least greatly retarding, the work of settlement. Moreover the investors in the enterprise, not receiving any adequate dividends, are discouraged from advancing the additional capital necessary for the development or upkeep of the project.

It was pointed out to a prominent capitalist, who was president of one of the leading irrigation companies, that if it was worth while spending \$2,000,000 in placing water on the land, it would surely abundantly repay the company to spend at least twice that sum in placing colonists upon it. But, strange to say, these men of intelligence, who had laid out vast sums in perfecting their water supply, were unwilling to "risk" a dollar in supplying capital for the colonization of their land.

Colonization as the handmaid of irrigation will bring within the reach of the latter new confidence and possibilities, while irrigation

will prepare for colonization new realms of possibility, and these combined sciences will open before the working classes of this country new vistas of help and hope, will recreate that bulwark of national prosperity, the small farmer, and will provide an immense home market for our productions, making it easier for the masses of our population to be and do good, and to fulfill the obligations of citizenship and the dictates of God and conscience. Thus we may well hope that in solving the problems of poverty the bulwarks of national prosperity may, with the blessing of God, be strengthened and maintained, the dangers of class discord be minimized, and the harmonizing influences of religion be extended.

THE NEGROES OF XENIA, OHIO: A SOCIAL STUDY.

BY RICHARD R. WRIGHT, JR., B. D.

This study of the Negroes of Xenia, Ohio, is undertaken on the plan of the previous studies of the Negroes of Farmville, Virginia, ^(a) and of the Negroes of Sandy Spring, Maryland, ^(b) published by the Department of Labor. It is the first of these studies relating to a northern community, and it is hoped that it will prove useful in comparison with the other two studies as showing the mode of life of Negroes under somewhat different social, political, and economic conditions. For this study Xenia offers several advantages which may justly entitle it to be called typical. It is one of the oldest towns in Ohio, and has a very well-defined group of Negroes settled almost entirely in one section. It has a larger proportion of Negroes to the total population than any other place of 2,500 inhabitants or more in Ohio; and these Negroes have among them some of the oldest residents of the city, and also some of the most recent immigrants. Here are families of several generations of freedmen, descendants of runaway slaves, together with the Negro of the South who has ventured North for the first time in search of what he thinks is more freedom.

The statistics upon which this study is based were gathered during the months of May and June, 1902, and a partial recount was made during the following September.

GREENE COUNTY, OHIO. ^(c)

Greene County, named for Gen. Nathaniel Greene, the Revolutionary war hero, is bounded on the north by Clark County; on the east by Madison and Fayette counties; on the south by Clinton and Warren counties, and on the west by Montgomery County. It is in the southwestern part of the State, about midway between Columbus and Cincinnati, and was one of the first counties provided for by the Ohio legislature in 1803.

The principal features of its topography are the valleys of the Little Miami River, Beaver Creek, Cæsar's Creek, and Mad River, into

^a Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 14.

^b Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 32.

^c Cf. History of Greene County, R. S. Dills, 1881; also History of Greene County by Robinson, 1902, and Howe's Historical Collections of Ohio, 1852.

which nearly all the drainage of the county is directed. The largest of these valleys, that of Beaver Creek, is supposed to have been excavated by a large river which once flowed through it; but it now contains only a small sluggish stream. The Little Miami Valley, which contains the river of similar name, drains about half of the county. It consists of two well-marked portions, the lower and upper valleys, the lower containing some of the most valuable agricultural land in the county. Cæsar's Creek drains the southeastern part of the county and Mad River the northwestern corner. Aside from these principal depressions the general surface of the county is a plain, having an average elevation of about 1,000 feet above the sea. The lowest point in the county, near its southern boundary, is about 700 feet above sea level; while the highest point, in the north, is about 1,100 feet. The soils of the county are chiefly the alluvial and gravel terraces of the Little Miami, Mad River, and Beaver Creek valleys. Here are some of the most attractive and valuable farming lands. They were used as corn grounds by the Indians, and in later days it is said that some parts of this region have borne for 50 consecutive years corn or wheat without the application of any fertilizers whatever. The yellow and white clays of the upland part of the county, and the black soils, or blue-grass lands, of the eastern section constitute other varieties of soils in the county. The water supply of Greene County is good. It abounds in springs, as is suggested by the names of Yellow Springs, Tawawa Springs, and Spring Valley.

The townships of the county are twelve, namely: Xenia, Cedarville, Beaver Creek, Sugar Creek, Miami, Bath, Ross, Silver Creek, Jefferson, Spring Valley, New Jasper, and Cæsar's Creek. Greene County contains about 416 square miles. There are 256,172 acres of farm lands of which 214,388 acres are improved. The total number of farms in 1900 was 2,637 as against 2,387 in 1890. According to the United States census the farm land was divided as follows in 1890 and in 1900:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF FARMS IN GREENE COUNTY, BY SIZE, 1890 AND 1900.

Size of farms.	1890.		1900.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 10 acres.....	166	6.96	238	9.03
10 or under 20 acres.....	141	5.90	142	5.39
20 or under 50 acres.....	313	13.11	365	13.84
50 or under 100 acres.....	650	27.23	737	27.95
100 or under 500 acres.....	1,109	46.46	1,147	43.49
500 or under 1,000 acres.....	7	.30	8	.30
1,000 acres or over.....	1	.04
Total.....	2,387	100.00	2,637	100.00

The average size of farms in Greene County in 1890 was 103 acres; in 1900, 97.1 acres.

The following table shows the tenure of the farms in 1890, whether cultivated by owners or rented for money or rented on shares:

TENURE OF FARMS IN GREENE COUNTY, BY SIZE, 1890.

Size of farms.	Cultivated by owners.		Rented for money.		Rented on shares.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 10 acres	125	7.83	21	9.17	20	3.57
10 or under 20 acres	110	6.89	13	5.68	18	3.21
20 or under 50 acres	214	13.40	40	17.47	59	10.52
50 or under 100 acres	453	28.37	61	26.64	136	24.24
100 or under 500 acres	689	43.14	98	40.61	327	58.28
500 or under 1,000 acres	5	.31	1	.43	1	.17
1,000 acres or over	1	.06				
Total	1,597	100.00	229	100.00	561	100.00

As the census of 1900 does not classify the tenure of farms in the same way, it is impossible to give corresponding figures. The returns in 1900 were made as follows: Cultivated by owners, 1,247; by part owners, 229; by owners and tenants, 84; by managers, 30; cash tenants, 231; share tenants, 816.

Of the 2,637 farms reported in 1900, 90, or 3.4 per cent, were operated by colored persons. Of these, 32 were cultivated by owners, 13 by part owners, 4 by owners and tenants, 3 by managers, 15 by cash tenants, 23 by share tenants.

In 1890 the valuation of farm lands and fences was \$13,787,175; of implements and machinery, \$377,105; of live stock, \$1,438,244. The value of farming products was estimated for the year 1889 at \$1,571,220 and the cost of fertilizers at \$5,417. In 1900 the valuation of farm lands and improvements (except buildings) was \$10,929,480; of implements and machinery, \$395,310; of live stock, \$1,627,545; of buildings, \$2,763,040. The estimate of the farming products not fed to live stock for the year 1899 was \$2,894,185, the cost of fertilizers \$15,130, and of labor \$219,720. The chief products of the county, according to the censuses for 1889-90 and 1899-1900, were as follows:

PRINCIPAL FARM PRODUCTS OF GREENE COUNTY, 1889-90 AND 1899-1900.

CEREALS AND POTATOES.

Products.	1889-90.		1899-1900.	
	Bushels.	Acres.	Bushels.	Acres.
Barley	3,873	112	630	25
Buckwheat	208	25	230	19
Indian corn	2,158,191	60,218	3,188,880	67,059
Oats	258,873	8,253	107,780	3,238
Eye	5,829	370	3,150	183
Wheat	705,180	46,100	1,015,990	60,111
Potatoes, Irish	156,817	2,077	103,934	1,456
Potatoes, sweet	1,992	24	3,716	65

PRINCIPAL FARM PRODUCTS OF GREENE COUNTY, 1889-90 AND 1899-1900—Concluded.

MISCELLANEOUS PRODUCTS.

Kind.	Unit of measure.	1889-90.	1899-1900.
Sorghum	Gallons	1,162	640
Tobacco	Pounds	304,800	629,790
Apples	Bushels	198,009	121,265
Cherries	Bushels	2,147	3,053
Peaches	Bushels	9,623	136
Pears	Bushels	4,952	2,998
Plums and prunes	Bushels	316	731
Milk	Gallons	3,064,012	α 4,592,470
Butter	Pounds	786,220	α 943,512
Cheese	Pounds	275	α 3,394
Honey	Pounds	31,337	19,230
Wax	Pounds	115	250
Eggs	Dozen	700,705	958,560

α 2,391 of the 2,637 farms reporting.

LIVE STOCK AND POULTRY.

Kind.	June 1, 1890.	June 1, 1900.
Milch cows	7,992	8,182
Other cattle	10,041	14,541
Horses	11,552	11,726
Mules and asses	254	247
Swine	56,351	56,211
Sheep	20,317	28,187
Chickens	189,442	179,517
Turkeys	9,293	4,167
Geese	2,321	2,378
Ducks	6,774	3,084

The value of the miscellaneous vegetables raised in 1899-1900 was \$45,815, there being 856 acres devoted to raising these products. The value of the orchard products was \$53,126; of the poultry, \$129,513; of dairy products, \$274,677. From the sale of animals \$636,344 was received, and those slaughtered upon the farms were valued at \$106,609.

There are 121 schoolhouses, having 209 rooms, in the county; and in these are employed 217 teachers. The value of school buildings is \$320,450, the salaries of teachers amount to \$87,801.32, and the total expenditures for schools in 1901 amounted to \$145,262.43.

In 1803 the voting population of Greene County was 439 free white males over 21 years of age, according to the official count in each township at that time. The first census by the United States was taken in 1810. For each census year since then the population by color, not including the few Chinese and Indians reported at the censuses since 1870, was as follows:

POPULATION OF GREENE COUNTY, BY COLOR, 1810 TO 1900.

Year.	Whites.	Colored.	Total.
1810	5,834	36	5,870
1820	10,468	61	10,529
1830	14,639	162	14,801
1840	17,184	344	17,528
1850	21,292	654	21,946
1860	24,722	1,475	26,197
1870	24,199	3,815	28,014
1880	26,774	4,553	31,327
1890	25,750	4,060	29,810
1900	27,554	4,055	31,609

XENIA.

The city of Xenia is situated near the center of Greene County, of which it is the county seat, 65 miles northeast of Cincinnati and 55 miles southwest of Columbus. It was laid out in a forest in the autumn of 1803, the same year Ohio was admitted into the Union. Its first inhabitants came principally from Kentucky. The town grew slowly. A historian in 1838 described its population as those who "live well, work hard, and are healthy, moral, and prosperous." In the main this description would suit the present population of Xenia.

Xenia is the center of trade for Greene County, though a considerable amount of trade goes to the larger cities of Dayton and Springfield, 19½ and 19 miles away, respectively. Its business directory includes a number of large establishments. The Cincinnati, Hamilton and Dayton and the Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago and St. Louis railways run through the city. An electric line also connects the city with Dayton. There are two national banks, established respectively in 1882 and 1883, each having a capital stock of \$100,000. Two building and loan associations have done much in assisting in home building. One of these has a capital of \$500,000, the other a capital of \$100,000. One daily, one semiweekly, and two weekly newspapers are published in Xenia, besides one monthly magazine. Other businesses and occupations are as follows:^(a) Dealers in agricultural implements, 3; architects, 2; bakeries, 4; barbers, 15; bicycle repairers, 2; blacksmiths, 10; hotels, 5; boot and shoe dealers, 5; carriage dealers and repairers, 5; dealers in carpets, 4; dealers in chinaware and glassware, 2; cigar makers and dealers, 5; clothiers, 5; coal dealers, 8; confectioners, 4; contractors, 7; cordage factories, 2; dry-goods dealers, 6; druggists, 5; lumber dealers, 5; express companies, 2; florists, 2; fish dealers, 2; flour and grain dealers, 5; dealers in fruits, 2; furniture dealers, 5; grocers, 35; house furnishers, 3; jewelers, 6; junk dealers, 4; laundries, 3; livery stables, 6; meat markets, 7; tailors, 7; milliners, 3; dealers in paints, 2; painters, 6; photographers, 4; printers and publishers, 4; real estate dealers, 4; restaurants, 7; shoemakers, 6; telephone companies, 2; tinnerns, 3; undertakers, 6; wall-paper dealers, 2; and the following of 1 each: General merchandise, picture-frame dealer, dealer in bar fixtures, plumber, pork packer, dealer in stoves and ranges, shoe manufactory, dealer in toys, dealer in trees, trunk dealer, roofer, seller of washing machines, seller of sewing machines, maker and seller of monuments, nursery, house mover, artificial-limb factory, automobile factory, axle-grease factory, billposter, bookstore, brewery, broker, cement contractor, electric-light company, dealer in furnaces, and dealer in grass and grass seeds.

^aTaken from the city directory, only those which seem to be permanent being given.

There are 16 physicians, 31 attorneys, 6 dentists, 2 opticians, and 1 veterinary surgeon.

The police department consists of the chief and 6 patrolmen; the fire department of the chief and 11 men. There are 7 mail carriers. There are 7 public schools, 1 Catholic school, 1 Presbyterian Theological Seminary with an endowment of \$150,000, and 31 lodges and societies. The churches are 5 Baptist, 4 Methodist, 3 Presbyterian, 1 Catholic, 1 Christian, 1 Episcopal, 1 Reformed, and 1 Lutheran, and there is a Young Men's Christian Association. The Ohio Soldiers and Sailors' Orphans' Home, founded by the Department of Ohio of the Grand Army of the Republic in 1868, is just at the city's limits. It has been supported by the State of Ohio since April 15, 1870. About 900 children are in attendance, and the property consists of 297 acres of land and 70 buildings. The assessed value of all property is \$3,732,162, of which \$2,229,620 is the valuation of personal property and \$1,502,542 the valuation of real estate.

The following table shows the growth of the population of Xenia since 1830:

POPULATION OF XENIA, BY COLOR, 1830 TO 1900.

Year.	White.	Colored.	Total.
1830.....	902	17	919
1850.....	2,694	380	3,074
1860.....	3,856	602	4,458
1870.....	4,687	1,690	6,377
1880.....	5,077	a 1,949	7,026
1890.....	5,424	b 1,877	7,301
1900.....	6,705	c 1,991	8,696

a Including 3 Chinese and Japanese and 3 Indians.

b Including 3 Chinese and 6 Indians.

c Including 3 Chinese.

This table shows that Xenia has had a steady but slow growth. In the antebellum days the colored population was very small, constituting from 1.8 per cent in 1830 to 17.2 per cent of the entire population in 1860. During the first two decades after the war the colored population increased very rapidly and in 1880 was 1,949, or 27.7 per cent of the entire population. Since 1880 the colored population has been at somewhat of a standstill, being 1,877 in 1890 and 1,991 in 1900. It now constitutes 22.9 per cent of the population of Xenia, which is the largest per cent of any city in the State.

The schedule of questions which follows was used in this investigation, and the canvass of each house was made in person by the investigator during the months of May and June, 1902. The schedule is substantially the one used in the Farmville and Sandy Spring studies.

1. Number of persons in the family?
2. Relation of this person to the head of the family?
3. Sex?
4. Age at nearest birthday?

5. Conjugal condition?
6. How many times married?
7. Place of birth? If in Ohio, give county.
8. Length of residence in Xenia?
9. Free before 1863? How long?
10. Were parents free before 1863?
11. Length of residence in this house?
12. Able to read?
13. Able to write?
14. Grade when leaving school?
15. Months in school last year?
16. Usual occupation?
17. Wages per day, week, or month?
18. Weeks unemployed last year?
19. Working for self?
20. Worked at how many places last year?
21. Worked at how many places in last five years?
22. Worked at same place for five years or more?
23. Mother of how many children, born living?
24. Number of children living now?
25. Where are such children now?
26. Births in family during the year?
27. Deaths in family during the year?
28. Does family own this house?
29. Does family own any other lands or houses?
30. Value of all property owned by family?
31. How long has family owned property?
32. Rent paid?
33. Kind and size of house?
34. Church membership, or attendance?
35. Complexion—black, brown, or light?

As will be seen further on in this report all of the Negroes are not included. In that section of the city commonly known as "East End," that is, east of Fair street, between Columbus pike and the tracks of the Pittsburg, Cincinnati, Chicago and St. Louis Railroad, only 9 white families live, the rest of the population being Negroes. These latter with the few which were found in the one block west of Fair street, from the pike to the railroad, constitute the subjects of this inquiry. They form, according to the census of 1900, over 92 per cent of the Negro population of Xenia. The other 8 per cent are scattered among the white people as servants and laborers.

In the main there was but little trouble experienced in having the questions answered. In fact, if the spirit of the answers is an index to their accuracy, the report is 99 per cent correct. Questions 18, 21, and 22, however, were very hard to answer, and the results obtained from them are of little value. Questions 14 and 25 were finally dropped from the list, the first because of the complications arising out of the attendance of the older element and the younger rural element at ungraded and partly graded schools; the second because in a large number of cases the exact whereabouts of children could not be told.

For the other questions the answers were as satisfactory as might be expected.

AGE, SEX, AND BIRTHPLACE OF NEGRO POPULATION.

The total number of Negroes reported in this study is 1,832, just 156 less than the number given by the last census. These 156, who are perhaps left out, may be accounted for as living out of proximity to the large settlement of Negroes. In the 1,832 are included 2 clergymen (whose families are in Xenia) who preach out of the city, returning to it in the intervals between work; 2 men who go over to Dayton to work but whose families and homes are in Xenia; also 8 white women, wives of colored men, and 1 white child adopted into a Negro family, who thus share the economic and social life of Negroes, and are for the purpose of this study, Negroes. Of the 1,832 reported, 870 are males and 962 females, a proportion of 1,106 females to 1,000 males.^(a)

This excess of females is in accordance with the total Negro population of the United States, which is 1,012 females to 1,000 males, and the report for Sandy Spring, which gives 1,053,^(b) and Farmville, which gives 1,048.^(b) The following table shows the number of Negroes in Xenia by age periods and sex:

NUMBER OF NEGROES IN XENIA FROM WHOM REPORTS WERE OBTAINED, BY AGE PERIODS AND SEX, 1902.

Age periods.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 1 year	22	13	35
1 to 4 years	56	56	112
5 to 9 years	91	89	180
10 to 15 years	79	108	187
16 to 19 years	65	81	144
20 to 29 years	149	168	317
30 to 39 years	104	133	237
40 to 49 years	112	125	237
50 to 59 years	82	108	185
60 to 69 years	73	51	124
70 to 79 years	25	18	43
80 to 89 years	5	3	13
90 years or over	3	3
Age unknown	9	6	15
Total	870	962	1,832

This distribution of the Xenia Negro population is compared with that of Farmville and Sandy Spring, the colored population of the

^aThis excess of females is not in accordance with the U. S. Census of 1900, which showed 1,002 males and 936 females, or 934 females to every 1,000 males. There was, however, an excess of females in 1890 and in 1880. In 1890 there were 901 males and 976 females, or a proportion of 1,083 females to 1,000 males. In 1880 the proportion was 1,084 females to 1,000 males. The proportion for the whole city in 1900 was 1,003 females to 1,000 males. The proportion may fluctuate greatly by the shifting of only a few. See statistics on length of residence in Xenia, page 1015, for proportion of moving last year.

^bBoth Sandy Spring and Farmville would show a much greater excess of females if all the persons included in those reports were counted. That for Sandy Spring would be 1,143 and for Farmville about the same. See footnote, Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 14, page 8.

United States, the whole population of the United States, and the population of 3 foreign countries in the following table of percentages:

PER CENT IN DIFFERENT AGE PERIODS OF NEGROES IN XENIA, IN FARMVILLE, AND IN SANDY SPRING, AND OF TOTAL POPULATION IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

[The per cents for Xenia, Sandy Spring, and Farmville are computed from schedules; the others are taken from the United States censuses of 1890 and 1900, and Mayo-Smith's Statistics and Sociology.]

Age periods.	Negroes of Xenia. (a)	Negroes of Farmville.	Negroes of Sandy Spring. (a)	Colored population of the United States. (b)		Total population of the United States.		Population of—		
				1890.	1900. (a)	1890.	1900. (a)	Germany.	Ireland.	France.
Under 10 years.....	18.00	24.57	31.24	28.22	27.23	24.28	23.81	24.2	20.8	17.5
10 to 19 years.....	18.22	26.86	24.97	25.18	23.37	21.70	20.63	20.7	23.4	17.4
20 to 29 years.....	17.45	15.35	12.31	17.40	19.35	18.25	18.29	16.2	16.2	16.3
30 to 39 years.....	13.04	9.79	9.81	11.26	11.57	13.48	13.88	12.7	10.8	13.8
40 to 49 years.....	13.04	8.32	8.44	7.89	8.15	9.45	10.16	10.4	9.8	12.3
50 to 59 years.....	10.18	7.84	5.59	4.92	5.46	6.88	6.80	7.8	8.5	10.1
60 to 69 years.....	6.82	3.84	4.33	2.88	3.05	3.94	4.08	5.2	6.0	7.6
70 years or over.....	3.25	3.43	3.31	2.25	1.82	2.52	2.35	2.8	4.5	5.0
Total.....	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

^a Exclusive of age unknown.

^b Persons of Negro descent, Chinese, Japanese, and civilized Indians.

The percentage of Negroes under 10 years of age and between 10 and 19 years of age, inclusive, is much smaller than that of either Farmville, Sandy Spring, or the total colored population of the United States. For the ages from 20 to 29 and 30 to 39, the percentage is nearer both that of the whole colored population and the total population of the United States than either Farmville or Sandy Spring; but from 40 to 49, 50 to 59, and 60 to 69, Xenia far exceeds the other populations.

The places of birth of the Xenia Negro population are as follows:

NATIVITY OF 1,832 NEGROES OF XENIA.

Place of birth.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.	Place of birth.	Males.	Fe-males.	Total.
Xenia.....	328	357	685	Michigan.....	5	3	8
Greene County, outside of Xenia.....	46	45	91	Mississippi.....	3	7	10
Ohio, outside of Greene County.....	111	119	230	Missouri.....	2	1	3
Alabama.....	3	3	6	New York.....		1	1
Arkansas.....	4	1	5	North Carolina.....	51	87	138
Florida.....		3	3	Pennsylvania.....	2	8	10
Georgia.....	5	3	8	South Carolina.....	5	2	7
Illinois.....	4	1	5	Tennessee.....	19	14	33
Indiana.....	10	11	21	Virginia.....	58	50	108
Kentucky.....	202	226	428	West Virginia.....	4	1	5
Louisiana.....		2	2	Canada.....		2	2
Maryland.....	1	2	3	Unknown.....	7	13	20
				Total.....	870	962	1,832

It is seen that 685, or 37.4 per cent, were born in Xenia; 91, or 5 per cent, were born outside of the city but in the county; and 230, or 12.6 per cent, were born outside Greene County but in the State of Ohio. Of the 685 born in the city, many have not lived there all of their lives, but some have moved away one or more times for short periods and have returned. There were 428 persons, or 23.4 per cent, born in Kentucky, and 138, or 7.5 per cent, born in North Carolina. One hundred and eight, or 5.9 per cent, were born in Virginia, and 33, or

1.8 per cent, were born in Tennessee. The remaining 119, or 6.5 per cent, were distributed through 15 States and Canada. Of these, however, the birthplaces of 20 persons are reported as unknown. A large proportion of this part of Xenia's population is from the South, there being 759, or 41.4 per cent of the whole. Of these, 674, or 36.8 per cent, were from Kentucky, North Carolina, and Virginia. Of those born in the North, 54.9 per cent were born in Ohio, and the remaining 3.7 per cent came from various other Northern States, from Canada, and from points unknown. Of course in all cases these people have not come direct to Xenia from their places of birth. This is true, however, in a majority of cases. There are but few reported as being born in the large cities; but those born in Ohio came from the surrounding counties of Clinton, Clark, Highland, and Ross, and usually from the country districts, or from towns smaller than Xenia. On the other hand, many of those reported away from Xenia, in answer to question 25, were in the cities of Cincinnati, Dayton, Chicago, and Cleveland. The migrations seem, therefore, to be from the country districts to the small town and then to the larger cities.

As showing the permanency of the population, the following table is instructive:

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE OF XENIA NEGROES IN XENIA.

Period of residence.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Under 1 year	62	67	129
1 to 2 years	43	55	98
2 years	48	52	100
3 years	87	41	78
4 years	81	41	72
5 to 9 years	123	106	229
10 to 19 years	186	226	412
20 to 29 years	143	154	297
30 to 39 years	131	149	280
40 to 49 years	30	48	78
50 years or over	9	6	15
Unknown or not reported	27	17	44
Total	870	962	1,832

One hundred and twenty-nine, or 7.2 per cent of those of known period of residence, had lived in the city less than one year. Subtracting from this number the 35 children born in Xenia and under 1 year of age, the actual number of immigrants for the year is 94. Three hundred and twenty-seven, or 18.3 per cent, had lived in the city less than 3 years; 477, or 26.7 per cent, less than 5 years; 1,082, or 60.5 per cent, had lived in the city 10 years or over; 670, or 37.5 per cent, 20 years or over, while 15 persons (9 men and 6 women) had lived in Xenia 50 years or over.

The percentage of Negroes who have lived in Xenia less than 3 years is greater than the percentage of the total Negro population under 10 years of age, being 18.3 in one case and 18 in the other. The large per cent of immigration in the past two years is due to the great number of Negroes who come from Caswell County, N. C.

During the past year the latest immigrants may be described as follows: Four families of 1 member, 3 of 2 members, 1 of 3 members, 2 of 4 members, 2 of 5 members, 2 of 6 members, 1 of 7 members, 1 of 9 members, 1 of 10 members, 1 of 11 members. In these families there is an excess of females. The method of migration seems to have been that the father or brother or some male relative received a letter from some one about the opportunities in Xenia and came to the town. After he had worked a few months he sent for the rest of the family.^(a) The reasons given by these immigrants for coming to Xenia invariably included the desire to get free from color prejudice and to exercise the elective franchise. However, a study of conditions shows that the kind of work best suited to these immigrants was quite plentiful in Xenia, and the wages were good; therefore there was special inducement here, added to the unrest and pressure there, to cause the people to come to this city. This work was offered by the building of a railroad, the erection of a court-house, and the construction of a sewer.

CONJUGAL CONDITION, BIRTHS, AND DEATHS.

The table below shows that of the male population over 15 years of age 200, or 31.60 per cent, were single; 363, or 57.35 per cent, were married; 47, or 7.42 per cent, were widowed; 3, or 0.47 per cent, were divorced by due process of law, and 20, or 3.16 per cent, were separated without any legal process. Of the women reported, 177, or 25.14 per cent, were single; 359, or 50.99 per cent, were married; 129, or 18.32 per cent, were widowed; 7, or 1 per cent, were divorced by law, and 32, or 4.55 per cent, were separated.

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF NEGROES OF XENIA, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS.

Age periods.	Males.					Females.				
	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Divorced.	Separated.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Divorced.	Separated.
15 to 19 years.....	78	2				85	9	1		1
20 to 29 years.....	80	63	1	1	4	59	88	9	5	7
30 to 39 years.....	26	69	3	1	5	28	82	9	2	8
40 to 49 years.....	8	92	6		6	3	92	23		7
50 to 59 years.....	5	57	16		2	1	55	38		8
60 to 69 years.....	3	53	10	1	2	1	27	22		1
70 to 79 years.....		17	8				2	14		
80 to 89 years.....		3	2				1	7		
90 years or over.....								3		
Unknown.....		7	1		1		3	3		
Total.....	200	363	47	3	20	177	359	129	7	32

For comparison, the following tables are given showing the conjugal condition, by sex and age periods, of Negroes in Farmville and in Sandy Spring.

^aThe migrations from North Carolina to Xenia began about 3 years ago, when a woman who left there 36 years ago returned and told of her prosperity in Xenia (she owned five lots in the city), the opportunities for work, and the privileges of her people in general in the State of Ohio. A few came when she returned, and since then the number has rapidly increased.

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF NEGROES OF FARMVILLE, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS, 1897.

Age periods.	Males.				Females.			
	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Separated.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Separated.
15 to 19 years.....	79	71	3
20 to 29 years.....	55	28	3	44	51	3	3
30 to 39 years.....	6	46	1	10	49	6	2
40 to 49 years.....	3	37	3	3	30	22	3
50 to 59 years.....	2	30	7	4	32	17	3
60 to 69 years.....	1	20	2	9	14	1
70 to 79 years.....	12	1	1	4	11
80 to 89 years.....	3	3
90 to 99 years.....	1
100 years or over.....	1
Unknown.....	1	1	1
Total.....	147	178	14	12	126	178	76	12

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF NEGROES OF SANDY SPRING, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS.

[This table does not include any of the 65 people, mostly women, mentioned in Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 32, page 56. In none of the comparisons of conjugal condition that follow are these 65 persons considered.]

Age periods.	Males.				Females.			
	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Separated.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Separated.
15 to 19 years.....	48	30	3
20 to 29 years.....	21	24	1	20	40	1	1
30 to 39 years.....	5	34	2	5	39	1
40 to 49 years.....	2	37	1	28	4	2
50 to 59 years.....	24	2	1	2	16	4
60 to 69 years.....	16	3	2	11	5	1
70 to 79 years.....	6	1	1	2	6
80 to 89 years.....	1	2	1	7
90 years or over.....	1	1
Unknown.....	2	2	3
Total.....	77	145	8	7	59	143	28	5

As compared with Farmville, the proportion of unmarried men between the ages of 20 and 30 is considerably less in Xenia, there being in Farmville 55 men out of 86, or 64 per cent, who had not been married, and in Xenia, 80 out of 149, or 54 per cent. For Sandy Spring, in the same age period, about 46 per cent had never been married, or 21 out of 46 men. For the women of the same age period, 109 out of 168, or 65 per cent, in Xenia, were or had been married; in Farmville, 57 out of 101, or 56 per cent; in Sandy Spring, 42 out of 62, or 68 per cent. For the males of the next age period, 30 to 39, in Xenia 78 out of 104, or 75 per cent, were or had been married, while the per cent for Farmville of males who were or had been married was 89, or 47 out of 53; and for Sandy Spring there were 36 out of 41 who were or had been married, or 88 per cent. For the females of this same period there were in Xenia 101 out of 129, or 78 per cent, who were or had been married, while in Farmville the figures were 57 out of 67, or 85 per cent, and for Sandy Spring 40 out of 45, or 89 per cent. In the age period 40 to 49 there were in Xenia 104 males out of 112, or 93 per cent, who were or had been married; in Farmville, 43 out of 46, or 93 per cent, and in Sandy Spring, 38 out of 40,

or 95 per cent. For women of the same period, in Xenia, 122 out of 125, or 98 per cent, were or had been married, while in Farmville and Sandy Spring every woman of this age period was or had been married. Of those 50 years of age or over, there were in Xenia 8 single men out of 179 men (9 of ages unknown not included), and 2 single women out of 180 women (6 of ages unknown not included). In Farmville there were of this same age period 3 men and no women who had not been married, and in Sandy Spring 1 man and 2 women. From these comparisons no definite conclusion as to the extent of postponement of marriage ought or could be drawn. Yet in the main it can be said with respect to the Xenia population, as was observed regarding Farmville, that there is clearly seen a tendency to migrate in order to better their condition, and the excess of unmarried over married men between 20 and 30 years of age, though small, may not show, in the words of the Sandy Spring study, "anything more than the usual excess of city over country communities in the number of young unmarried men." This excess is due also to the postponement of marriage largely for economic reasons, and this postponement will be greater as the migrations from country to city increase. As to the question of postponement in rural districts, this study has no suggestion.

The following table compares the conjugal condition of the Negroes of Xenia with that of the Farmville and Sandy Spring Negroes, and with that of the populations of various foreign countries:

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF THE NEGROES OF XENIA, OF FARMVILLE, OF SANDY SPRING, AND OF THE POPULATIONS OF VARIOUS FOREIGN COUNTRIES, BY SEX.

[The per cents for Xenia, Farmville, and Sandy Spring are computed from schedules; those for foreign countries are taken from Mayo-Smith's Statistics and Sociology. The figures for divorced are not shown for foreign countries.]

Civil division.	Per cent of males 15 years of age or over.			Per cent of females 15 years of age or over.		
	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.
Xenia.....	51.6	57.4	a 7.4	25.1	51.0	b 18.3
Farmville.....	41.9	50.5	c 4.0	32.1	45.4	d 19.4
Sandy Spring.....	32.5	61.2	e 3.4	25.1	60.9	f 11.9
France.....	36.0	56.5	7.5	30.0	55.3	14.7
Germany.....	40.9	53.7	5.3	36.5	50.8	12.4
Great Britain.....	39.5	54.9	5.6	37.3	50.9	11.8
Hungary.....	31.5	65.7	4.7	22.0	62.8	15.0
Ireland.....	49.3	44.8	5.9	45.5	42.1	14.4
Italy.....	40.9	53.1	6.0	33.2	53.2	13.6

a Also 3.1 per cent separated and 0.5 per cent divorced.

b Also 4.6 per cent separated and 1 per cent divorced.

c Also 3.4 per cent separated.

d Also 3.1 per cent separated.

e Also 2.9 per cent separated.

f Also 2.1 per cent separated.

In the following table the conjugal condition of the Negroes of Xenia over 20 years of age is compared with the conjugal condition of the Negroes of Farmville and Sandy Spring, and with that of the entire population of the United States:

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF THE NEGROES OF XENIA, OF FARMVILLE, OF SANDY SPRING, AND-OF THE POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES, BY SEX.

[The per cents for Xenia, for Farmville, and for Sandy Spring are computed from schedules; those for the United States are taken from the United States census reports for 1890 and 1900.]

Civil division.	Per cent of males 20 years of age or over.				Per cent of females 20 years of age or over.			
	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Divorced.	Single.	Married.	Widowed.	Divorced.
Xenia.....	22.06	65.28	8.50	a 4.16	15.18	57.57	21.05	a 6.25
Farmville.....	25.00	65.44	5.15	b 4.41	17.30	55.03	23.90	b 3.77
Sandy Spring.....	15.35	76.72	4.23	b 3.70	14.36	69.31	13.86	b 2.47
United States:								
Native whites, native parents—								
1890.....	28.54	66.08	4.74	c .64	18.75	67.88	12.79	c .58
1900.....	28.3	65.4	5.4	c .9	19.6	66.9	12.7	c .8
Native whites, foreign parents—								
1890.....	48.82	48.65	2.25	c .28	34.83	58.76	6.02	c .39
1900.....	43.7	52.9	2.9	c .5	31.9	60.4	7.1	c .6
Foreign whites—								
1890.....	28.06	65.93	5.51	c .50	15.39	68.05	16.21	c .35
1900.....	25.6	67.3	6.5	c .6	14.7	68.0	16.9	c .4
Negroes—								
1890.....	25.01	69.02	5.40	c .57	15.71	65.02	18.41	c .86
1900.....	26.4	65.5	7.0	c 1.1	17.4	62.5	18.8	c 1.3
Total United States—								
1890.....	30.95	63.83	4.65	c .57	19.92	66.35	13.19	c .54
1900.....	30.1	63.6	5.4	c .9	20.5	65.5	13.2	c .8

a Including separated.

b Separated.

c Including unknown.

There were 45 births among the Negroes of Xenia during the twelve months preceding the investigation. By reference to the table of age periods it is seen that there were, at the time of counting, 35 children under 1 year of age, which, subtracted from 45, gives 10 as the number of infants dying under 1 year of age, or 22.2 per cent. This rate of infant mortality, 222.2 per 1,000, is far in excess of the rate for the country for children under 1 year of age, which is by the census of 1900, 165.4 per 1,000, as against 205.8 per 1,000 in 1890. There were reported 44 deaths in all, 1 less than the total number of births reported, which shows that but for the constant immigrations the Negro population of Xenia would be increasing but slowly. This would show a rate of 24 per 1,000. The official statistics of Ohio reported for the year ending March, 1900, 51 deaths among Negroes in Greene County, which would be at the rate of 12.6 per 1,000. The same statistics gave 297 deaths for the whole county, or 9.4 deaths for each 1,000 inhabitants. The principal diseases of which Negroes die are consumption and pneumonia.

Three defective children were reported, 8 illegitimate children under 10 years of age, and 1 inmate of the insane asylum. There were 8 cases of intermarriage between whites and Negroes, in each of which a Negro man had married a white woman. One of these, however, is

really a case of cohabitation and not legal marriage, though it has lasted for over 20 years and children have been born to the couple. From all except one of these marriages offspring has resulted. As far as the proportion of mixed blood is concerned, the following facts as to complexion were gathered: Of 1,826 persons, who were either observed by the investigator or reported upon reliable authority by those in the same house, as to whether they were black, or brown, or light, 470, or 25.7 per cent, reported black; 915, or 50.1 per cent, were brown, and 441, including 9 whites, or 24.2 per cent, were light. The percentage of pure blacks is very small, indeed. From this report it might be safely estimated that 45 per cent of the Negroes of Xenia are half white and half black. In 1860 the census gave Greene County 932 blacks and 543 mulattoes, or 63.2 per cent and 36.8 per cent, respectively.

SCHOOLS AND ILLITERACY.^(a)

There are two schools in Xenia for Negroes, one elementary school and a high school. The former is located in a brick building of 9 rooms, built at a cost of \$20,000, and the latter in a building of brick, with 4 rooms and a laboratory, valued at \$5,000. There are 8 teachers in the elementary school and 4 in the high school; all are Negroes except one, the teacher of German in the high school, who is a German woman. Legally and theoretically there are no separate schools for the races in Xenia, but practically there are, because nearly all of the Negroes live in the same part of the city and must therefore attend the school in that district. There are, however, a few Negro pupils, 15 in number, in the schools generally attended by the whites, 4 of these being in the high school. The length of the school session is 9 months and 2 weeks. The salaries of the Negro teachers are the same as those of the white teachers. One first-grade teacher gets \$40 per month and another first-grade teacher, a woman of 20 years' experience, gets \$50. In the other grades the monthly salaries are as follows: Second, third, and fourth grades, \$40; fifth and sixth, \$45; seventh, \$55; eighth, \$65. The principal of the high school receives \$1,200 per year and his assistants \$750. The salary of the principal was raised this year from \$1,100 per year.

There is a law for compulsory school attendance of all children between the ages of 8 and 14, in good health. This will account for

^aAn interesting result of the movement to disfranchise the Negroes in North Carolina is an increase of illiteracy in Xenia. How general this is in other Northern cities remains to be found out. Of 24 families coming to Xenia expressly on account of losing their vote the heads of only 3 could read and write and only 5 could read. In one there were 4 children between 6 and 16, only 1 of whom could read and write. The philosophy of the situation was expressed by one man thus, "They disfranchised us folks who couldn't read and write and we left to come where we could vote."

the almost uniform attendance of the Negro children of Xenia between those ages. Those who have not attended are those who have not long been in the city, and the defective. The following table shows the attendance by age and sex:

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE, BY AGE AND SEX.

Age.	Males.		Females.		Total.	
	Popula- tion.	In school.	Popula- tion.	In school.	Popula- tion.	In school.
5 years	20	20	40
6 years	18	8	18	5	36	13
7 years	15	12	17	16	32	28
8 years	20	19	18	17	38	36
9 years	18	18	16	14	34	32
10 years	10	10	10	9	20	19
11 years	11	11	18	18	29	29
12 years	12	11	29	28	41	39
13 years	18	18	17	17	35	35
14 years	11	11	17	17	28	28
15 years	17	17	17	14	34	31
Total.....	170	135	197	155	367	290
16 to 20 years.....	71	26	98	38	164	64
Grand total	241	161	290	193	531	354

According to the school board report, there were 290 Negro pupils in the elementary schools and 72 in the high school, making a total of 362 Negro children in school in the whole city. Though no separate account is kept for the detailed expenses of each school, an estimate of the annual expenses is given by the superintendent of schools for the two schools generally attended by Negroes. According to this estimate, the salaries of 8 teachers of the East Market street school amounted to \$3,550; salary of janitors, \$480; cost of coal and supplies, \$400; total, \$4,430. In the East Main street school the salaries of 4 teachers amounted to \$3,250; salary of janitor, \$240; cost of coal and supplies, \$100; total, \$3,590. The total expenses of both schools amounted to \$8,020. This is about \$22.15 expended for each pupil, as against \$1,316.47 for 221 pupils, or \$5.96 per pupil in Sandy Spring. Separated according to schools, the expenses for Xenia are \$49.86 per pupil in the high school and \$15.28 per pupil in the elementary school.

The school attendance is shown by the following table:

LENGTH OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE OF CHILDREN, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS.

School attendance.	6 to 15 years of age, inclusive.				16 to 20 years of age, inclusive.			
	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Per cent.	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Per cent.
Under 3 months	1	2	3	1.06	2	2	3.70
3 months.....	3	9	12	4.26
6 months.....	34	43	77	27.30	4	10	14	25.93
9 months.....	89	101	190	67.38	19	19	38	70.37
Not reported	8	8	3	7	10
Total.....	135	155	290	100.00	26	38	64	100.00

Compared with Farmville and Sandy Spring, Xenia shows quite a contrast in the attendance of children from 6 to 15 years of age, inclusive. In Xenia, 89 per cent of the children of these ages, or 290 out of 327, were reported as attending school; 155 girls out of 177, or 88 per cent, and 135 boys out of 150, or 90 per cent. In Sandy Spring, 206 children of this age period, or 71 per cent, attended school. These were 92 boys out of 133, or 69 per cent, and 114 girls out of 157, or 73 per cent. In Farmville, 204 out of 325 children of these ages, or about 63 per cent, attended school. Of these 108 were boys, or 63 per cent of the 172 boys between 6 and 15 years of age, and 96 girls out of 153 girls, or 63 per cent. The length of school attendance in Xenia is still very much longer for each pupil than in either Farmville or Sandy Spring. The compulsory school law of course has much to do with this better showing for Xenia.

From the high school there have been graduated in the past 23 years 194 students, 74 males and 120 females. Some of these are filling places of trust in the county and elsewhere. Most of the teachers are graduates of Xenia high school. Of 1,119 persons reporting, 96 over 19 years of age, or 8.6 per cent, were graduates of the high school, and 276 had attended it. The following table shows the degree of illiteracy, by sex and age periods:

LITERATES AND ILLITERATES, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS.

Sex and age periods.	Able to read and write.	Able to read.	Illiterate.	Not reported.	Total.
MALES.					
10 to 20 years	150				150
21 to 30 years	144	3	2	1	150
31 to 40 years	93	9		13	115
41 years or over	169	21	84	3	277
Age unknown	3		4	2	9
Total males	559	33	90	19	701
Per cent (a)	81.96	4.84	13.26		100.00
FEMALES.					
10 to 20 years	196		3	2	201
21 to 30 years	170	2	3	10	185
31 to 40 years	111	2	6		119
41 years or over	156	34	92	11	293
Age unknown	2		2	2	6
Total females	635	38	106	25	804
Per cent (a)	81.51	4.88	13.61		100.00
BOTH SEXES.					
10 to 20 years	346		3	2	351
21 to 30 years	314	5	5	11	335
31 to 40 years	204	11	6	13	234
41 years or over	325	55	176	14	570
Age unknown	5		6	4	15
Total both sexes	1,194	71	196	44	1,505
Per cent both sexes (a)	81.72	4.86	13.42		100.00

^aNot including those not reporting.

Of the 1,461 reporting, 81.72 per cent could read and write and 4.86 per cent could read only, while 13.42 (a) per cent could neither read nor

^aThis would be lower still but for the recent immigrants previously referred to.

write. This illiteracy is about 3 per cent higher than that of the United States, and 31 per cent lower than the percentage of illiteracy for the Negro race at large. Compared with Farmville and Sandy Spring, the Negroes of Xenia show to great advantage. In Farmville 42.5 per cent could read and write, 17.5 per cent could read only, and 40 per cent were wholly illiterate. In Sandy Spring, of those reporting as to literacy, the percentage of illiterates was 21.7, and of those who could read and write and who could read only, 72.3 and 6 per cent, respectively. The illiteracy of those between the ages of 10 and 20 years is less than 0.9 per cent, against 8.6 per cent for Sandy Spring and 23 per cent for Farmville. The illiteracy increases with age. From 21 to 30 years, inclusive, the illiteracy for Xenia is 1.5 per cent; from 31 to 40 years it is 2.7 per cent, and for 41 years or over it leaps to 31.7 per cent. The great difference in the illiteracy of Xenia and that of the Negro race as a whole is doubtless due to excellent school advantages in Xenia.

OCCUPATIONS AND WAGES.

While agriculture is the chief occupation of Greene County, very few of the Negroes of Xenia are farmers or, for any considerable length of time, farm laborers. They are engaged in all the various lines of work opened to them by city life. The following table exhibits these lines of work for males and females:

OCCUPATIONS, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS.

Occupations.	10 to 15 years.	16 to 20 years.	21 to 30 years.	31 to 40 years.	41 years or over.	Age unknown.	Total.
MALES.							
Apprentices		2					2
Barbers		4	3	5	6	1	19
Basket maker					1		1
Blacksmiths			2		8	2	12
Bricklayers and plasterers			1	2	6		9
Brickmakers				1	2		3
Butchers			1	1			2
Bottlers			1	1			2
Carpenters			1		6		7
Carpet layer			1				1
Cigar maker					1		1
Clergymen			1	1	8		10
Clerks		2	1		1		4
Coachmen			1	1			2
Constable				1			1
Cooks			1		6		7
Domestic servants		1	4				5
Elevator operative		1					1
Farmers and gardeners			1	1	11		13
Farm laborers		1	4	5	16		26
Firemen, stationary engine			1	1	3		5
Grocers			1	2	4	1	8
Hackman				2			1
Hostlers		3	3	1	7		15
Ice cream makers (a)		1	1		1		3
Janitors			2		5		7
Junk dealers				5	1		4
Laborers, cordage factories	2	12	39	16	19		88
Laborers, unspecified	5	13	40	39	66	2	165
Mail carriers			2	1			3
Messengers		2			1		3
Nurse					1		1

a One ice cream maker also keeps billiard hall.

OCCUPATIONS, BY SEX AND AGE PERIODS—Concluded.

Occupations.	10 to 15 years.	16 to 20 years.	21 to 30 years.	31 to 40 years.	41 years or over.	Age unknown.	Total.
MALES—concluded.							
Painter.....			1				1
Peddlers.....					2		2
Physicians.....				1	1		2
Policeman.....				1			1
Porters.....		5	6	3	3		17
Restaurant keepers.....		1	1		2		3
Shoemakers.....			1		2		3
Soldiers (a).....		1	5				6
Stoniers, retired.....					48		48
Stone masons.....				2	3		5
Stove repairers.....				1	1		2
Stenographer.....			1				1
Tailor.....			1				1
Teamsters and drivers.....	1	2	7	6	19		35
Teachers.....				2	1		3
Undertakers.....					2		2
Upholsterer.....					1		1
Waiters.....		4	4				8
Whitewashers and calciminers.....			4	2	5		11
Not reported.....				11	5	1	17
At home (b).....		3	5	1	1	1	11
At school (b).....	71	14	2	1			88
Total males.....	79	71	150	115	277	9	701
FEMALES.							
Boarding house keeper.....					1		1
Cooks.....		3	13	8	10		34
Day workers.....	2	12	23	11	31	1	80
Dish washers in hotel.....	1	2					3
Domestic servants.....	1	5	11	8	6		32
Dyer of clothes.....					1		1
Evangelist.....					1		1
Forewoman.....			1				1
Gardener.....					1		1
Hairdressers.....		1	1				2
Housewives.....		20	81	54	132	1	288
Ice cream maker.....					1		1
Laundresses.....		2	13	26	44	2	87
Matron.....					1		1
Merchants.....			2	1			3
Milliner.....			1				1
Music teachers.....				1		1	2
Nurses.....	1	1	2		5		9
Pensioners.....					16		16
Seamstresses.....		1	4	6	9		20
Teachers.....		1	10	4	2		17
Not reported.....		1	5		13	1	20
At home.....	1	18	17		19		55
At school (c).....	101	26	1				128
Total females.....	108	98	185	119	293	6	804

^a Soldiers just returned from service in Philippines. They have not done any regular work since being discharged.

^b Only those who are not engaged in gainful occupations.

^c Only those who are not engaged in gainful occupations are included in the number "at school." Those who go to school but also work are given in this table under their occupation.

According to the usual classification, the Negroes of Xenia are engaged in gainful occupations as follows: In professional occupations, 35; in domestic, 474; in commercial, 106; in agricultural, 40; in industrial, 179. There were 634 over 10 years of age not engaged in gainful occupations, namely, 48 old soldiers who live chiefly upon the pensions allowed them by the Government, 288 housewives who attend solely to their household duties, 216 children in school and not otherwise employed, 66 persons at home, idle, or dependent, and 16 women, also housewives, who are supported chiefly by Government pensions. There were 37 whose occupations were not reported.

According to the other classification used in the Farmville and Sandy Springs studies the working population over 10 years of age may be divided as follows: Those working on their own account, 85; the laboring class, 417; house service, 98; day service, 188; at home, unoccupied, and dependent, 634; professional and clerical, 46; not reported, 37.

The following table shows the percentage of Negroes of Xenia engaged in certain classes of gainful occupations, in comparison with the percentage of Negroes of Farmville and of Sandy Spring, and of the total population of the United States engaged in the same classes of occupations:

PER CENT OF NEGROES OF XENIA, OF FARMVILLE, OF SANDY SPRING, AND OF THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE UNITED STATES AT WORK ENGAGED IN EACH CLASS OF GAINFUL OCCUPATIONS.

[The figures for Xenia, Farmville, and Sandy Spring are from schedules; those for the United States are from the censuses of 1890 and 1900.]

Classes of occupations.	Negroes of Xenia.				Per cent in Farmville.	Per cent in Sandy Spring.	Per cent in United States.	
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Per cent.			1890.	1900.
Agriculture	39	1	40	4.80	2.30	45.48	39.65	35.7
Professional service	15	20	35	4.20	3.38	2.76	4.15	4.3
Domestic and personal service ..	224	250	474	56.83	47.31	43.97	19.13	19.2
Trade and transportation	102	4	106	12.71	7.22	1.51	14.63	16.4
Manufactures and mechanical industries	157	22	179	21.46	39.79	6.28	22.39	24.4
Total	537	297	834	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.0

Of the entire population over 10 years of age 834, or 55.42 per cent, are engaged in gainful occupations; of the males 537 out of 701, or 76.60 per cent, and of the females 297 out of 804, or 36.94 per cent.

THE PROFESSIONS.—There are 2 Negro physicians in Xenia, and they have most of the practice among Negroes in the city and vicinity. Each is a home owner, is intelligent, and seems to be abreast with the times in his profession. They have practiced in Xenia 27 years and 7 years, respectively, and both of them enjoy the respect and confidence of the community at large. Their practice amounts to about \$2,500 per year for one and \$1,000 for the other. There is now no regular lawyer in Xenia, but there is one law student. The one Negro lawyer who formerly lived in Xenia was appointed by President McKinley as United States consul-general to Santo Domingo, which position he still holds. He is 53 years of age, was born of free parents in Fayette County, and educated at Wilberforce University. He was admitted to the bar in 1872 and served several terms as city clerk for the city of Xenia. All except one of the teachers of the public schools usually attended by Negroes are Negroes. These received their training in the Xenia high school and at Wilberforce University chiefly. Their salaries range from \$40 per month to \$1,200 per year. The principal of

the high school is a college graduate from Wilberforce University. He is highly respected by all citizens, both black and white, and his judgment has great weight in the community. There are 10 Negro clergymen in the city. Two of them are fairly well educated and all of them are intelligent and active men, and, as far as the investigator could find out, are men of good moral character. They seem to be good leaders of their people.

THE ENTREPRENEURS.—There were reported 75 businesses in all conducted by Negroes. They are conducted by 85 persons—75 men and 10 women. There are 8 barbers, .8 grocers, 3 restaurant keepers, 1 upholsterer, 2 ice-cream dealers, 7 blacksmiths, 2 contractors, 4 junk dealers, 3 shoemakers, 2 peddlers, 13 farmers, 1 hackman, 2 undertakers, 5 whitewashers, 1 stove repairer, 1 cigar maker, 12 teamsters, 1 billiard-hall keeper (who is also one of the ice-cream makers and dealers) among the men; and 3 grocers and confectioners, 1 milliner, 1 ice-cream dealer, 1 gardener, 1 dyer of clothes, 2 hairdressers, and 1 boarding-house keeper among the women. One of the grocery stores does a business of \$125 per week on an average. It has been established 18 years and gives employment to 4 and sometimes 6 persons. Three other groceries, established, respectively, 5 years, 7 years, and 2 years, do a respectable business, amounting to \$2,000 for each of the first two and \$1,200 for the third per year. Each of these employs 1 clerk. They are all situated in the section of the city where Negroes live, and their trade is almost wholly from their own race.

There are 8 Negroes in the barber's business, and they do all of the work for their own race and a large part for the whites of the city. The Negroes, however, have not a monopoly of this work, for there are 7 barber shops conducted by whites. The two largest Negro barber shops have been established 40 and 18 years, respectively, and employ from 8 to 10 men, and do a business of \$3,000 and \$2,000 per year, respectively. These are situated in the business portions of the town. No one of the 7 blacksmiths can be said to do a very thriving business. One old man, 84 years of age, has been established in Xenia 35 years, and in former years did a very creditable business as a blacksmith and carriage builder. He is now too feeble to attend to business, and his shop has lost most of its former trade. The 3 shoemakers do repair work, and thus eke out a scanty living. Several whitewashers and calciminers do contracting on a small scale. One ice-cream maker does a business of over \$100 per month in summer. He is a son of freeborn parents and has his wife associated with him in his business. The other ice-cream maker also does a good business. Xenia is a "dry" town, so there is no saloon in the city, though in this business, also, Negroes were engaged up to a year ago. The restaurants are all small places and barely make a support for their operators. One of the fish peddlers reports an income of \$10 per

week as an average for the year. Of the women, one hairdresser has a business amounting to from \$10 to \$15 per week, and manufactures the hair oil which she uses in the business. One boarding-house keeper has 4 persons employed and does quite a paying business. There are others who keep lodgers and boarders occasionally. These are not, however, regularly engaged in this business. For some years a newspaper was published, but on account of being poorly edited and badly managed was unable to connect itself vitally with the life of the people and has now ceased publication. One brick and cement contractor does considerable business in laying cement sidewalks and doing brickwork. He lives in a neat little brick cottage, and has been engaged in this work for over twenty years. In spite of the large number and proportion of Negroes in Xenia, there is as yet no large and successful venture outside of the lines of business with which the Negro slave was familiar.

TRADES.—There are in the various skilled trades 1 painter, 1 cigar maker, 1 upholsterer, 1 tailor, 2 stove repairers, 5 stone masons, 3 shoemakers, 19 barbers, 1 basket maker, 12 blacksmiths, 9 bricklayers and plasterers, 3 brickmakers, 2 butchers, 2 bottlers, 7 carpenters, and 2 apprentices. Some of these are in business for themselves, but the majority of them work for wages. The painter reported working for \$1.50 and \$2 per day for about half of the year, the other part of his time being spent in common unskilled labor. The butchers report \$5 and \$7 per week. The wages of the carpenters are \$1.50 and \$2 per day. The brickmakers report \$2.25 and \$2.50 per day, with work from twenty to thirty-two weeks a year at their trade. Most of the barbers worked regularly the whole year round, receiving their pay on the percentage plan. In this way they earned from \$2 to \$10 per week. One brick mason is regularly employed at the Soldiers and Sailors' Orphans' Home.

FARMING.—There are 13 owners of small farms, and 26 who reported working most of their time on the farm. Farm laborers receive from \$1.25 to \$1.50 per day. For piecework, such as cutting corn and cord wood, they sometimes earn as much as \$2.25 per day. Many who are reported as working in other lines also work on the farm when work in their preferred lines becomes scarce. Besides this, nearly every family has its garden.

CLERICAL WORK.—There are 5 clerks who act as bookkeepers and general helpers in the various businesses of Negroes, receiving from \$3 to \$6 per week. One stenographer, 25 years old, receives \$30 per month as secretary to the superintendent of the normal and industrial department of Wilberforce University. He is a graduate of the commercial department of that school. One young woman is a stenographer, but is at present unemployed. In the United States Government service there are 5 men, 2 as letter carriers for the city of Xenia, 1 as

rural letter carrier for the country in the immediate vicinity, and 2 as transfer men, one carrying the mails between Xenia post-office and the trains and the other between the trains and Wilberforce post-office. There is also a little clerical work done in connection with politics by Negroes who are members of, or employed by, the different political party committees of county, township, and ward. The secretary of the Xenia sanitary board is a Negro. Two young men act as assessors for the fourth and sixth wards, and there have been 2 Negro members of the Xenia council. One young man, who is a grocer's clerk, acts as reporter for one of the daily papers of Xenia, writing such "colored society news" as comes under his notice.

COMMON LABORERS.—This term will characterize a considerable portion of the workmen of Xenia. Some are employed on the railroad and the electric line in grading and in laying and repairing tracks, and some find employment in the various nurseries and rope walks about the city. Others have found work in the construction of the sewer and as hod carriers on various buildings erected in and about the city. This class works by the day and receives from \$1 to \$1.50 per day. Besides these are teamsters, messengers, porters, and others who work by the week or month, receiving from \$3 to \$7 a week. The common unskilled work in Xenia is almost wholly done by the Negroes and the Irish.

DOMESTIC SERVICE.—There are 32 women and 5 men employed regularly as domestic servants. They receive from \$1 to \$6 per week, with board. Some of these return to their homes every night, though a majority of them, especially the unmarried, sleep at home not more than one night in each week. There are others, doubtless, who have no other homes than those furnished by their employers. These are not included in this description, because they are not residents of the distinctively Negro group. Added to these 37 persons in domestic service are 10 nurses, trained and untrained, who work more or less regularly at from \$3 to \$10 per week. In the main, however, the domestic service is done not by Negroes, as in Farmville and Sandy Spring, but by Irish women. A large number of Irish inhabit the west end of the city, and offer great competition to the Negroes in domestic service and common labor.

INDUSTRIES.—The industries employing most Negroes are the cordage factories, the distillery, and the steam laundries. In all of these the Negroes do the rough and unskilled labor. Eighty-eight reported working in the cordage factories or "rope walks," as they are called, the rate of wages being generally \$1.10 per day, though some are paid as much as \$2 per day. For "preparing" \$1.10 and \$1.25 are paid; for "hackling," a species of skilled labor with machinery, the pay is from \$1.50 to \$2 per day. Only a few Negroes are hacklers. These cordage factories employ from 60 to 80 Negroes. In the Xenia Steam

Laundry there are employed from 8 to 10 women and 2 men. The women iron by hand and receive \$4.50 per week, while the men run washing machines for \$6.50 per week. The shoe factory, one of the largest industries of the city, employs no Negroes. In the Ohio Soldiers and Sailors' Orphans' Home and Industrial School there are Negroes employed in many capacities, namely, the first assistant engineer, who receives \$40 per month and has held this position 12 years; 1 janitor, 2 porters, 2 brick masons, 1 cook, 3 women to look after vegetable rooms, 8 women in laundry, 3 women in dining room and kitchen, 2 men to attend the lawns, and, as occasion may demand, from 12 to 20 on the farm.

DAY SERVICE.—There are 288 Negroes in Xenia employed in service by the day. Of these, 80 do what is called "general house work;" that is, they do anything about the house—wash windows, scrub floors, sweep and beat carpets, dust and clean furniture, etc. They are especially in demand in the spring and fall, when they receive their best wages, 75 cents to \$1.25 per day. At other times they receive 50 cents to 75 cents per day, and act as general assistants to the "lady of the house" or regular hired girl. Beside these, there are 87 who take in washing and ironing. They generally bring the washings home, but in some cases wash away from home. These 87 persons reported earning by this means from 75 cents to \$5 per week. They charge 25 cents a week or \$1 per month for washing the clothes of a single person, and from 50 cents to \$1.50 per week for family washings. This class, which is composed of women, on the whole works more regularly than the men who are common laborers, and often it happens that the only income which a family may have for several weeks is that which results from the labor of the wife or some other female member of the family. A careful estimate of the wages received in Xenia per year would give about one-fifth to the women.

THE UNEMPLOYED.—As already indicated, there are times when the supply of work is far short of the demand. It, therefore, happens that there are but few Negroes in Xenia who are employed the whole year round. In the dull seasons many go to the larger cities of Dayton and Springfield, where they are able to secure work. This is true for women as well as men. Whenever one of the cordage factories shuts down a large number of men are thrown out of employment, and, in the case of those who are not able to quickly readjust themselves, this works hardship. Yet Xenia has not a large number of professional tramps and vagabonds.

Of the 634 reported as not engaged in gainful occupations, only 11 were males having no income, 1 was crippled, 1 insane, 2 had had consumption for the whole year (1 of these has died since the canvass), 1 was old and feeble, the others claimed they could not find work; 48 men and 16 women lived almost entirely upon what was raised in their

gardens and the pensions they received. These pensions are paid quarterly and are \$24, \$30, \$36, \$51, and \$72 per quarter. Only three or four, however, are above \$51 per quarter. Of the total females, 288 are simply housewives, and 55 are at home unemployed. Thirty-five of these 55 are young women between the ages of 16 and 30. More than half have been high-school students and many of them high-school graduates, but owing to the very limited field of work for Negro women in Xenia they have no employment. There are 216 school children. As has been seen, the field is limited almost entirely to washing, cooking, and day and domestic service. Rather than put their daughters into this service, unless absolutely necessary, the mothers and fathers undergo many sacrifices, until finally the daughters obtain employment, generally in teaching school in Xenia or in the surrounding country, or in the South, usually Kentucky.

The following list of arrests will give some idea of the proportion and character of crime among the Negroes of Xenia. During the year from June 1, 1901, to May 31, 1902, there were 328 arrests by Xenia police, of which 98, or 29.9 per cent, were of Negroes, as follows: Eight in June, 11 in July, 10 in August, 10 in September, 2 in October, 4 in November, 5 in December, 14 in January, 1902; 8 in February, 4 in March, 12 in April, 10 in May.^(a) The causes for these arrests were as follows: Drunk, 10; loitering, 3; disorderly, 22; drunk and disorderly, 6; assault and battery, 7; suspicion, 5; safe-keeping, 11; stealing ride, 7; petit larceny, 11; lunacy, 2; burglary and larceny, 1; fugitive from justice, 1; murder, 1;^(b) horse stealing, 2; larceny, 1; gambling, 7; execution, 1.

ECONOMICS OF THE FAMILY.

The same plan as suggested in the Farmville study and carried out more fully in the Sandy Spring study is here attempted to be worked out. In accordance with this there are three conceptions of the family: (1) The possible family, consisting of the parents and all the children ever born to them living; (2) the real family, consisting of the parents and all the children living at present, whether at home or away; (3) the economic family, consisting of all the persons, related and unrelated, living in one house under conditions of family life.

Practically the same difficulties encountered by the Sandy Spring investigator were encountered in Xenia, and for this reason the figures representing the possible and real families are only approximately correct.

^aThe jail was visited October 17, and there were found 2 white prisoners, but no Negroes. On the same day there were 34 persons in the workhouse—19 whites and 15 Negroes.

^bThe one case of murder was not for crime committed in Xenia; the murder was committed in North Carolina.

The following table shows the number of possible, real, and economic Negro families of Xenia according to size:

NUMBER OF NEGRO FAMILIES, BY SIZE.

Size of family.	The possible family.		The real family.		The economic family.	
	Families.	Persons.	Families.	Persons.	Families.	Persons.
1 member	6	6	39	39	51	51
2 members	82	164	137	274	112	224
3 members	82	246	115	339	125	375
4 members	81	324	79	316	72	288
5 members	61	306	43	215	64	320
6 members	40	240	40	240	32	192
7 members	31	217	33	231	15	105
8 members	35	280	20	160	13	104
9 members	19	171	8	72	7	63
10 members	21	210	5	50	6	60
11 members	17	187	1	11	1	11
12 members	14	168	4	48	1	12
13 members	10	130	3	39	1	13
14 members	16	224	1	14
15 members	3	45
16 members	2	32
17 members	4	68
18 members	2	36
Total	526	3,063	525	2,094	501	1,832
Average	5.80	3.87	3.66

The average economic family is 3.66 members, while the average real family is 3.87 members, and the possible family 5.80 members. These figures are below those of Farmville and Sandy Spring. The average for Farmville was 10.79 persons for each possible family, 5.03 persons for the real family, and 4.61 persons for the economic family. For Sandy Spring the averages were 7.31, 5.65, and 4.29 members, respectively, for the possible, real, and economic families; or, leaving out "65 persons, mostly women in domestic service," the averages for Sandy Spring are 7.78, 6.13, and 5.42, respectively. The average family in the United States, according to the census of 1900, has 4.7 members, while that of Greene County has 4.3 members. The census family corresponds very closely to the economic family, as used in this schedule. Hence we see that the Negro family of Xenia is a little more than 0.6 person smaller than the average family of the county. There are in Xenia 51 economic families of 1 person each. These are mostly single persons separated from their homes, or widowed persons living alone. More than half of the families are less than 4 members, and less than one-fiftieth have 10 members or over.

The following table shows the relative sizes of Negro families in Xenia, Farmville, and Sandy Spring, and of the total families of the United States.

PER CENT OF NEGRO FAMILIES OF XENIA, OF FARMVILLE, OF SANDY SPRING, AND OF THE TOTAL FAMILIES OF THE UNITED STATES, BY SIZE OF FAMILY.

[The figures for Xenia, Farmville, and Sandy Spring are from schedules; those for the United States are from the censuses of 1890 and 1900.]

Size of family.	Negroes of Xenia.	Negroes of Sandy Spring.	Negroes of Farmville.	United States.	
				1890.	1900.
1 member.....	10.18	5.45	4.96	3.63	5.0
2 to 6 members.....	80.84	63.64	72.90	73.33	74.7
7 to 10 members.....	8.18	26.06	19.47	20.97	18.1
11 members or over.....	.80	4.85	2.67	2.07	2.2
Total.....	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.0

The per cent of families of 1 member is about twice as great for Xenia as for Farmville and for Sandy Spring. The per cent of families of from 2 to 6 members is also much greater in Xenia than in Sandy Spring and Farmville, the per cent being 80.84 for Xenia, 72.9 for Farmville, and 63.64 for Sandy Spring. But for more than 6 members to a family the reverse is true. For Xenia only 41 families, or 8.18 per cent, had from 7 to 10 members, against 26.06 per cent for Sandy Spring, and 19.47 per cent for Farmville. There were but 4 families in Xenia, or eight-tenths of 1 per cent, having more than 10 members. There was 1 family of 11 members, 1 of 12 members, 1 of 13 members, and 1 of 14 members, whereas in Farmville 2.67 per cent of the families were larger than 10 members, and in Sandy Spring, 4.85 per cent.

The following table shows the number of rooms occupied by these families according to the size of each family:

FAMILIES, BY SIZE OF FAMILY, AND NUMBER OF ROOMS TO A DWELLING.

Size of family.	Families occupying dwellings of—												Total fam- ilies.
	1 r'm.	2 r'ns.	3 r'ns.	4 r'ns.	5 r'ns.	6 r'ns.	7 r'ns.	8 r'ns.	9 r'ns.	10 r'ns.	11 r'ns.	12 r'ns.	
1 member.....	8	12	13	12	3	3							51
2 members.....	1	18	34	20	15	12	10	2					112
3 members.....	6	11	32	31	17	12	11	2		1			125
4 members.....		8	16	20	11	10	2	2	1	1	1		72
5 members.....		3	13	17	20	4	3	1		1	1	1	64
6 members.....	1		10	6	9	2	1	1	2				32
7 members.....		1	5	2	1	2	1	2			1		15
8 members.....			2	6	2	1	1						13
9 members.....			3	1	2		1						7
10 members.....				3	1			1			1		6
11 members.....					1								1
12 members.....				1									1
13 members.....						1							1
14 members.....							1						1
Total families.....	16	57	130	117	79	48	30	11	5	3	4	1	501
Total rooms.....	16	114	390	468	395	288	210	88	45	30	44	12	2,100

The 1,832 Negroes enumerated live in 2,100 rooms, an average of 1.15 rooms per person, or for the 501 families, an average of 4.19 rooms per family. The houses are generally frame structures of from one to two stories high. There were only 11 brick houses. The

table shows that 16 families, or 3.2 per cent, occupy 1 room; 57, or 11.3 per cent, occupy 2 rooms; 130, or 25.9 per cent, 3 rooms; 117, or 23.4 per cent, 4 rooms; 79, or 15.8 per cent, 5 rooms; 48, or 9.6 per cent, 6 rooms; 30, or 6 per cent, 7 rooms; 24, or 4.8 per cent, occupy from 8 to 12 rooms. Over half of the families lived in dwellings of 3, 4, or 5 rooms.

The following table shows the tenure of these families:

FAMILIES OWNING AND RENTING HOMES, BY NUMBER OF ROOMS TO A DWELLING.

Tenure.	Families occupying dwellings of—												Total families.
	1 r'm.	2 r'ns.	3 r'ns.	4 r'ns.	5 r'ns.	6 r'ns.	7 r'ns.	8 r'ns.	9 r'ns.	10 r'ns.	11 r'ns.	12 r'ns.	
Owners.....	2	25	67	74	62	43	24	8	5	3	4	1	318
Renters.....	14	32	61	40	17	5	6	3	178
Not reported.....	2	3	6
Total.....	16	57	130	117	79	48	30	11	5	3	4	1	501

Of these 501 families 318 own their homes. These constitute 63.5 per cent of the entire number of families. The remaining 36.5 per cent were renters and not reported. In Farmville 114 families out of 262, or 43.5 per cent, owned their homes, while 148, or 56.5 per cent, were renters. In Sandy Spring 63 out of 165 families or 38.2 per cent, owned their homes; 54, or 32.7 per cent, were renters, and 44, or 26.7 per cent, were farm hands, "occupying their houses free of money rent as an incident to their position as farm hands." Some of the Xenia homes have descended through three generations.

The amount of rent paid by the 178 families who rent is shown in the following table:

RENTS PAID BY FAMILIES, BY SIZE OF DWELLING.

Monthly rent.	Families occupying dwellings of—								Total fami- lies.	Total annual rent paid.
	1 room.	2 rooms.	3 rooms.	4 rooms.	5 rooms.	6 rooms.	7 rooms.	8 rooms.		
Free.....	2	1	1	1	5
\$1.00.....	6	1	1	8	\$96
\$1.50.....	1	1	2	36
\$1.75.....	1	1	2	42
\$2.00.....	1	10	3	14	336
\$2.25.....	1	1	1	27
\$2.50.....	1	10	4	1	16	480
\$2.75.....	1	1	2	4	132
\$3.00.....	1	4	20	10	35	1,260
\$3.25.....	5	5	195
\$3.50.....	1	10	4	2	17	714
\$4.00.....	2	2	96
\$4.25.....	11	11	1	23	1,173
\$4.50.....	2	1	3	162
\$5.00.....	1	1	1	1	2	1	7	420
\$5.50.....	1	8	4	1	14	924
\$6.00.....	1	1	72
\$6.50.....	4	6	1	11	858
\$7.00.....	2	2	4	336
\$7.50.....	1	1	90
\$8.00.....	1	1	96
\$8.33 1/3.....	1	1	100
\$10.00.....	1	1	120
Total.....	14	32	61	40	17	5	6	3	178	7,765

The total annual rent for 178 families is \$7,765, or \$43.62 per family, per year, which is \$3.64 per family per month. The renters occupy 602 rooms, which rent for an average of \$12.90 per room per year, or \$1.08 per room per month. The largest rented dwelling is of 8 rooms, and the highest rent paid is \$10 per month. The average size of the dwellings that are rented is 3.4 rooms, as against 4.7 rooms, the average size of the dwellings owned.

As to length of residence in present dwelling place, the following table shows that 76, or 15.9 per cent, of the 478 families reporting, had lived in their present places of abode less than 1 year; 44, or 9.2 per cent, 1 year and less than 2 years; 222, or 46.44 per cent, less than 5 years, while 256, or 53.56 per cent, had lived in their homes more than 5 years. Of these 65, or 13.6 per cent of the whole, had lived in their homes 20 years or over. Of course we should expect the latter to be those who owned their homes. Of the home owners, 14 families, or 4.65 per cent, had lived less than 12 months in the houses they occupied. In fact 1 was moving into a house that had just been built, when the investigator called. Thirty, or 9.97 per cent, had occupied their homes less than 2 years; 76, or 25.25 per cent, less than 5 years; and 225, or 74.75 per cent, more than 5 years. Of the home owners 62, or 20.6 per cent, had occupied their homes more than 20 years.

LENGTH OF RESIDENCE OF FAMILIES IN HOMES, BY NUMBER AND TENURE.

Length of residence in home.	Tenure.			Total.
	Owners.	Renters.	Not reported.	
Under 1 month	3	12	15
1 to 2 months	2	9	11
2 to 4 months	1	14	15
4 to 6 months	3	14	17
6 to 8 months	4	10	14
8 to 12 months	1	3	4
1 to 2 years	16	28	44
2 years	14	31	45
3 years	16	13	29
4 years	16	12	28
5 to 9 years	72	17	89
10 to 19 years	91	11	102
20 years or over	62	3	65
Not reported	17	1	5	23
Total	318	178	5	501

The following table shows the estimated income of the Negroes of Xenia. The figures are approximately correct for money wages.

NUMBER OF FAMILIES, BY SIZE OF FAMILY AND ANNUAL INCOME.

Annual income.	Families of—										Total families.
	1 member.	2 members.	3 members.	4 members.	5 members.	6 members.	7 members.	8 members.	9 members.	10 members or over.	
Under \$50	2	2	1	5
\$50 to \$75	4	3	4	11
\$75 to \$100	8	4	2	1	15
\$100 to \$150	7	12	8	2	2	31
\$150 to \$200	7	17	1	3	3	2	33
\$200 to \$250	7	8	14	12	4	1	1	3	50
\$250 to \$350	2	29	22	11	9	5	3	2	3	86
\$350 to \$500	3	21	35	23	18	15	3	2	2	1	123
\$500 to \$750	7	10	8	15	6	2	3	2	4	57
\$750 to \$1,000	4	6	4	8	3	1	1	1	28
\$1,000 or over	3	5	3	2	1	4	18
Not reported	11	5	19	4	1	2	1	1	44
Total	51	112	125	72	64	32	15	13	7	10	501

Forty-four families are not reported. Out of 457 who reported 5 had incomes of less than \$50 per year. These were 2 families of 1 each, one an old man living alone, who is generally sick and whose only income is from the rental of a little shanty at \$3 per month and an odd job now and then. He is, in a large measure, supported by his neighbors. The other is an old woman of poor health. Two families of 2 each have less than \$50, one consisting of a woman over 90 years old, and her son, over 60 years old. These two are too feeble to do much work and live in the back yard of one of the Negro churches, of which they have the care. The other is one old couple. The family of 3 having less than \$50 income is an old couple having an adopted son who is defective. There are 18 families whose incomes amount to \$1,000 or over, but in only 3 of these cases is the income that of the head of the family alone; in the others it is the aggregate of the wages of from 2 to 7 members of the family.

Of the 457 families reporting, 31, or 6.8 per cent, made incomes of not more than \$100 per year, as against 27 out of 253 families, or 10.7 per cent, for Farmville; and 9 out of 164 families, or 5.5 per cent, for Sandy Spring. In Xenia 114 families, or 24.9 per cent, received between \$100 and \$250 per year, while there were 34.8 per cent in Farmville and 61 per cent in Sandy Spring. In Xenia those who received from \$250 to \$750 were 266 families, or 58.2 per cent, as against 52.2 per cent in Farmville and 33.5 per cent in Sandy Spring. There were in Xenia 46 families, or 10.1 per cent, having a total income of \$750 or more. In Farmville there were 6 families, or 2.3 per cent, receiving this amount, while in Sandy Spring there were none. The aggregate income is estimated at about \$175,000 per annum or about \$350 per family. This represents income from wages

and rents, and profits on merchandise. No attempt has been made to estimate the value of the garden products raised and consumed by each family. These, with chickens, eggs, hogs, etc., would raise the total income to a considerably higher figure than the foregoing estimate.

The following table of prices of ordinary commodities in Farmville and Sandy Spring is given for the sake of comparison with prices in Xenia:

PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN FARMVILLE AND IN SANDY SPRING.

Article.	Unit.	Price.	Article.	Unit.	Price.
Food, etc.:			Food, etc.—Concluded.		
Fresh pork	Pound..	\$0.06	Molasses	Gallon	\$0.25 to \$0.40
Pork steak	Pound..	\$0.08 to .10	Butter	Pound	.12½ to .25
Beefsteak	Pound..	.08 to .10	Salt	Pound	.01
Ham and bacon	Pound..	.08 to .10	Herrings	Each	.01
Chickens	Each	.12½ to .15	Eggs	Dozen	.10 to .12
Hens	Each	.20 to .25	Apples	Peck	.05 to .25
Turkeys	Pound..	.07 to .10	Apples, dried	Pound	.06
Wheat flour	12-pound bag.	.35	Watermelons	Each	.01 to .20
Wheat flour	Barrel..	4.00 to 4.50	Pepper	Pound	.15
Corn meal	Peck ..	.11 to .12	Milk	Quart..	.06
Rice	Pound..	.05 to .06	Buttermilk	Gallon	.10
Cabbage	Head ..	.01 to .06	Cake	Each	.05
Potatoes	Bushel	.50 to .60	Starch	Pound	.05
Green corn	Ear ..	.01	Fuel and lighting:		
Tomatoes	Gallon..	.05	Wood, uncut	Cord...	2.00
Peas	Quart..	.05	Wood, cut	Cord...	2.50
Beans	Quart..	.05	Coal, bituminous	Ton ..	4.50
Canned goods	Can ..	.08 to .10	Coal, anthracite	Ton ..	7.50
Tea	Pound..	.40	Kerosene oil	Gallon	.15
Coffee	Pound..	.15 to .18	Clothing:		
Sugar	Pound..	.05 to .06	Men's suits	Each ..	7.00 to 12.00
Lard	Pound..	.07 to .08	Boy's suits	Each ..	2.00 to 5.00
			Women's dresses	Each ..	3.00 to 8.00

PRICES OF COMMODITIES IN XENIA.

Article.	Unit.	Price.	Article.	Unit.	Price.
Food, etc.:			Food, etc.—Concluded.		
Fresh pork	Pound..	\$0.15	Watermelons	Each ..	\$0.20 to \$0.45
Pork steak	Pound..	.15	Pepper	Pound..	.20 to .35
Beefsteak	Pound..	\$0.12½ to .15	Milk	Quart..	.06
Ham and bacon	Pound..	.12½ to .20	Buttermilk	Gallon	.10
Chickens	Each ..	.25 to .30	Cake	Each ..	.02½ to .05
Hens	Each ..	.35 to .50	Starch	Pound..	.05
Turkeys	Pound..	.12½	Oatmeal	Package	.10
Wheat flour	12-pound bag.	.30	Bread	Loaf ..	.02½ to .05
Wheat flour	Barrel ..	4.00 to 4.50	Macaroni	Pound..	.10
Corn meal	Peck ..	.10	Cheese	Pound..	.15 to .18
Rice	Pound..	.06 to .10	Sirup	Quart..	.10
Cabbage	Head ..	.02½ to .05	Soda	Pound..	.10
Potatoes, sweet	Bushel	1.20	Baking powder	Pound..	.05
Potatoes, white	Bushel	.60 to .90	Fuel and lighting:		
Canned goods	Can ..	.05 to .15	Wood, uncut	Cord...	2.50 to 2.75
Tea	Pound..	.35 to .80	Wood, cut	Cord...	2.50 to 3.75
Coffee	Pound..	.10 to .30	Coal, bituminous	Ton ..	3.00 to 5.50
Sugar	Pound..	.05 to .06	Coal, anthracite	Ton ..	6.00
Lard	Pound..	.12½ to .15	Kerosene oil	Gallon	.13
Butter	Pound..	.15 to .28	Clothing:		
Salt	Pound..	.01	Men's suits	Each ..	4.00 to 15.00
Eggs	Dozen	.15 to .20	Boys' suits	Each ..	1.50 to 6.00
Apples	Bushel..	.30	Women's dresses	Each ..	3.00 to 10.00
Apples, dried	Pound..	.06 to .10	Shoes	Pair ..	.95 to 3.50
			Underwear	Suit ..	.50 to 1.50

The prices of commodities in Xenia were given by Negro merchants, and are in most cases higher than the prices in Farmville and Sandy Spring.

The following budgets are estimates by the families giving them. The first represents the poorest class of the Xenia Negro. This family came to Xenia in the fall of 1901 from North Carolina. A son had come and had succeeded in securing good employment. He wrote home for the family to come. The mother and father, aged 70 and 73 years, respectively, came, and with them a sister, her husband and 5 children, and 1 adopted child. They all moved into the extreme eastern part of the city, and the family of 11 occupied a small three-room house. In a short while a twelfth member of this family was born, but lived only eight days. In a few months the son, whose encouragement had brought this family to Xenia, died also. With the coming of spring smallpox broke out among them, and for nearly two months the house was quarantined. They all recovered, however. Only two in this family, which now numbers 10, can read and write, one of whom is a girl 12 years old. When the investigator went to this house he was mistaken for the truant officer, and, without waiting to learn his mission, the acting head of the house asserted that she had lawful reasons for not sending her children to school, which reasons were in part the above story. These children were four girls 16, 12, 12, and 10 respectively, and one boy 6 years of age. This family sold the little place they owned in North Carolina, together with their horse, hogs, corn, tobacco, household furniture, and farming implements for \$460. After paying all debts and expenses of moving, etc., they arrived in Xenia with \$270.20.

ESTIMATED INCOME AND EXPENDITURE FOR 39 WEEKS OF FAMILY OF 11 PERSONS.

Income.		Expenditure.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
On hand.....	\$270.20	1 house and lot.....	\$225.00
From labor of father: 90 days' general labor, at \$1; 1 week hoeing greens, \$5; 7 weeks cutting corn, \$24.40.....	119.40	Addition of 1 room to house.....	45.00
From labor of son: 13 weeks at foundry, at \$9 per week.....	117.00	2 pairs of pants, at \$1.50 each; 3 pairs pants, at \$1.25 each; 1 pair pants, at \$1; 2 pairs pants, at 85 cents each....	9.45
From labor of son-in-law: 2 weeks on traction line, at \$1.75 per day; 4 weeks on farm, at \$1.25 per day; 5 weeks at distillery, at \$1.25 per day; 2 weeks hauling coal, at \$1.25 per day; 3 weeks on farm, at \$1 per day; odd jobs, \$10.....	131.50	5 pairs shoes, at \$1 each; 3 pair shoes, at 90 cents; 1 pair shoes, at \$1.50.....	9.20
From labor of eldest daughter: 3 months' nursing, at \$7 per month; 1 month's nursing, at \$5.....	26.00	1 hat, at \$1.75; 2 hats, at 25 cents each, and 2 hats, at 50 cents each.....	3.25
From labor of second daughter: 1 month's work, at \$5, and 5 weeks' work, at \$1 per week.....	10.00	Groceries for 39 weeks, at \$6.80 per week	265.20
Total.....	674.10	Cloth for dresses.....	4.00
		Underwear for all.....	4.25
		2 fascinators, at 25 cents each.....	.50
		Soeks and stockings.....	1.90
		Oil, 39 weeks, at 10 cents per week.....	3.90
		1 load of coal, \$4; 4 loads of coal, at \$3.75 each; 2 loads of wood, at \$1.50 each; 2 loads, at \$1.....	24.00
		Doctor's bill, \$13; funeral expenses, \$10.....	23.00
		Tobacco, 30 cents a week; snuff, 5 cents per week.....	13.65
		Miscellaneous.....	23.35
		On hand.....	8.45
		Total.....	674.10

ESTIMATED ANNUAL INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF FAMILY OF 5 PERSONS.

Income.		Expenditure.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
11 weeks, at \$6.60 per week.....	\$72.60	Rent, at \$3 per month.....	\$36.00
26 weeks, at \$7.50 per week.....	195.00	Clothing (2 suits).....	20.00
		Underclothes.....	3.00
		Shoes and stockings.....	9.50
		Groceries and meat, at \$1.80 per week..	93.60
		Doctor's bill and medicine.....	15.00
		Life insurance for 4 at 5 cents week each	10.40
		Incidentals and miscellaneous.....	13.10
		Moving to Xenia.....	37.00
		Fuel and lighting.....	30.00
Total	267.60	Total	267.60

The following represents the estimated annual income and expenditure of another family of 5 members:

ESTIMATED ANNUAL INCOME AND EXPENDITURE OF FAMILY OF 5 PERSONS.

Income.		Expenditure.	
Items.	Amount.	Items.	Amount.
Man: 39 weeks' work, at \$9 per week....	\$351.00	Rent; 12 months, at \$3 per month.....	36.00
Wife: 12 weeks' cooking, at \$2.50 per week; 18 weeks' washing, at \$1 per week.....	48.00	Groceries and meat, at \$4 per week.....	208.00
		Dresses for wife and daughter.....	7.00
		2 suits for boys.....	4.50
		1 suit for husband.....	5.50
		Shoes and stockings for all.....	8.75
		Underclothes for all.....	2.00
		Doctor's bill and medicine.....	21.00
		Funeral expenses.....	20.00
		Life insurance, at 25 cents per week....	13.00
		Fuel.....	33.00
		Tobacco, 20 cents per week.....	10.40
		Miscellaneous.....	14.45
		On hand.....	15.40
Total	399.00	Total	399.00

The following list gives the number of property holders and the assessed value of this property according to the auditor's books. It also gives the value as estimated by the owners.

ASSESSED VALUATION OF REAL ESTATE OWNED BY NEGROES IN XENIA, 1902.

Taxpayer number.	Assessed valuation.	Valued by owner.	Taxpayer number.	Assessed valuation.	Valued by owner.	Taxpayer number.	Assessed valuation.	Valued by owner.
1.....	\$210	\$600	28.....	\$390	\$300	55.....	\$450	\$350
2.....	70	100	29.....	420	520	56.....	200	200
3.....	600	600	30.....	450	400	57.....	290	250
4.....	280	300	31.....	210	200	58.....	380	1,000
5.....	850	800	32.....	120	100	59.....	280	200
6.....	510	650	33.....	\$60	350	60.....	360	325
7.....	190	200	34.....	40	35	61.....	220	300
8.....	220	300	35.....	740	600	62.....	310	400
9.....	320	600	36.....	280	650	63.....	450	400
10.....	300	300	37.....	425	500	64.....	370	500
11.....	200	200	38.....	200	200	65.....	290	400
12.....	150	200	39.....	540	200	66.....	715	210
13.....	90	200	40.....	630	650	67.....	1,650	1,400
14.....	140	150	41.....	325	400	68.....	480	300
15.....	250	300	42.....	200	150	69.....	200	800
16.....	180	300	43.....	570	1,000	70.....	300	300
17.....	50	37	44.....	700	800	71.....	2,300	3,000
18.....	40	20	45.....	175	250	72.....	250	200
19.....	260	800	46.....	320	175	73.....	450	200
20.....	410	200	47.....	90	290	74.....	270	360
21.....	300	400	48.....	570	800	75.....	110	200
22.....	110	200	49.....	790	700	76.....	280	115
23.....	100	100	50.....	280	200	77.....	170	200
24.....	150	150	51.....	310	500	78.....	340	800
25.....	180	200	52.....	100	200	79.....	250	500
26.....	100	500	53.....	180	200	80.....	270	200
27.....	1,180	3,000	54.....	190	325	81.....	160	150

ASSESSED VALUATION OF REAL ESTATE OWNED BY NEGROES, ETC.—Concluded.

Taxpayer number.	Assessed valuation.	Valued by owner.	Taxpayer number.	Assessed valuation.	Valued by owner.	Taxpayer number.	Assessed valuation.	Valued by owner.
82	\$400	\$400	163	\$590	\$1,000	244	\$360	\$500
83	250	250	164	380	300	245	20	100
84	250	200	165	380	400	246	280	600
85	60	100	166	190	200	247	490	400
86	220	200	167	140	100	248	50	100
87	368	400	168	310	300	249	300	350
88	450	800	169	120	350	250	200	200
89	130	150	170	420	500	251	660	750
90	140	100	171	120	200	252	250	150
91	480	1,000	172	480	600	253	300	500
92	350	500	173	520	600	254	100	150
93	310	250	174	220	600	255	715	600
94	710	700	175	170	100	256	220	500
95	300	450	176	180	300	257	390	600
96	50	50	177	500	500	258	120	100
97	380	100	178	850	850	259	825	650
98	190	200	179	950	1,000	260	270	200
99	2,460	2,700	180	610	500	261	120	500
100	360	500	181	120	400	262	210	400
101	850	500	182	40	100	263	270	400
102	390	700	183	150	120	264	120	100
103	200	200	184	110	100	265	155	200
104	190	300	185	130	125	266	40	150
105	220	350	186	300	300	267	340	500
106	490	500	187	120	150	268	590	600
107	790	800	188	180	500	269	300	350
108	735	800	189	170	175	270	100	250
109	240	100	190	200	200	271	1,570	1,570
110	800	250	191	340	150	272	235	450
111	530	300	192	30	400	273	235	300
112	250	200	193	300	300	274	360	800
113	710	300	194	350	420	275	40	100
114	100	75	195	150	300	276	210	400
115	800	1,200	196	220	200	277	200	250
116	200	200	197	200	300	278	30	100
117	2,780	3,500	198	80	150	279	230	400
118	400	400	199	500	500	280	114	150
119	40	100	200	710	800	281	370	400
120	515	800	201	210	190	282	1,560	2,000
121	370	375	202	220	200	283	30	100
122	70	130	203	320	200	284	290	500
123	410	350	204	280	200	285	150	150
124	580	350	205	920	900	286	160	150
125	290	400	206	100	80	287	20	50
126	140	150	207	70	150	288	110	100
127	300	300	208	400	550	289	900	1,000
128	130	400	209	550	800	290	190	95
129	190	200	210	180	500	291	40	100
130	900	1,000	211	790	1,000	292	50	125
131	400	350	212	450	300	293	820	800
132	90	200	213	150	300	294	50	100
133	600	750	214	420	500	295	2,320	2,500
134	190	200	215	400	300	296	200	350
135	200	200	216	400	400	297	340	350
136	320	300	217	470	500	298	170	100
137	550	700	218	500	500	299	190	210
138	270	350	219	180	200	300	170	225
139	130	250	220	860	800	301	265	255
140	40	100	221	550	600	302	130	250
141	190	200	222	200	250	303	550	750
142	550	500	223	300	450	304	1,540	2,000
143	360	500	224	278	250	305	410	500
144	280	125	225	280	1,000	306	200	225
145	130	200	226	110	350	307	340	500
146	490	500	227	70	150	308	410	500
147	810	150	228	750	800	309	290	300
148	370	350	229	120	750	310	240	300
149	1,700	1,500	230	170	200	311	450	400
150	400	500	231	240	200	312	260	500
151	385	400	232	210	200	313	30	100
152	350	350	233	370	400	314	1,625	2,000
153	240	700	234	250	1,000	315	50	100
154	1,553	4,000	235	370	800	316	150	200
155	270	300	236	500	954	317	150	225
156	220	400	237	330	400	318	400	500
157	550	500	238	300	1,000	319	50	100
158	540	400	239	445	1,000	320	100	350
159	370	200	240	440	600	321	40	45
160	166	200	241	250	260	322	650	690
161	140	100	242	1,850	4,500			
162	1,025	770	243	50	60	Total ..	118,267	149,221

This table shows 322 Negro property holders in Xenia. The number, however, is greater, since several of the pieces are owned jointly by two or more persons. The assessed value of this property is \$118,267. According to the auditor's statement this is supposed to represent from two-thirds to one-half of the real value of the property, which is between \$177,400 and \$236,534. According to the statement of the owners, this property is worth \$149,221. A great deal of this property was bought through the building and loan associations, and paid for in installments of from \$2 to \$4 per week.

GROUP LIFE.

Xenia is the county seat and the largest town of Greene County. Around it, within less than 12 miles, are Cedarville, Jamestown, Bellbrook, and Yellow Springs, towns having, respectively, 1,189, 1,205, 352, and 1,371 inhabitants, and several other towns. By means of good roads, railroads, and electric lines travel between these points is made easy and frequent, and for this reason the whole county may be looked at as one social group whose members constantly move hither and thither within its limits. But inside of this larger group is the more clearly defined group of Xenia which this report attempts to describe. And as in Farmville and Sandy Spring, so here the Negro church is the group or social center. There are 7 Negro churches in Xenia, 3 Baptist, 1 African Methodist Episcopal, 1 Methodist Episcopal, 1 Christian, and 1 Wesleyan Methodist; or one church to every 284 Negro inhabitants. The largest of these is Zion Baptist, which is situated on Main street. It is a beautiful brick edifice, erected at a cost of \$12,500. The next largest, and the church representing the greatest intelligence, is the St. John's African Methodist Episcopal. It has a membership of 223 and owns a parsonage and church valued at \$5,000, both of which are paid for. The salary of the pastor is \$600 per year. Its Sunday school has an enrollment of about 200 pupils. These churches have their fairs and bazaars, concerts and lectures, and their socials. The church makes an effort to satisfy in some way all the legitimate human desires, and thus in the largest and most helpful sense of the word it is the greatest social organ in Xenia. But its chief purpose is to satisfy and educate the religious desires of men; and though it may not always seem evident, this is the great end which is pursued by the many and varied means these churches use. All of them, however, have their regular revivals in the fall or winter, which last from two to six weeks; and in proportion to the fervency of these, the churches generally reap their harvest of "converts." These converts are nurtured and "kept within the fold" until the next spring, when they are baptized. The baptism generally takes place in one of the streams near the city, and is attended by hundreds, and often thousands, of people from various parts of the county. The

remaining part of the year, until time for the next revival, is spent in building up the converts and whole congregation in the Christian faith, and the sermons are on various topics— theological, sociological, political, economic—ranging from the wildest mystical ejaculations to the plainest discourse on such everyday affairs of life as honesty, education, home owning, and the rearing of children.

While a large number of the "converts" fall away from the true standard of Christianity, it can be said that by far the most far-reaching and useful social force in Xenia is the church. There were few Negroes found who did not attend the church or acknowledge its influence. Of the 1,505 persons over 10 years of age, 977, or 64.9 per cent, were reported as church members in good standing. These consisted of 357 males, 98 of whom were under 30 years of age, 44 between 30 and 40 years, and 215 of 40 years or over; also 620 females, of whom 226 were under 30 years of age, 106 between 30 and 40 years, and 288 of 40 years or over. Of 84 per cent of the families there was at least one person in each who was a member of the church, and every family reported some one attending church at some time. Many persons, however, whose names are, perhaps, on some church record, are not counted as church members in this report. The number of such persons is very near 100, and they answered the question as to church membership with, "I used to belong to church, but I do not now, because I don't attend often;" "I used to, but I have not joined since I came here;" "I am, but am not fit to be;" "I am a Christian, but not a church member."

The church does not, however, occupy the social life of the Negroes as completely as formerly, or as is now the case in some Southern towns. The home is fast becoming among the more intelligent classes in Xenia the real social unit. But, leaving aside the home, next to the church are the secret orders. There are 11 Negro lodges in Xenia, namely: Wilberforce Lodge, No. 21, of Free and Accepted Masons, having 48 members; Lincoln Chapter, No. 2, of Royal Arch Masons, having 18 members; Xenia Commandery, No. 8, of Knights Templars, having 20 members; Damon Lodge, No. 29, of Knights of Pythias, having 70 members; Toussaint Lodge of G. U. Order of Odd Fellows; Daniels Post of Grand Army of the Republic; Daniels Corps, No. 228, of Women's Relief Corps; Eastern Star Lodge, No. 2; Bell of Ohio D. T. Tabernacle, No. 511; Mount Olive Lodge, No. 25, of Good Samaritans, and a lodge of Knights of Tabor.

In the life of the more intelligent part of the community the high school plays quite a part. Besides having many of the children in attendance, it has a regular course of lectures. The subjects for this year are economics and sociology, physiology and hygiene, history, and the Bible. Among the lecturers are a Negro physician, a white lawyer, a bishop of the A. M. E. Church, an instructor in the Presbyterian Theological Seminary, and an instructor in Wilberforce Uni-

versity. There have been lectures in this school by some of the best thinkers of Ohio, and though a fee was attached they were very largely attended. There are among the Negroes very clearly defined social grades so far as the highest and lowest elements are concerned. In the highest grade is the educated Negro, and home-owning Negro. A number of these are of free birth and some of several generations of freedom, though these qualifications are not the only criteria for entrance into this class. These people comprise in general the teachers and other professional classes, the entrepreneurs, and a few porters and artisans. These are divided into smaller circles of more or less exclusiveness. It is this class which has in general the confidence of the community of whites. They are attendants at the university extension lecture courses, the Y. M. C. A. courses, and take some part in various movements for the betterment of the city. Most of their sons and daughters go to the high school and some go to college or normal school. The lowest class is composed chiefly of the late immigrants from the South. They are poor and ignorant though not vicious. Being used to crowding in close quarters they generally continue the same manner of living. Together with them are some of the native-born Negroes. It was this class which voted almost solidly for whisky in the recent prohibition election when every ward in the city went "dry" except the Fourth Ward, which is inhabited almost exclusively by Negroes. Between these two classes, which have but little contact with each other in a social way, is the great mass of Negro laborers, domestic servants, and families that "take in washing," shading almost imperceptibly from the lowest to the highest type of Negro.

As to the future of the race, the Negroes of Xenia are of a hopeful mood almost to a unit. The degree of hope is different, and the reasons upon which it is based vary greatly among different types of persons. There still exists the sentimental hope which seems to have but little rational basis, but this is very limited and confined to the more ignorant part of the older element. Among the more thoughtful there is much discontent and restlessness on account of their condition. This is of the helpful sort, however, in that it is the result of increasing intelligence and responsibility and reflection upon the condition and environment of Negroes and methods of bettering these. Under it all there is a very encouraging kind of hopefulness.

The contact with the whites seems to be characterized by fairness and frankness, though it can not be said that the element of racial prejudice does not exist. Most of the whites draw a distinction between the ignorant Negro and the intelligent Negro, and their treatment is in accordance with this distinction. The investigator, though a Negro, received the most cordial assistance of all the white persons with whom this study brought him in contact.

This paper would be incomplete without a word concerning Wilber-

force University. It is named for William Wilberforce, the English antislavery agitator. The school is the oldest Negro college in America: It was founded in 1856 and is run entirely by Negroes, being under the supervision of the A. M. E. Church. It is 3 miles from Xenia, and has an enrollment of about 400 students, who come from all parts of the United States and from abroad. In the year 1901-2 there were 10 students from South Africa, 5 from West Africa, 1 from South America, and 3 from the West Indies. Its teachers are Negroes, and among them are graduates from Oberlin College, Brown University, Cornell University, and the University of Chicago. The Wilberforce community, which consists of 161 persons (permanent residents), according to the last census, is said to be one of the most beautiful communities of Negroes in the country. Among the residents of Wilberforce have been four bishops of the A. M. E. Church, two of whom still reside there. The family of the only Negro West Point graduate now in the Regular Army is also in Wilberforce, and also the family of a chaplain in the United States Army.

Wilberforce deserves mention because of its influence upon Xenia. For many years its teachers and students have lectured and preached in Xenia. The Methodist Church has as pastor a former graduate of Wilberforce. The principal of the high school and many of the teachers are graduates or former students of this school. In the early days Wilberforce was the cause of bringing many people to Xenia; and to-day Wilberforce for one day unites all the towns in the county—indeed in several counties—on the occasion of its annual commencement, when nearly every Negro in Greene County is present.

Nearly all the families in Wilberforce are property holders. The following list, taken from the auditor's books, gives the assessed value of this property:

ASSESSED VALUATION OF PROPERTY OWNED BY NEGROES OF WILBERFORCE, OHIO, 1902.

Taxpayer number.	Acres.	Assessed valuation.			Taxpayer number.	Acres.	Assessed valuation.		
		Lot.	Im-provements.	Total.			Lot.	Im-provements.	Total.
1.....	0.62	\$28	\$1,500	\$1,528	21.....	21.94	\$586	\$450	\$986
2.....	21.29	606	606	22.....	5.78	160	1,100	1,260
3.....	10.90	861	400	761	23.....	81.97	2,926	550	3,476
4.....	6.00	228	600	828	24.....	1.03	26	26
5.....	4.14	171	900	1,071	25.....	.44	27	27
6.....	2.00	67	200	267	26.....	1.00	57	57
7.....	1.00	29	400	429	27.....	1.00	1,750	1,750
8.....	.44	28	400	428	28.....	8.80	314	314
9.....	6.80	50	350	400	29.....	.12	20	20
10.....	1.62	57	600	657	30.....	.44	67	67
11.....	2.68	95	700	795	31.....	4.65	152	152
12.....	3.10	114	2,000	2,114	32.....	.43	38	38
13.....	6.60	275	1,400	1,675	33.....	31.00	1,017	250	1,267
14.....	4.33	171	900	1,071	34.....	.17	28	28
15.....	86.88	2,867	1,500	4,367	35.....	.45	30	30
16.....	246.22	6,593	400	6,993	36.....	1.00	50	50
17.....	7.45	266	900	1,166	37.....	3.36	48	48
18.....	51.21	1,719	1,100	2,819					
19.....	6.85	288	2,200	2,488					
20.....	.83	28	500	528					
					Total.....	694.39	19,482	21,050	40,532

The above table shows 37 property holders (not including the school property) with property valued at \$40,532. Taking the assessed value at one-third for land values and two-thirds for values of improvements, which is according to the method of assessing rural property, the full value of lands is seen to be \$58,446, and of improvements \$31,575, making a total of \$90,021, or an average of \$2,433 per property holder. Most of the trade of Wilberforce goes to Xenia. There is, however, one grocery store, run by a graduate of Wilberforce University, which does most of the retail business of the neighborhood; also a photograph gallery, a butcher shop, a creamery, a restaurant, three boarding houses, and connected with the school there is a printing office, a shoe shop, and a carpentry shop. The carpenters from this shop have put up several houses in the neighborhood. The district public school situated at Wilberforce is taught by two graduates of Wilberforce University. Its enrollment is 35, composed of 17 boys and 18 girls.

As a result of this study the conclusion is reached that the condition of the Negroes of Xenia shows in many ways, though sometimes but feebly, a response to the better advantages afforded by this city as compared with the towns of Sandy Spring and Farmville. This conclusion leads to the inference that the future will see the Negroes better their condition as their environment becomes better.

AGREEMENTS BETWEEN EMPLOYERS AND EMPLOYEES.

[It is the purpose of this Bureau to publish from time to time important agreements made between large bodies of employers and employees with regard to wages, hours of labor, etc. The Bureau would be pleased to receive copies of such agreements whenever made.]

AGREEMENT ENTERED INTO BY THE MASTER CARPENTERS' ASSOCIATION OF THE CITY OF BOSTON AND THE UNITED CARPENTERS' COUNCIL OF BOSTON AND VICINITY.

Agreement between The Master Carpenters' Association of the City of Boston, a voluntary association having a usual place of business in Boston, in the County of Suffolk and Commonwealth of Massachusetts, party of the first part, and The United Carpenters' Council of the City of Boston and Vicinity, a voluntary association composed of and representing the following organizations:

Labor Unions 33, 1,096 and 954, of Boston; 218, of East Boston; 67, of Roxbury; 386, of Dorchester; 959, of Mattapan; 938, of West Roxbury; 438, of Brookline; 625, of Malden; 629, of Somerville; 889, of Allston; 762, of Quincy; 602, of Hyde Park; 862, of Wakefield; 443, of Chelsea; 441, of Cambridge; 780, of Everett; 846, of Revere; 821, of Winthrop; and 1,197, of Saugus; affiliated with United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America, Branch 1, of Boston; Branch 2, of Boston; Branch 3, of Roxbury; Branch 4, of South Boston; Branch 1, of Cambridge; Branch 1, of Chelsea; affiliated with Amalgamated Carpenters of Great Britain, having its usual place of business in said Boston, party of the second part:

Witnesseth, that for the purpose of establishing a method of peacefully settling all questions of mutual concern, the said Master Carpenters' Association of the City of Boston and United Carpenters' Council of the City of Boston and Vicinity, parties of the first and second parts, severally and jointly agree that no such question shall be conclusively acted upon by either body independently, but shall be referred for settlement to a joint committee, which committee shall consist of an equal number of representatives from each association; and also agree that all such questions shall be settled by our own trade, without intervention of any other trade whatsoever.

The parties hereto agree to abide by the findings of this committee on all matters of mutual concern referred to it by either party. It is understood and agreed by both parties that in no event shall strikes and lockouts be permitted, but all differences shall be submitted to the joint committee, and work shall proceed without stoppage or embarrassment.

In carrying out this agreement the parties hereto agree to sustain the principle that absolute personal independence of the individual to work or not to work, to employ or not to employ, is fundamental, and should never be questioned or assailed, for upon that independence the security of our whole social fabric and business prosperity rests,

and employers and workmen should be equally interested in its defense and preservation.

The parties hereto also agree that they will make recognition of this joint agreement a part of the organic law of their respective associations, by incorporating with their respective constitutions or by-laws the following clauses:

A. All members of this association do by virtue of their membership recognize and assent to the establishment of a joint committee of arbitration (under a regular form of agreement and governing rules), by and between this body and the _____ (here write the name of the other contracting party) for the peaceful settlement of all matters of mutual concern to the two bodies and the members thereof.

B. This organization shall elect at its annual meeting _____ delegates to the said joint committee, of which the president of this association shall be one, officially notifying within three days thereafter the said _____ (here write the name of the other contracting party) of the said action and of the names of the delegates elected.

C. The duty of the delegates thus elected shall be to attend all meetings of the said joint committee, and they must be governed in this action by the rules jointly adopted by this association and the said _____ (here write the name of the other contracting party).

D. No amendments shall be made to these special clauses, A, B, C, and D, of these by-laws, except by concurrent vote of this association with the said _____ (here write the name of the other contracting party) and only after six months' notice of proposal to so amend.

The joint committee above referred to is hereby created and established, and the following rules adopted for its guidance:

1. This committee shall consist of not less than six members, equally divided between the associations represented. The members of the committee shall be elected annually by their respective associations at their regular meetings for the election of officers. An umpire shall be chosen by the committee at their annual meeting, as the first item of business after organization. This umpire must be neither a workman nor an employer of workmen. He shall not serve unless his presence is made necessary by failure of the committee to agree. In such cases he shall act as presiding officer at all meetings and have the casting vote as provided in Rule 7.

2. The duty of this committee shall be to consider such matters of mutual interest and concern to the employers and the workmen as may be regularly referred to it by either of the parties to this agreement, transmitting its conclusions thereon to each association for its government.

3. A regular annual meeting of the committee shall be held during the month of January, at which meeting the special business shall be the establishment of "Working Rules" for the ensuing year; these rules to guide and govern employers and workmen, and to comprehend such particulars as rate of wages per hour, number of hours to be worked, payment for overtime, payment for Sunday-work, government of apprentices, and similar questions of joint concern.

4. Special meetings shall be held when either of the parties hereto desire to submit any question to the committee for settlement.

5. For the proper conduct of business, a chairman shall be chosen at each meeting, but he shall preside only for the meeting at which he is so chosen. The duty of the chairman shall be that usually incumbent on a presiding officer.

6. A clerk shall be chosen at the annual meeting to serve during the year. His duty shall be to call all regular meetings, and to call special meetings when officially requested so to do by either body party hereto. He shall keep true and accurate record of the meetings, transmit all findings to the associations interested, and attend to the usual duties of the office.

7. A majority vote shall decide all questions. In case of the absence of any member, the president of the association by which he was appointed shall have the right to appoint a substitute in his place. The umpire shall have casting vote in case of tie.

In witness whereof, the parties hereto, duly authorized by their respective constituent associations, have caused these presents to be subscribed and their respective seals to be affixed by officials hereunto duly and specially authorized and empowered, this 22d day of October, A. D. 1902.

THE MASTER CARPENTERS' ASSOCIATION
OF THE CITY OF BOSTON,

[SEAL]

By E. NOYES WHITCOMB, *President.*
JOHN Y. MAINLAND, *Secretary.*

BOSTON, *October 22, 1902.*

SUFFOLK, *ss.*

Then personally appeared the above-named, E. Noyes Whitcomb and John Y. Mainland, and acknowledged the foregoing instrument to be the free act and deed of The Master Carpenters' Association of the City of Boston. Before me,

EUGENE C. UPTON, *Notary Public.*

THE UNITED CARPENTERS' COUNCIL OF THE
CITY OF BOSTON AND VICINITY,

By JOHN CUSSACK, *President.*
M. J. McLEOD, *Secretary.*

BOSTON, MASS., *October 25, 1902.*

SUFFOLK, *ss.*

Then personally appeared the above-named, John Cussack and M. J. McLeod, and each acknowledged the foregoing instrument to be his free act and deed and the free act and deed of The United Carpenters' Council of the City of Boston and Vicinity.

W. P. COOLBAUGH,
Justice of the Peace.

WORKING RULES.

The joint committee of the Master Carpenters' Association of the City of Boston and the United Carpenters' Council of the City of Boston and Vicinity, created under agreement of the two bodies to settle all questions of mutual concern to employers and workmen in that trade, without strikes or lockouts, have decided upon the following working rules to govern employers and workmen in that trade for the term ending May 1, 1904, acting under the following declaration of principles:

In carrying out these rules the parties hereto, that is to say, the members of the Master Carpenters' Association of the City of Boston and the members of the United Carpenters' Council of the City of Boston and Vicinity, are to sustain the principle that absolute personal

independence of the individual to work or not to work, to employ or not to employ, is fundamental, and should never be questioned or assailed, for upon that independence the security of our whole social fabric and business prosperity rests, and employers and workmen should be equally interested in its defense and preservation. Inasmuch as the United Carpenters' Council is now being recognized as a proper body to cooperate with in settling all matters of mutual concern between employers and workmen in this trade, it shall be understood that the policy of the Master Carpenters' Association shall be to assist the said council and its constituent unions to make their bodies as thoroughly representative as possible.

1. *Hours of labor.*—From May 1, 1903, to May 1, 1904, not more than 8 hours' labor shall be required in the limits of the day, except it be as overtime, with payment for same as herein provided, except in shops where the time shall be 9 hours.

2. *Working hours.*—The working hours to be from 8 a. m. to 12 m., and from 1 p. m. to 5 p. m., with 1 hour for dinner, during the months of February, March, April, May, June, July, August, September, October. During the months of November, December, and January, each employer and his employees shall be free to decide as to the hours of beginning and quitting work, always with the understanding that not more than 8 hours shall be required except as overtime, as herein provided for.

3. *Night work.*—Eight hours to constitute a night's labor. When two gangs are employed, working hours to be from 8 p. m. to 12 m. and from 1 a. m. to 5 a. m.

4. *Overtime.*—Overtime to be paid for as time and one-half.

5. *Double time.*—Work done on Sundays, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving and Christmas days to be paid for as double time.

6. *Wages.*—From date of this agreement to May 1, 1903, the minimum rate of wages to be 35 cents per hour. From May 1, 1903, to May 1, 1904, the minimum rate of wages to be 37½ cents per hour.

7. *Pay day.*—Wages to be paid weekly, at or before 5 p. m. of the established pay day of each employer.

8. *Waiting time.*—If any workman is discharged, he shall be entitled to receive his wages at once, and failing to so receive them, he shall be entitled to payment at regular rate of wages, for every working hour of waiting time which he may suffer by default of the employer. If any workman is laid off on account of unfavorable weather, he shall not be entitled to waiting time. If any workman is laid off on account of lack of materials, he shall be entitled to receive pay for every working hour at the regular rate of wages until notified that work must be temporarily suspended, and in that event he shall be entitled, on demand, to receive his wages at once, the same as in case of discharge. Should an office order be issued to a workman in payment of his wages, the workman shall be entitled to additional time, sufficient to enable him to reach the office to receive payment.

9. *Business agent.*—The business agent of the Carpenters' Union shall be allowed to visit all jobs during working hours, to interview the steward of the job, and for this purpose only. Nothing in this rule shall be construed as giving such agents any authority to issue orders controlling the work of workmen, or to interfere with the conduct of the work, and any infringement of this rule shall make the agent so infringing liable to discipline after investigation.

The question of shop work being of vital importance to mill men in Boston and vicinity, thorough consideration will be given to this subject during the year, to the end that comprehensive action may be taken to equalize conditions.

E. NOYES WHITCOMB,
JOHN Y. MAINLAND,
IRA G. HERSEY,
FREELON MORRIS,
WALTER S. GERRY,

Committee Representing The Master Carpenters' Association.

WM. J. SHIELDS,
CHARLES A. McDONALD,
JOHN CUSSACK,
JOHN F. MEDLAND,
JOHN E. POTTS,

Committee Representing Carpenters' Council.

The umpire selected by the joint committee is George L. Wentworth, esq., associate justice of the municipal court, court house, Pemberton square, Boston.

It is to be noted that, in deciding upon the working rules above printed, the joint committee were unanimous, and therefore the services of the umpire were not required.

DES MOINES AGREEMENT BETWEEN COAL OPERATORS OF IOWA AND THE UNITED MINE WORKERS OF DISTRICT THIRTEEN.

At a joint conference of the United Mine Workers of America and the Iowa Coal Operators' Association held at Des Moines, Iowa, March 27, 1903, the following scale, rules, regulations and agreements were entered into and adopted for District 13 for the year beginning April 1, 1903, and ending March 31, 1904.

The price to be paid for pick mined coal in the various subdistricts named below, of said district 13, during the year commencing April 1, 1903, and ending March 31, 1904, shall be as follows: Per ton of 2,000 pounds, at the option of the operators, as to mine run or lump coal, provided that only such coal as is sold as mine run shall be paid for on that basis, unless otherwise agreed upon between the State board of the U. M. W. of A. and the operator of the mine.

All of the screens in the different fields shall have not to exceed 72 square feet of superficial area, free from obstructions, and the bars of each screen shall rest upon a sufficient number of bearings to hold the bars in proper position. No screen provided for in this agreement shall be more than 12 feet in length, except those now in use, nor have anything on or near it, which will impede the progress of the coal over the screen, provided further that the screens in the several subdistricts shall be as follows:

SUBDISTRICT NO. 1.

The screens shall be of flat bars of not less than five-eighths of an inch surface and not to exceed 1½ inches between the bars, except in

Putnam County, Mo., which shall be on an absolute mine run basis. Hand picked coal shall be considered as screened lump coal.

Mine run coal Putnam County, Mo.....	per ton..	\$0. 89 $\frac{1}{4}$
Mine run coal K. C. track in Iowa	do.....	. 92 $\frac{1}{16}$

And that a commission shall be appointed by President C. H. Morris of the Iowa Coal Operators' Association and President Edwin Perry of district No. 13 of the U. M. W. of A. to investigate the conditions in Putnam County, Mo., and decide whether the coal in any mine therein is deficient or not, if it is deficient, they shall fix the price per ton that shall cover the deficiency. The price to be effective from April 1, 1903.

Screened lump coal.....	per ton..	\$1. 05
Eight-foot entry.....	per yard..	1. 72
Twelve-foot entry.....	do.....	1. 35
Fourteen-foot entry.....	do.....	1. 30
Room turning, 12 to 14 foot doorway, each		2. 25

Double shifting entries, 25 cents per yard extra.

Lee machine.

Machine runners.....	per ton..	\$0. 07 $\frac{1}{4}$
Machine shovellers.....	do.....	. 07 $\frac{1}{4}$
Loaders.....	do.....	. 55 $\frac{1}{4}$

CENTERVILLE MINES.

Legg machine runners.

40-foot room.....	per foot..	\$0. 2227
Entry.....	do.....	. 0729
Extra cuts.....	do.....	. 0762

Legg machine shovellers.

40-foot room.....	per foot..	\$0. 1807
Entry.....	do.....	. 0593
Extra cuts.....	do.....	. 0705
Harrison runner, double rib.....	do.....	. 0959
Harrison shovellers, double rib.....	do.....	. 0718
Harrison runners.....	per day..	2. 80
Loaders.....	per ton..	. 49 $\frac{1}{4}$
Head track layers.....	per day..	2. 56
Pipe men.....	do.....	2. 50
Drivers and trip riders.....	do.....	2. 44
Cagers.....	do.....	2. 44
Boy couplers.....	do.....	1. 52
Oilers and trappers.....	do.....	1. 13
Pushers and all other inside adult labor.....	do.....	2. 36

Boy drivers may be used between partings but when used at regular switching they shall be considered as men and receive men's wages.

Top labor.

Box car and top men.....	per day..	\$1. 80
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But in no case shall a reduction from present wages be made on any man now receiving more than \$1.80 per day.

Outside drivers, for outside work only, and mine teamsters.....	per day..	\$1. 80
Sinkers, per day of eight hours.....		2. 70

Price of smithing shall be 1 per cent of the gross earnings, provided that miners' tools be given preference over all other work done by the blacksmith, and the tools shall be sharpened in a workmanlike manner.

That in accordance with the State law the company shall furnish all the necessary timbers and the miner shall keep his room securely propped. If the miner working in the room fails to securely prop the same, or neglects to prop as directed by the pit foreman or to build his road wall within 3 feet, or his gob within 4 feet, of the working face, provided he has material to gob with, he may be discharged. If the miner is discharged, and he is not satisfied with the decision of the mine foreman, an appeal may be taken as provided for in resolution No. 8 of this agreement.

In any mine where the company does the brushing the miner shall deliver his coal and receive his empty car at his switch; it is also further agreed that two men may work on one road under this agreement. It is also agreed that the miner shall be responsible for his working face up to the cap rock, except falls caused by slips or on account of mines being idle, and falls caused by first break in circle work, and in front of the roadway outward to the inside corner of his last roadwall, and when a fall occurs on the roadway outward from the end of the roadwall, exceeding one car of dirt, the pit boss shall upon being notified, see that such fall is removed.

The company may run the machine double shift when necessary, on account of delays from breakage or unavoidable causes, or it may run one shift each 24 hours, whether it is during the time the mine is running coal or during the intervening time, provided that one machine crew work not to exceed 48 hours in one week, when the mine runs every day and when the mine is not working full time, they may run the machines as many hours as the pit runs each week.

The machine shovelers shall remove the dirt cut by the machine from under the coal and clean up the place for the loaders. The mining shall be done in the clay and as thin as practicable to clear the dutchman. In case of falls or slips on the face, and the loader and the pit boss can not agree on the price for cleaning it, the company may load the place out with company men. Company or machine men may load deficient coal when loader and pit foreman can not agree on a price for same. Loading of bump coal to remain the same as heretofore. The same responsibility of care of place shall apply to loaders as to miners except when the place is loaded out and cleaned up and accepted by the company, then the loader's responsibility ceases until he takes the place again. Where machine and pick miners work together in the same mine, the turn shall be made equal in dollars and cents.

Corner cutting.—Corner cutting on longwall shall be 63 cents per yard and corner cutting in semi-longwall shall be 63 cents per yard for all permanent corners. What is considered a permanent corner is the corner next to main entry and the corner next to head of cross entry. Should a room at any time be more than 7 feet ahead of the inside room the miner shall be given a place to work until the inside room is caught up.

There shall be iron track in all places where one man can not push out and in all back entries; not more than two roads shall be permitted on air course for each cross cut; miners shall not be required to turn loaded cars on wooden platforms. In room and pillar work the miner is to deliver his loaded car and receive his empty car as heretofore.

The depth of rooms in room and pillar work shall be not more than 150 feet; in longwall work not more than 125 feet, except by mutual consent.

Brushing.—The minimum price for brushing in 8-foot entries shall be 53 cents per yard.

Crib building.—The price for building cribs from clay to slate shall be 63 cents each, the company to have the option of doing same, but where built by the company the miners shall not be delayed in their work.

Black bat.—Black bats over 3 inches thick shall be considered as deficient work and paid for according to Resolution No. 10.

SUBDISTRICT NO. 2.

The screens shall be of flat or akron-shaped bars of not less than five-eighths of an inch surface with one and three-eighths inches between the bars, provided that where diamond bars are now in use, with not more than one and one-fourth inches between the bars and in proper condition said screens shall be retained.

Screened lump coal.....per ton.. \$0.95

It is hereby agreed that any mine may make mine-run coal when sale for same is found and the price shall be 6 cents over present prices paid. Provided the minimum price shall be 66 cents per ton and the maximum price shall be 71 cents per ton, provided further, that the mines which are now on a mine-run basis, shall be continued on that basis during the life of this agreement, except that any mine on a mine-run basis shall be permitted to return to a lump-coal basis whenever said mines shall, by actual test, show over 65 per cent of lump coal. And whenever any mine on a lump-coal basis shows 35 per cent or more of screenings, it shall be placed on a mine-run basis, provided that the per cent is shown by one week's test. Provided further, that any mine not having an established mine-run price or any new mine commencing operation during the scale year shall have the privilege of producing mine-run coal and making a test basing the price of said mine-run coal on the present price of screened lump coal. Provided further, that the minimum price shall be 66 cents per ton and the maximum price shall be 71 cents per ton.

And further recommend that a commission be appointed, to determine what shall be the mine-run price at Phillips Fuel Company, Rutledge mine, considering first the question of whether a permanent or temporary mine-run price has been established.

Eight-foot entry.....per yard.. \$2.47
 Twelve-foot entry.....do.... 1.70
 Room turning each, not to exceed 9-foot neck..... 5.04

Where neck is required to be cut more than 3 feet on one side \$2.25 additional shall be paid.

Double shifting in entries 25 cents per yard extra.

Breakthroughs between entries or rooms, when required to be cut, shall be paid for same as entries of similar width.

Brushing.

Brushing by taking up bottom or taking down top shall be 5½ cents an inch measured from the top or bottom of the vein, as the case may be, and of sufficient width for roadway. This to apply to top and bottom of ordinary slate or clay material, but if of an unusually hard material then the price to be agreed upon locally, and failing to agree the company to do the brushing, in which case the said brushing shall

be kept up to within 15 feet of the face. The minimum width of any room shall be 20 feet. Loading or unloading slate done by the miner 17 cents per car.

Day wage scale.

Track layers, timbermen, cagers.....	per day..	\$2.56
Drivers, trip riders and water haulers	do....	2.56
Track layers and timbermen helpers	do....	2.36
Boy couplers	do....	1.52
Oilers	do....	1.40
Trappers	do....	1.13
Electric motormen, and spike team drivers when engaged in regular switch- ing.....	per day..	2.70
All other inside adult labor.....	do....	2.36

Stable men to receive 12½ per cent advance over present wages.

Boy drivers may be used between partings, but when used at regular switching they shall be considered as men and receive men's wages.

Where the company does the sharpening, the price of blacksmithing shall be 1½ per cent of the gross earnings, provided that the miners' tools be given preference over all other work done by the blacksmith.

The tools shall be sharpened in a workmanlike manner.

Top labor.

The price for dumpers, chunkers, screening-car men, and all other common top labor shall be advanced 12½ per cent over present wages, provided that no company shall be required to figure from a higher wage than \$1.70 per day, and provided further that no one receiving more than \$1.90 shall be reduced.

Sinkers, per day of eight hours.....	\$2.70
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SUBDISTRICT NO. 3.

The screens shall be of flat or akron-shaped bars of not less than five-eighths of an inch surface, with one and three-eighths inches between the bars, provided that where diamond bars are now in use, with not more than one and one-fourth inches between the bars, and in proper condition, said screen may be retained at the option of the operator.

Jasper County thick vein screened lump	per ton..	\$1.00
Jasper County thick vein mine run.....	do....	.69
Polk County screened lump	do....	1.00
Polk County mine run	do....	.69
Eight-foot entry	per yard..	1.97
Twelve-foot entry.....	do....	1.91

Room turning, 9-foot neck, 8-foot wide, each \$5.04; each additional yard or fraction thereof to be paid at the rate of \$1.69 per yard.

Where the neck is required to be cut more than 3 feet on one side \$2.25 additional shall be paid.

Double shifting in entries 25 cents per yard extra.

Breakthroughs between entries or rooms when required to be cut shall be paid for same as entries of similar width.

Brushing.

Brushing by taking up bottom or taking down top shall be 5½ cents an inch measured from the top or bottom of the vein, as the case may be, and of sufficient width for roadway. This to apply to top and

bottom of ordinary slate or clay material, but if of an unusually hard material then the price to be agreed upon locally, and failing to agree the company to do the brushing, in which case the said brushing shall be kept up to within 15 feet of the face. The minimum width of any room shall be 20 feet.

Loading and unloading slate when done by the miner, 17 cents per car.

Where the company does the sharpening the price of blacksmithing shall be $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the gross earnings, provided that the miners' tools be given preference over all other work done by the blacksmith, and the tools shall be sharpened in a workmanlike manner.

Day wage scale.

Track layers, timbermen, cagers.....	per day..	\$2. 56
Drivers, trip riders and water haulers.....	do.....	2. 56
Track layers and timbermen helpers.....	do.....	2. 36
Boy couplers.....	do.....	1. 52
Oilers.....	do.....	1. 40
Trappers.....	do.....	1. 13
Electric motormen, and spike team drivers when engaged in regular switching.....	per day..	2. 70
All other inside adult labor.....	do.....	2. 36

Stablemen to receive $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent advance over present wages.

Boy drivers may be used between partings but when used at regular switching, they shall be considered as men and receive men's wages.

Top labor.

The price for dumpers, chunkers, screening car men and all other common top labor shall be advanced $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent over present wages, provided that no company shall be required to figure from a higher wage than \$1.70 per day, and provided further, that no one receiving more than \$1.90 shall be reduced.

Sinkers, per day of eight hours.....	\$2. 70
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SUBDISTRICT NO. 4.

In Boone County the screens shall be of diamond bars, with three-fourths of an inch between the bars.

Screened lump.....	per ton..	\$1. 10
Entry driving.....	per yard..	2. 25
Room turning, not to exceed 9-foot neck.....	each..	5. 63
Frazer, screened lump coal.....	per ton..	. 95

Mode of separating bone coal same as last year.

Machine loading, Harrison and Jeffrey machines, one-half of picking price.

In Webster County the screens shall be as follows: At Lehigh the screens shall be of flat bars of not less than five-eighths of an inch surface and not more than $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches between the bars.

Tyson screened lump.....	per ton..	\$1. 10
Mine run, Tyson vein.....	do.....	. 96

Or what a test will show it to be, at the option of the operator.

Pretty vein, screened lump.....	per ton..	\$1. 15
Pretty vein, mine run.....	do.....	1. 01
Entry driving.....	per yard..	2. 47
Room turning not to exceed 9-foot neck.....	each..	5. 63

At Coalville and Kalo coal classed as soft coal shall be on an absolute mine run basis. Hard coal vein shall have either a diamond bar screen with three-fourths of an inch between bars or flat bars of not less than five-eighths of an inch surface with 1½ inches between the bars.

Coalville hard coal, screened lump.....	per ton..	\$1.05
Coalville hard coal, mine run.....	do....	.72
Coalville soft coal, mine run.....	do....	.58½
Coalville entry driving in hard coal.....	per yard..	1.85½
Coalville entry driving in soft coal.....	do....	1.26
Room turning hard coal.....	each..	3.15
Room turning soft coal.....	do....	2.81

Double shifting entries, 25 cents per yard extra.

At Coalville and Kalo coal 4½ feet thick and under and over 3 feet 3 inches shall be 7½ cents over the scale price; 3 feet 3 inches and under to be 15 cents over the scale price. Soft coal 3 feet 3 inches and under to be 7½ cents per ton over the scale price. Collins lump to be advanced 10 cents per ton over last year's price. Collins No. 4 over regulation screens shall be \$1.25 per ton. Cannel coal shall be 96 cents per ton until higher coal is developed at which time the local union and the operators shall make a price for the higher coal. All conditions to be same as last year.

Where the company does the sharpening the price of blacksmithing shall be 1½ per cent of the gross earnings provided that the miners' tools be given preference over all other work done by the blacksmith. The tools shall be sharpened in a workmanlike manner.

Dead and deficient work.

Coal at Boone less than 27 inches thick shall be considered deficient work. Pushing not to exceed 150 feet and no miner shall be required to push beyond second switch from face of entry; if required to push more than 150 feet 10 cents per ton extra for first 30 feet, beyond that distance the price to be agreed upon locally. All track on entry and room roads to be iron and laid at the expense of the company. Brushing not to be more than 9 feet back from face of coal. Company to build roadside buildings in entries and roadways, the miner shall leave the usual space on either side of track for said buildings, but in cases where gob is entirely filled the miners shall not be required to load out any dirt unless suitably compensated for so doing.

Tyson vein, all coal under 33 inches shall be considered deficient and the price shall be agreed upon between the miner affected and the mine foreman, and if they fail to agree on a price per ton; it shall be worked by the day.

Pretty vein, 24 inches or under shall be worked single, or if double the price to be agreed upon locally.

Day wage scale.

Head track layers.....	per day..	\$2.56
Head timberman.....	do....	2.56
Drivers, cagers, and trip riders.....	do....	2.44
Boy couplers.....	do....	1.52
Oilers and trappers.....	do....	1.13
Machine runners.....	do....	2.80
Machine helpers.....	do....	2.36
All other inside adult labor.....	do....	2.36

KALO AND COALVILLE.

Drivers, cagers, and trip riders.....	per day..	\$2.56
Timbermen and track layers.....	do.....	2.56
All other inside adult labor.....	do.....	2.36

Boy drivers may be used between partings, but when used at regular switching they shall be considered as men and receive men's wages.

Top labor.

The price for dumpers, chunkers, screening car men and all other common top labor shall be advanced $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent over present wages, provided that no company shall be required to figure from a higher wage than \$1.70 per day; and provided further, that no one receiving more than \$1.90 shall be reduced.

Sinkers, per day of eight hours.....	\$2.70
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MISCELLANEOUS.

SCOTT COUNTY.—The price of mining at Jamestown and all parts of Scott County shall be $4\frac{1}{2}$ cents per bushel in rooms and all other conditions to remain the same except that when any work is done by the day the day wage scale of subdistrict No. 2 shall be paid. And it is agreed that the operator shall be the sole judge as to when the selling price shall be advanced. When coal is sold for more than 7 cents per bushel one-half of said increase shall be paid to the miner.

MADRID.—Mining price with the same system as now in force, \$1.15 per ton; rooms not to exceed 40 feet in width and 150 feet in length, all other conditions to remain the same as last year. Brushing and day wages and scale to be paid same as subdistrict No. 4.

ANGUS.—The screens at Angus shall be of diamond bars with not more than $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches between the bars, free from obstruction and not to exceed 36 square feet of superficial area. Screened lump coal sold locally shall be \$1.15 per ton for mining; all coal shipped to points other than Perry shall be \$1.10 per ton; mine run at McElhaney's mine shall be $73\frac{1}{2}$ cents per ton; entry driving per yard, \$1.70; brushing per inch $5\frac{1}{2}$ cents; pushing to be same as at present; cross bars put up by miners in rooms, 28 cents each; cross bars put up in entries by miner, 43 cents each; straps shall not be considered as cross bars, but all straps shall be trimmed ready for use by the company. Coal under 3 feet to be worked single; if worked double 10 cents per ton extra; breakthroughs between rooms, per yard, \$1.13. Room turning 6-foot necks, \$2.81 each; 9-foot neck, \$3.94; 12-foot neck, \$5.06 each. Laying of iron track by the miner, 2 cents per foot.

DAWSON.—The mining price at Dawson to be the same as adopted for Angus. Other conditions to remain the same as at present.

VAN METER.—The mine at Van Meter shall be on a strictly mine run basis at 86 cents per ton; rooms shall be limited to 42 feet in width and 125 feet in depth; when the roof gets so low that the cars can not be got to the face the company shall brush the same immediately; if not done within 24 consecutive hours the company shall provide work for the person or persons so affected, until the same is done. That the system of working in rooms shall remain the same as heretofore except as changed by above provisions, and that all other prices and conditions be the same as provided in subdistrict No. 4.

NEW MARKET.—Mining price, mine run per ton, \$1.31 with same system as last year; brushing, cross entries, 84½ cents per yard. All other conditions shall remain same as last year, except that wheelers shall be advanced 12½ per cent over present prices, and provided further that the operators affected, and the miners' local union at New Market shall have the right to adjust this question on any basis that is satisfactory to them, but should they fail to adjust it within 60 days the above price shall prevail during the scale year commencing April 1, 1903.

CLARINDA.—Price of mine run coal at Clarinda to be \$1.50 per ton, and conditions to be the same as provided for New Market.

GENERAL RESOLUTIONS APPLYING TO DISTRICT THIRTEEN.

RESOLUTION NO. 1.

(a) The above is based upon an 8-hour work day, and it is definitely understood and agreed that an 8-hour day means 8 hours' work in the mine at the usual working places, 6 days a week when required by the operator, Sundays and legal holidays excepted, and except where by present local custom a half holiday is given on pay days, which may be changed locally by mutual agreement. This shall be exclusive of the time required in reaching such working places in the morning and departing from same at night.

(b) Regarding drivers they shall take their mules to and from the stables and the time required in so doing shall not include any part of the day's labor. Their work beginning at the place where they receive empty cars, but in no case shall a driver's time be docked while he is waiting for cars at the point named. Where it is the practice to haul men in the trip, the latter shall leave the bottom at such time as the company may determine to be necessary for employees to reach their working places in time to begin work at the hour fixed.

RESOLUTION NO. 2.

That the 8-hour work day shall commence at 7 a. m., from April 1 to October 1, and at 8 a. m. from October 1 to April 1, except when otherwise agreed locally, with one-half hour for noon where firing but once a day occurs, and one hour for noon where it is necessary to fire twice a day. In neither case shall such nooning be counted a part of the 8-hour day.

RESOLUTION NO. 3.

That if any miner be docked for sending out dirty coal, he shall be notified by the pit foreman. If he be docked a second time he may be laid off for 2 days; if he be docked a third time within 15 days from time of first offense, or if he at any time sends out large quantities of impurities in any one car, he shall be subject to discharge; but before discharge the pit committee and superintendent shall investigate such case and if found guilty the penalty may be enforced.

RESOLUTION NO. 4.

(Applies to subdistricts 2, 3 and 4.)

(a) That in accordance with the State law the company shall furnish all necessary timbers and the miner shall keep his room securely

propped. If a miner working in a room fails to securely prop the same or neglects to prop as directed by the pit foreman or carelessly shoots down the props or timbers and a fall of slate occurs through such failure, neglect or carelessness, he shall immediately clear his roadway of such falls of slate and do all necessary retimbering, and in case of his neglect to do so, the company may do such work and charge the expense thereof to such miner.

(b) In case the room has been properly timbered as above set forth and the roof from any cause becomes so heavy as to require double timbering the company shall when notified by the miner do the necessary work to protect the roadway.

(c) When a fall of slate occurs between the inside props and the face of his room of an average thickness not to exceed 3 inches he shall immediately remove such fall, and in case of his neglect to do so the company may do such work and charge the expense thereof to such miner. If of a greater thickness he shall notify the pit foreman, who shall within 24 consecutive hours furnish the necessary labor to make such removal. If the fall is not removed and the place properly secured within said 24 hours the miners affected thereby shall be given employment until the same is removed.

(d) If the miner is dissatisfied with any decision of the pit foreman an appeal may be taken to the superintendent and the president of the local union who shall decide the question and their decision shall be final, but the miner shall continue at work pending such decision.

RESOLUTION NO. 5.

The right to hire and discharge, the management of the mine and the direction of the working force, are vested exclusively in the operator, and the U. M. W. of A. shall not abridge this right. It is not the intention of this provision to encourage the discharge of employees or the refusal of employment to applicants because of personal prejudice or activity in matters affecting the U. M. W. of A. If any employee shall be suspended or discharged by the company and it is claimed that an injustice has been done him, an investigation to be conducted by the parties and in the manner set forth in resolution No. 8 of this agreement shall be taken up promptly and if it is proven an injustice has been done, the operator shall reinstate said employee and pay him full compensation for the time he has been suspended and out of employment; provided that if no decision shall be rendered within 5 days, the case shall be considered closed in so far as compensation is concerned, provided that the case must be settled within 1 week.

RESOLUTION NO. 6.

In the event of an instantaneous death by accident in the mine the miners and underground employees shall have the privilege of discontinuing work for the remainder of that day, but work at the option of the operator shall be resumed on the day following and continue thereafter. In case the operator elects to operate the mine on the day of the funeral of the deceased as above, or whether the death has resulted from an accident in the mine, or from any other cause, individual employees may at their option absent themselves from work for the purpose of attending such funeral, but not otherwise. In the event

that the operator shall elect to operate the mine on the day of such funeral then from the proceeds of such day's operation each member of the U. M. W. of A. employed at the mine at which the deceased member was employed shall contribute 50 cents and the operator \$25 for the benefit of the family of the deceased or his legal representatives, to be collected through the office of the company. Except in fatal accidents as above, the mine shall in no case be thrown idle because of any death or funeral; but in case of the death of any employee of the company, or member of his family, any individual employee may at his option absent himself from work for the sake of attending such funeral, but not otherwise.

RESOLUTION NO. 7.

The operators shall pay all wages earned during the first 15 days of each month, not later than the first Saturday after the 20th of said month; and for wages earned after the 15th of said month, not later than the first Saturday after the 5th of the following month.

RESOLUTION NO. 8.

(a) The duties of the pit committee shall be confined to the adjustment of disputes between the pit boss and the miners or laborers arising out of this agreement, or any local agreement made in connection herewith, where the pit boss and said miners or mine laborers have failed to agree. In case of any local trouble arising at any mine through such failure to agree between the pit boss and any miner or mine laborer, the pit committee and the pit boss are empowered to adjust, and in case of their disagreement it shall be referred to the superintendent of the company and the miner's president of the local union, or local executive board of not more than 5 members, the meeting of said board not to be held while the mine is in operation and should they fail to adjust it, it shall be referred to the operator of the mine and the miner's State president, and should they fail to agree they may submit the matter to arbitration which shall be final (all cases of discharge must be settled as above), or the matter shall be referred in writing to the executive committee of the Iowa Coal Operators' Association and the State executive board of the U. M. W. of A. for adjustment, and in all cases the miners or mine laborers and parties involved must continue at work until a final decision is reached in the manner above set forth.

(b) If any employees doing day work shall cease work because of a grievance which has not been taken up for adjustment in the manner provided herein and such action shall seem likely to impede the operation of the mine, the pit committee shall assist the company in obtaining a man or men to take such vacant place or places at the scale rate in order that the mine may continue at work. In case the mine is shut down in violation of these agreements, or any of them, the organization will at all times furnish all the men required by the operator at the scale rate to properly care for the mine.

RESOLUTION NO. 9.

All false top or bottom, in shooting coal mines of an average thickness of over 3 inches, shall be paid 5½ cents an inch per running yard,

provided that when the top can be left up or the bottom left down, then the company shall not be required to pay for same.

RESOLUTION NO. 10.

That all deficient work not covered by this agreement shall be paid for at a price to be mutually agreed upon between the mine boss and the party concerned, if they can not agree in any other manner they may agree on a price per day, and failing to agree, the matter shall be referred to the superintendent of the mine and the president of the local union for adjustment and in case they fail to agree then it shall be referred for final settlement to the operator of the mine and the miner's State president, or someone designated to represent him; the miner shall continue at work pending an investigation and whatever settlement is made shall date from the time the question of deficiency was raised; if the company decides to stop the place no investigation shall be made, but the miner shall be given another place.

RESOLUTION NO. 11.

The price of coal furnished employees in the several districts shall be as follows, per ton, of 2,000 pounds at the mine: First district, lump coal, \$2 per ton; second district, lump coal \$1.75, nut coal 95 cents per ton; third district, lump coal \$2 per ton at shipping mines and \$2.25 at all local mines; fourth district, lump coal \$2.25 per ton, Frazer bone coal \$1.25 per ton.

RESOLUTION NO. 12.

All labor and dead work not covered in this agreement shall receive 12½ per cent advance.

RESOLUTION NO. 13.

(a) Engineers, first class, 300 tons and over, \$79 per month; second class, 200 to 300 tons, \$73 per month; third class, 200 tons or less, \$62 per month; tail rope engineers to receive 12½ per cent above present wages, but the minimum rate shall be \$2.25 per day or \$62 per month, provided further that the maximum rate shall be \$2.70 per day or \$70 per month. Nine hours to constitute a day's work.

(b) The tonnage shall be determined by the average of the mine for the month of November, 1902, based on screened coal or its equivalent, but in no case shall a reduction from present wages be made. This rule only applies to individuals now receiving more than the above scale rate. This scale of wages applies only to mines in operation at least one year, and in all new mines the wages of the engineer shall be advanced with the increased tonnage until the maximum rate is reached. In no case shall the engineers, firemen or pumpers be interfered with or asked to cease work by any local committee or local union official during the life of this agreement.

RESOLUTION NO. 14.

Firemen and pumper's wages shall be advanced 12½ per cent over present prices, provided that the minimum rate be not less than 22½

cents per hour for firemen; and the minimum wage for inside pumpers shall be 28½ cents per hour; the wages and hours of the night watchmen shall be referred to the night watchmen themselves and the operators of the mines for settlement. Firemen and pumpers shall be permitted to work such hours as may be mutually agreed upon between them and the operator; all other company men shall be permitted to work 56 hours per week when necessary, but no company men, except those necessary to get men in and out of the mine, shall be compelled to work regularly more than 8 hours per day, except in cases of emergency, when mechanics, blacksmiths and other necessary men to make repairs may work longer.

RESOLUTION NO. 15.

The operators agree to check off all dues, initiation fees and assessments from the miners and mine laborers when desired. The U. M. W. of A., District No. 13, agree to protect operators where such checking is done, and it is further agreed that an individual or collective order be prepared by attorneys representing both operators and miners, but no compensation shall be charged for such deductions, provided that not more than \$3 be deducted in any one pay from any one person.

RESOLUTION NO. 16.

That this agreement is based upon cash payments after deducting organization dues, mine expenses, accepted orders, house rent and fuel. No discrimination shall be made against any employee refusing to deal in the company store or live in a company house.

RESOLUTION NO. 17.

Miners taken from the face shall be paid \$2.56 per day, and anyone refusing to do day work may have his turn stopped, provided he is qualified by experience to do such work, and provided further that no one shall be required to do such day work for 2 consecutive days, and such qualified men shall be called upon in their turn.

RESOLUTION NO. 18.

When a mine works part of the morning the miners may continue at work until noon; when a mine works part of the afternoon, the miners may continue work for the balance of the day. This provision shall not be abused by the operator.

RESOLUTION NO. 19.

(a) Any local union causing any mine to shut down in violation of this agreement, where the State law is not being violated, the members thereof shall be assessed 25 cents each, the same to be collected by the company on its pay roll and paid over to the secretary-treasurer of district No. 13. Any officer or any member of any committee of any local union, unless acting under instructions of his local union, who shall advise or encourage any employee to refuse or cease to work, where he has a right to work under this agreement, may be discharged;

provided that if such officer or member of committee is acting under instructions of the local union, then the assessment as above shall be made. This not to apply to officers or committeemen who advise a man to leave the employ of the company.

(b) Whenever at any mine one or more men regularly employed at day work refuse or fail to work, on account of any grievance, and such action causes the mine to shut down, each person so offending shall be fined \$2 for each day or part of a day the mine is thus thrown idle.

(c) It is agreed whenever any mine foreman or other representative of the company persists in violating the agreement, or in using abusive language to employees, without sufficient provocation, the local union shall have the right to prefer charges against said foreman or representative of the company to the joint State board of miners and operators, and if the charges are sustained, the operator agrees to remove such foreman or other representative of the company, or the joint board may mete out such other merited punishment as the exigencies of the case may demand.

RESOLUTION NO. 20.

There shall be no double shifting of rooms without the consent of the miner or miners affected.

RESOLUTION NO. 21.

(a) In all mines where coal is blasted from the solid, competent persons shall be employed by the company to examine all shots before they are charged. Said examiners shall have the power to prohibit the charging or firing of any shot which in their judgment is unsafe. Before entering upon the discharge of their duties, said examiners shall receive certificates of competency from the State mine inspector in the district in which the mine where they are employed is located. No boss or foreman employed by the company shall be permitted to act as shot examiner. The State mine inspector shall have the power to refuse to give a certificate to any person to act as shot examiner who in his judgment is not sufficiently competent, or he may revoke the certificate granted should it appear that a shot examiner is negligent or careless in the performance of his work.

(b) Whenever a majority of the miners in any mine so decide, they may employ shot firers for said mine, and whenever satisfactory arrangements can be made between the miners and the shot examiners for the same persons to act as shot examiners and shot firers, the same may be done.

(c) The operator shall decide as to the necessity of firing twice a day in mines that have been in operation less than one year, and a majority of the miners employed in any mine shall decide as to the necessity of firing twice a day in all mines that have been in operation more than a year; provided that in all mines where the majority of the miners decide to fire but once a day, they shall give the operator sufficient time to develop his mine so that the same working force, and output per miner per day, shall not be reduced; and provided, further, that if after changing from twice to once a day firing, the majority of the miners in any mine shall decide to return to twice a

day firing; or, if after trying once a day firing for a period of thirty days that the mine is in operation, it shall be proven that the output per miner per day is less than when shooting twice a day, on account of the miner not being able to produce the coal, the operator shall have the right to return to twice a day firing.

(d) The miner shall keep his working place and the operator the entries as free from dust as practicable, and the entries shall be sprinkled as often as necessary to keep them in a damp condition.

(e) Only sand, soil or clay shall be used for tamping, which shall be furnished at convenient places by the company, and the shot holes shall be tamped solidly from the powder to the mouth of the hole whether squibs or fuse are used to ignite the powder. Any shot having blown the tamping shall not be recharged and fired the second time.

(f) Anyone who interferes with the shot examiner or shot firer in the discharge of his duty shall be discharged.

RESOLUTION NO. 22.

The company shall keep the mine in as dry condition as practicable by keeping the water off the road and out of the working places. When a miner has to leave his working place on account of water, through the neglect of the company, they shall employ said miner at company work when practicable, and provided that said miner is competent to do such work, or he will be given another working place until such water is taken out of his place.

RESOLUTION NO. 23.

In all mines when men are going to and from their work at the regular starting and quitting time, the company shall employ men at the top and bottom of the shaft whose duty it shall be to attend to the signal bells.

RESOLUTION NO. 24.

The price of powder to remain the same as last year, and shall be delivered at the miner's working place, and to be of standard grade and quality.

RESOLUTION NO. 25.

There shall be no demands made locally which are in conflict with this agreement, by either side.

Signed on behalf of operators:

C. H. MORRIS, *President.*
L. L. LODWICK, *Secretary.*

Signed on behalf of miners:

EDWIN PERRY, *President.*
JOHN P. WHITE, *Secretary.*

RECENT REPORTS OF STATE BUREAUS OF LABOR STATISTICS.

MINNESOTA.

Eighth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor of the State of Minnesota. 1901-2. John O'Donnell, Commissioner. 658 pp.

In the present report the subjects treated are as follows: Factory inspection, 201 pages; classification of wages, 37 pages; male wage-earners' individual statements, 15 pages; domestic service problem, 25 pages; female wage-earners' individual statements, 18 pages; mine inspection, 36 pages; railroad switch yard inspection, 3 pages; child labor, 12 pages; flouring-mill industry, 5 pages; early-closing movement, 10 pages; special investigation in regard to working time, 4 pages; labor organizations, 33 pages; railroad labor organizations, 6 pages; railroad wages, 44 pages; strikes and lockouts, 40 pages; accident reports, 10 pages; manufacturing and mechanical industries, 34 pages.

CLASSIFICATION OF WAGES.—Under this title are presented classified wages of 43,577 wage-earners in manufacturing and mechanical industries and 10,668 in nonmanufacturing trades in the State, made up from returns furnished by employers of labor. The data cover only persons performing manual labor, excluding all foremen, supervisors, overseers, and persons in charge of work. As presented in the report, the wage-earners are classified into three groups, according to skill and workmanship, as follows: Skilled operatives, unskilled operatives, and minor labor and apprentices. The summary of the tables given in the report follows:

NUMBER OF WAGE-EARNERS AND PER CENT OF TOTAL, AT SPECIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, IN MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES AND IN NONMANUFACTURING TRADES, 1902.

Weekly earnings.	Total wage-earners.		Skilled operatives.				Unskilled operatives.				Minor labor and apprentices.			
			Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.	
	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.
MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES.														
Under \$5.....	2,718	6.24							228	0.52	1,394	3.20	1,096	2.52
\$5 or under \$6.....	1,353	3.10			161	0.37	14	0.03	540	1.24	568	1.30	70	.16
\$6 or under \$7.....	2,036	4.67	36	0.09	552	1.27	153	.35	598	1.37	676	1.55	21	.04
\$7 or under \$8.....	1,846	4.24	28	.06	398	.91	605	1.39	403	.93	412	.95		
\$8 or under \$9.....	1,636	3.75	69	.16	240	.55	504	1.16	168	.38	655	1.50		
\$9 or under \$10.....	3,642	8.36	59	.14	235	.53	3,115	7.15	16	.04	217	.50		
\$10 or under \$12.....	9,832	22.56	1,348	3.09	314	.72	8,161	18.73	1	8	.02		
\$12 or under \$15.....	10,336	23.72	5,962	13.68	156	.36	4,211	9.66			7	.02		
\$15 or under \$20.....	7,969	18.29	7,715	17.70	21	.05	233	.54						
\$20.....	2,209	5.07	2,202	5.05	6	.02	1						
\$20 or over.....														
Total.....	43,577	100.00	17,419	39.97	2,083	4.78	16,997	39.01	1,954	4.43	3,937	9.04	1,187	2.72

NUMBER OF WAGE-EARNERS AND PER CENT OF TOTAL, AT SPECIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, IN MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES, ETC.—Concluded.

Weekly earnings.	Total wage-earners.		Skilled operatives.				Unskilled operatives.				Minor labor and apprentices.			
			Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.		Males.		Females.	
	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.	Num-ber.	Per cent.
NONMANUFACTURING TRADES.														
Under \$5	885	7.83			50	.47			7	.07	322	3.02	456	4.27
\$5 or under \$6	765	7.17	38	.36	412	3.86	1	.01	60	.56	63	.59	191	1.79
\$6 or under \$7	911	8.54	134	1.25	652	6.11	7	.07	37	.35	81	.76		
\$7 or under \$8	772	7.24	91	.85	581	5.45	43	.40	39	.37	14	.13	4	.04
\$8 or under \$9	561	5.26	122	1.15	379	3.55	43	.40	10	.09	7	.07		
\$9 or under \$10	672	6.30	291	2.73	277	2.60	101	.95			3	.02		
\$10 or under \$12	1,511	14.16	758	7.10	463	4.34	290	2.72						
\$12 or under \$15	1,659	15.55	1,240	11.62	320	3.00	99	.98						
\$15 or under \$20	1,951	18.29	1,722	16.15	219	2.05	10	.09						
\$20 or over	1,031	9.66	957	8.97	74	.69								
Total	10,668	100.00	5,353	50.18	3,427	32.12	594	5.57	153	1.44	49	4.59	651	6.10

DOMESTIC-SERVICE PROBLEM.—This chapter consists of an address on “Domestic wage-earners,” by the Minnesota commissioner, and the views on the domestic-service problem of a large number of house-keepers and of domestic wage-earners, received in response to question blanks sent out by the bureau.

IRON-ORE MINING.—Under the report of the mine inspections are included some statistics relating to mine labor. The production of the mines of the State in 1900 was 9,465,355 tons, employing 6,929 men, an average production of 4.74 tons per man per day. The production during 1901 reached 10,790,593 tons.

The classification of labor in these mines is shown by the following table compiled from the reports of 6 mines:

CLASSIFICATION OF LABOR IN IRON-ORE MINING.

Class.	Per-sons.	Per cent of total em- ployees.	Class.	Per-sons.	Per cent of total em- ployees.
Management of mine	6	0.53	Skilled miners	475	41.67
Office and clerical force	13	1.14	Timbermen	75	6.58
Captains, foremen, and shift bosses	37	3.25	Trammers	141	12.37
Engineers	13	1.14	Underground laborers	116	10.17
Firemen	17	1.49	Surface laborers	95	8.33
Machinists and electricians	14	1.23	Other help not enumerated	64	5.61
Blacksmiths and helpers	15	1.32			
Carpenters	17	1.49	Total	1,140	100.00
Station men	42	3.68			

Wage reports from 8 mines, said to be representative of all mines in the Vermilion and Missabe ranges, show the lowest and highest rates of pay in various occupations in underground mines to be as follows:

LOWEST AND HIGHEST RATES OF PAY PER DAY IN IRON ORE MINES, 1901.

Occupations.	Daily rates of pay.	
	Lowest.	Highest.
Blacksmiths	\$2. 46	\$2. 50
Blacksmiths' helpers	1. 75	
Carpenters	2. 25	2. 75-3. 00
Carpenters' helpers	1. 90	
Diamond drill men	3. 41	
Engineers	2. 25	2. 67
Firemen	1. 90	2. 25
Firemen, mine	3. 21	
Mine laborers	1. 77	1. 90
Miners	2. 10	2. 11
Pipe men	1. 89	2. 00
Pump men	2. 25	2. 70
Shift bosses	2. 50	3. 00
Surface foremen	2. 70	
Swampers and teamsters	1. 76	2. 00
Timbermen	2. 11	2. 25
Trammers	2. 00	

CHILD LABOR.—This chapter consists of an address by the State commissioner of labor on child labor and the results of an inquiry by the bureau with regard to the employment of children in the industries of the State. The number of wage-earners and of children under 16 years of age employed in manufacturing and in nonmanufacturing industries in which children are employed is shown in the following table:

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF CHILDREN UNDER 16 YEARS OF AGE EMPLOYED AS WAGE-EARNERS IN ESTABLISHMENTS EMPLOYING CHILDREN.

	1901.				1902.			
	Total persons employed.	Children under 16 years employed.		Per cent of children employed.	Total persons employed.	Children under 16 years employed.		Per cent of children employed.
		Boys.	Girls.			Boys.	Girls.	
Manufacturing industries	46, 727	506	102	1. 30	67, 145	618	129	1. 11
Nonmanufacturing industries	11, 664	197	58	2. 19	14, 096	215	113	2. 33
Manufacturing and nonmanufacturing industries	58, 391	703	160	1. 48	81, 241	833	242	1. 32

Another tabular statement shows the industries classified according to the per cent of child labor in each:

INDUSTRIES CLASSIFIED BY PER CENT OF CHILD LABOR EMPLOYED.

Per cent of child labor employed.	Industries.	
	1901.	1902.
Under 1 per cent.....	23	27
1 or under 2 per cent.....	18	15
2 or under 3 per cent.....	6	8
3 or under 4 per cent.....	3	7
4 or under 5 per cent.....	4	2
5 or under 6 per cent.....	1	1
6 or under 7 per cent.....	1
7 or under 8 per cent.....	3	2
8 or under 10 per cent.....	1
10 or under 15 per cent.....	1	1
15 per cent or over.....	1
Total.....	60	65

WORKING TIME.—This chapter presents the result of an investigation into the subject of the number of hours worked in electric light, heat, and power plants, livery stables, and drug stores.

The returns from 123 electric plants covering 702 employees showed that 1.71 per cent of the employees work less than 10 hours per day; 30.48 per cent work 10 hours; 5.13 per cent work 11 hours; 61.68 per cent work 12 hours, and 1.00 per cent work from 13 to 15 hours. Those not working Sunday constitute 16.38 per cent, while 83.62 per cent have to work Sunday. Of those working Sunday, 5.96 per cent work less than 10 hours on that day, 23.34 per cent work 10 hours, 3.92 per cent 11 hours, 65.59 per cent 12 hours, and 1.19 per cent over 12 but not over 15 hours. It will be seen that the greatest number of persons, of both the week day and Sunday workers, are employed 12 hours per day.

Reports from livery, boarding, and sales stables embraced 78 establishments, with 385 employees. These reports showed 1.30 per cent of the employees working less than 10 hours per day, 26.23 per cent working 10 hours, 3.12 per cent 11 hours, 20.52 per cent 12 hours, 14.55 per cent 14 hours, 26.23 per cent 15 hours, 7.01 per cent 16 hours, and 1.04 per cent 18 hours.

Reports from drug stores were received from 165 stores with 289 employees. Of these employees 7.96 per cent worked less than 10 hours per week day, 13.49 per cent worked 10 hours, 10.03 per cent 11 hours, 24.57 per cent 12 hours, 6.57 per cent 13 hours, 13.15 per cent 14 hours, 16.96 per cent 15 hours, 5.19 per cent 16 hours, and 2.08 per cent 17 hours. Of these 289 employees 41 enjoy a free Sunday, 161 work every Sunday, and 87 every other Sunday. Forty-eight have one-half day and one evening off each week, 38 a whole day, 8 one evening, and 5 two afternoons and one evening; 52 have a vacation of from one to two weeks with full pay.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.—Statistics of labor organizations in the State for the years 1901 and 1902 are presented in this chapter. Tables show by localities names of organizations with date of organization and membership; hours of labor per day and week; average daily wages of male and female members, how paid, increase in wages since 1900, and decrease in hours of labor since organization; character and amount of benefit features of organizations. The State as a whole showed a large increase in membership of organizations. In 1902 reports were received from 297 organizations with a membership of 28,338, as compared with 172 organizations and 15,380 members in 1900. These figures do not include railway organizations and delegate bodies. Of these organizations 37, with 3,282 members, were founded in 1901, and 88, with 6,584 members, were founded in 1902.

For railway organizations a directory of the several lodges or divisions is given, showing name and location, and address of secretary. The membership in 1902 was, for Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, 790; Order of Railway Conductors, 825; Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen, 800, and Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen, 1,200.

RAILROAD WAGES.—The wages of railroad employees in the State, compiled from reports furnished by the railroads to the railroad and warehouse commission, are given in considerable detail, covering the years 1894, 1896, 1898, 1900, and 1902. The total number of locomotive engineers, locomotive firemen, conductors, trainmen, station men, machinists, carpenters, shopmen, trackmen, switchmen, flagmen and watchmen, and all other employees and laborers, are given for each railroad, together with the total days worked, total yearly wages and the average days worked, and yearly and daily wages.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.—Under this heading are given brief accounts of strikes and lockouts during 1901 and 1902, together with a summary of strikes and lockouts in the State from 1881 to 1900 taken from the sixteenth annual report of the United States Commissioner of Labor.

Copies of injunctions issued by courts in Minnesota relative to labor difficulties are also given, and sample articles of agreement of apprenticeship now in use.

MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES.—This subject is treated at considerable length, being a condensation of the statistics of manufacturing and mechanical industries in the State as given in Bulletin No. 137 of the Twelfth Census of the United States.

NORTH DAKOTA.

Seventh Biennial Report of the Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor for the term ending June 30, 1902. R. J. Turner, Commissioner. 70 pp.

This report, like those for preceding years, is devoted mainly to statistics of agriculture. The subjects treated are as follows: Statistics of agriculture, 41 pages; live stock, 5 pages; wool market, 1 page; vital statistics, 2 pages; farm labor statistics, 2 pages; coal mining statistics, 1 page; flouring mills, 1 page; dairy industry, 11 pages.

FARM LABOR STATISTICS.—A table shows for each county the number of male and female farm employees reported in 1900 and 1901, their average monthly wages, and the total wages paid. The lowest average monthly wages, including board and lodging, reported in any county in 1901 was \$15 for males and \$6 for females; the highest average was \$30 for males and \$24.69 for females. The average monthly wages of 17,819 male farm laborers was \$23.03, and the average monthly wages of 3,468 female farm laborers was \$13.58.

COAL MINES.—Returns for 33 coal mines in 1900 and 22 in 1901 show the employment in the former year of 403 persons receiving \$108,355 in wages and producing 135,850 tons of coal, at an average cost of 83½ cents per ton, and in the latter year of 116 persons receiving \$45,199 in wages and producing 88,977 tons of coal.

FLOURING MILLS.—A list is given of the names and locations, and, in most cases, of the daily capacity of 57 flouring mills in the State.

DAIRY INDUSTRY.—Reports from 4 cheese factories in the State show the receipt during the year ending October 31, 1902, of 703,025 pounds of milk, from which 73,133 pounds of cheese were made. There was paid out for milk \$5,325.95, or 75.8 cents per hundred pounds.

Reports of creameries show a total of 37 creameries and 5 skimming stations, not all, however, in operation during the entire year.

Statistics of dairy products of 1901 show 35,563 pounds of cheese and 5,794,538 pounds of butter made in families, and milk to the value of \$253,556 sold to cheese factories and creameries and to others to the value of \$40,356.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES IN MASSACHUSETTS: SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT.

The Annual Statistics of Manufactures, 1901. Sixteenth Report, xi, 223 pp. (Issued by the Bureau of Statistics of Labor, Horace G. Wadlin, Chief.)

This report consists of three parts, as follows: Part I, industrial chronology, 1901, 37 pages; Part II, statistics of manufactures, 1900, 1901, 86 pages; Part III, comparisons, 1895, 1900, 99 pages.

MANUFACTURES.—Statistics are presented for 4,696 identical establishments covering each of the years 1900 and 1901, and include the number of private firms, corporations, and industrial combinations; number of partners in firms, and stockholders in corporations, by sex, etc.; capital invested, cost of material, value of product, highest, lowest, and average number of persons employed, and aggregates by months; total wages paid during each year, and average yearly earnings; classified weekly wages in selected industries by sex and age, and days in operation during each year and proportion of business done. Eighty classified industries are represented.

The principal facts as to ownership appear in the following table:

FIRMS, CORPORATIONS, AND INDUSTRIAL COMBINATIONS, AND PARTNERS AND STOCKHOLDERS IN 4,696 IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS, 1900 AND 1901.

Year.	Firms.	Corporations.	Industrial combinations.	Number of establishments controlled by—			Partners.	Stockholders. (^a)	Average partners to a firm.	Average stockholder to a corporation. ^(a)
				Firms.	Corporations.	Combinations.				
1900	3,323	1,225	19	3,339	1,277	90	5,218	47,410	1.57	38.70
1901	3,262	1,272	20	3,280	1,326	90	5,091	49,038	1.56	38.55

^a Not including stockholders in industrial combinations.

The point of greatest interest shown in this table is the taking over of 59 establishments from control by firms to control by corporations and industrial combinations, 47 corporations and 1 industrial combination supplanting 61 firms in the arrangement. The average number of partners to a firm and of stockholders to a corporation is practically the same in each year.

The table following presents statistics separately for 9 principal industries, in aggregate for 71 other industries, and totals for the 80 industries reported on, for the years 1900 and 1901.

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1900 AND 1901.

Industries.	Estab-lish-ments.	Capital invested.			Stock used.		
		1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.	1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.
Boots and shoes	692	\$25,560,748	\$27,327,544	6.95	\$78,914,923	\$89,986,147	14.03
Carpetings	9	6,045,740	5,957,590	α 1.46	5,351,326	4,702,924	α 12.12
Cotton goods	157	128,351,346	126,845,729	α 1.17	65,573,721	69,529,298	6.05
Leather	100	7,798,458	8,705,176	11.63	16,982,441	18,992,763	11.84
Machines and machinery ..	356	38,389,950	40,707,639	6.04	18,163,148	17,820,367	α 1.89
Metals and metallic goods ..	368	22,858,783	23,798,479	4.09	21,976,723	24,785,236	12.78
Paper	75	19,826,756	20,012,943	α .94	12,573,366	13,605,791	8.21
Woolen goods	148	26,500,393	25,791,680	α 2.67	23,887,476	24,194,838	1.29
Worsted goods	38	15,588,639	15,831,665	1.56	19,947,194	24,763,567	24.15
Other industries	2,753	171,190,202	183,102,459	6.96	208,082,246	214,945,464	3.30
Total	4,696	462,101,015	478,075,904	3.46	471,452,564	503,326,395	6.76

Industries.	Estab-lish-ments.	Goods made and work done.			Wages paid.		
		1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.	1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.
Boots and shoes	692	\$125,471,177	\$142,275,334	13.39	\$26,502,961	\$30,096,415	13.56
Carpetings	9	5,398,602	5,211,483	α 2.23	1,631,974	1,802,452	7.16
Cotton goods	157	124,086,310	117,078,409	α 5.65	32,997,457	32,617,806	α 1.15
Leather	100	22,355,846	25,896,712	15.84	2,857,736	3,163,880	10.71
Machines and machinery ..	356	49,260,905	49,186,267	α .25	15,569,916	15,171,118	α 2.50
Metals and metallic goods ..	368	41,011,205	46,753,140	14.00	11,099,780	12,451,457	12.18
Paper	75	21,835,119	24,344,202	11.49	3,792,941	4,157,628	9.63
Woolen goods	148	40,865,404	42,594,922	4.23	3,563,043	3,894,618	3.37
Worsted goods	38	32,805,027	33,672,642	20.33	5,427,372	6,314,431	16.34
Other industries	2,753	359,450,763	373,808,765	3.99	62,022,336	65,131,910	5.09
Total	4,696	825,540,368	869,771,876	5.36	170,505,516	179,851,715	5.48

α Decrease.

In several of the items shown in this table there is apparent a falling off for the year 1901 as compared with the previous year, though the totals in each instance show a gain. The per cent of total increase is least in the item "Capital invested," being but 3.46 per cent greater than in 1900, while three of the nine specified industries show an actual decrease. Amount of stock used is less in two industries and value of product shows a decrease in three industries. In two industries there was a decrease in the amount of wages paid.

The table following presents data as to employees, earnings, and days in operation, the establishments considered being the same as in the table preceding:

AVERAGE NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, AVERAGE YEARLY EARNINGS, AND AVERAGE DAYS IN OPERATION IN 9 PRINCIPAL INDUSTRIES, OTHER INDUSTRIES, AND IN ALL INDUSTRIES, 1900 AND 1901.

Industries.	Average number of employees.			Average yearly earnings.			Average days in operation.		
	1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.	1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.	1900.	1901.	Per cent of in-crease.
Boots and shoes	56,942	62,329	9.46	\$465.44	\$482.36	3.74	234.99	290.49	1.93
Carpetings	4,330	4,573	5.61	388.45	394.15	1.47	302.52	300.43	α .69
Cotton goods	91,005	89,669	α 1.47	362.59	363.76	α .32	299.13	296.13	α .99
Leather	5,833	6,801	12.20	485.76	479.30	α 1.33	297.13	301.07	1.31
Machines and machinery ..	28,332	27,506	α 2.91	549.20	551.52	α .42	291.94	297.53	1.91
Metals and metallic goods ..	20,660	22,295	7.91	537.26	558.49	3.95	293.21	296.09	.98
Paper	8,973	9,363	4.57	422.71	443.10	4.82	274.15	287.46	4.86
Woolen goods	21,538	22,076	2.50	397.58	402.91	1.34	292.84	292.60	α .08
Worsted goods	14,294	16,136	13.31	379.70	389.88	2.68	275.33	290.83	5.63
Other industries	134,146	139,367	3.89	462.35	467.70	1.16	289.00	290.13	.39
All industries	386,103	399,997	3.60	441.61	449.63	1.82	290.88	292.78	.65

α Decrease.

This table shows that in each of the principal industries, except cotton goods and machines and machinery, there was an increase in the average number of employees in 1901, as compared with 1900. The largest increases were in leather and worsted goods, being 12.20 per cent in the former and 13.31 per cent in the latter. Comparing average yearly earnings in 1901 with those in 1900, increases appear in each of the principal industries except leather, in which a decrease of 1.33 per cent is seen. Under average days in operation, the averages for carpetings, cotton goods, and woolen goods show slight decreases in 1901 as compared with 1900. For all industries each average in 1901 shows an increase over that for 1900.

The following tables show the number and per cent of employees earning the indicated weekly wages. Employees are divided into three groups, namely, adult males, adult females, and young persons of both sexes under 21 years of age. The number of employees given is the number reported in each industry for the week showing the largest number of employees, and does not, therefore, agree with the number shown in the preceding table.

NUMBER OF MALE AND FEMALE ADULTS AND OF YOUNG PERSONS IN 80 INDUSTRIES, BY CLASSIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, 1900 AND 1901.

Weekly wages.	1900.				1901.			
	Adults.		Young persons (under 21).	Total.	Adults.		Young persons (under 21).	Total.
	Male.	Female.			Male.	Female.		
Under \$5.....	9,674	18,228	27,789	55,641	8,908	17,599	28,946	55,358
\$5 or under \$6.....	9,988	17,940	13,470	41,398	9,720	17,606	14,296	41,622
\$6 or under \$7.....	18,788	23,105	8,829	50,722	18,337	23,390	9,609	51,336
\$7 or under \$8.....	25,805	17,526	4,108	47,439	26,320	18,871	4,269	48,960
\$8 or under \$9.....	26,542	14,230	1,673	42,445	26,099	14,748	1,954	42,801
\$9 or under \$10.....	38,026	11,110	911	50,047	39,835	11,150	1,230	52,215
\$10 or under \$12.....	42,209	7,563	500	50,272	44,399	8,052	485	52,936
\$12 or under \$15.....	47,216	3,354	159	50,729	51,269	3,876	192	55,337
\$15 or under \$20.....	36,381	1,027	29	37,887	39,933	1,274	42	41,249
\$20 or over.....	11,486	158	4	11,648	12,735	152	6	12,893
Total.....	266,565	114,241	57,422	438,228	277,555	116,218	60,929	454,702

PER CENT OF MALE AND FEMALE ADULTS AND OF YOUNG PERSONS OF TOTAL NUMBER EMPLOYED IN 80 INDUSTRIES, BY CLASSIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, 1900 AND 1901.

Weekly wages.	1900.				1901.			
	Adults.		Young persons (under 21).	Total.	Adults.		Young persons (under 21).	Total.
	Male.	Female.			Male.	Female.		
Under \$5.....	3.63	15.96	48.31	12.70	3.21	15.14	47.34	12.17
\$5 or under \$6.....	3.75	15.70	23.46	9.45	3.50	15.15	23.46	9.16
\$6 or under \$7.....	7.05	20.22	15.37	11.57	6.61	20.13	15.77	11.29
\$7 or under \$8.....	9.68	15.34	7.15	10.82	9.48	15.81	7.01	10.77
\$8 or under \$9.....	9.96	12.46	2.91	9.69	9.40	12.69	3.21	9.41
\$9 or under \$10.....	14.26	9.72	1.59	11.42	14.35	9.59	2.02	11.48
\$10 or under \$12.....	15.83	6.62	.87	11.47	16.00	6.98	.80	11.64
\$12 or under \$15.....	17.71	2.94	.28	11.58	18.47	3.33	.31	12.17
\$15 or under \$20.....	13.82	.90	.05	8.64	14.39	1.10	.07	9.07
\$20 or over.....	4.31	.14	.01	2.66	4.59	.13	.01	2.84
Total.....	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00

From these two tables it appears that in the 80 industries considered there were 16,474 more wage-earners employed in 1901 than in 1900. Under each wage class there was an increase in the number employed except the first or lowest class, where there was a decrease. Of the total number of wage-earners employed 47.20 per cent in 1901 received \$9 or over per week, as compared with 45.77 per cent in 1900. In 1900 the young persons employed at wages under \$5 per week were 48.31 per cent of the total of young persons employed, while the number in 1901 employed at wages under \$5 per week was 47.34 per cent of the total. Of the total adult females 73.44 per cent in 1900 were employed at wages of \$5 or under \$10 per week, while in 1901 in this wage class 73.37 per cent were employed. In 1900 the adult males who received \$9 or over per week were 65.93 per cent of the total adult males, while in 1901 the percentage was 67.80.

In the tables previously presented value of goods made or work done has included not only the added value resulting from the processes of the industry considered, but the original cost of material as well. In order to show the actual result of the productive forces of the industry, the element of cost of material must be deducted from the total value of product; the remainder will show only the industry product, or the new values created. This has been done in the case of the nine leading industries, and the amount of industry product per \$1,000 of capital and per employee has been computed; also the division of industry product between the wage fund and the fund devoted to other expenses, as freight, insurance, interest, rent, commissions, salaries, etc., and to profit, these last items being grouped as "Profit and minor expenses." The results appear in the table following:

INDUSTRY PRODUCT, WAGES, AND PROFIT AND EXPENSES IN 9 SPECIFIED INDUSTRIES, 1901.

Industries.	Industry product.	Wages.	Profit and minor expenses.	Industry product.		Per cent of industry product—	
				Per \$1,000 of capital.	Average per employee.	Paid in wages.	Devoted to profit and minor expenses.
Boots and shoes	\$52,289,187	\$30,096,415	\$22,192,772	\$1,913.42	\$838.92	57.56	42.44
Carpetings	3,508,559	1,802,452	1,706,107	588.92	767.23	51.37	48.63
Cotton goods	47,549,111	32,617,806	14,981,305	374.86	580.27	68.60	31.40
Leather	6,908,949	3,163,880	3,740,069	798.09	1,045.89	45.83	54.17
Machines and machinery ..	31,315,900	15,171,118	16,144,782	769.29	1,138.48	48.45	51.55
Metals and metallic goods ..	21,967,904	12,451,457	9,516,447	923.27	985.33	56.68	43.32
Paper	10,738,411	4,157,628	6,580,783	586.57	1,144.45	38.72	61.28
Woolen goods	18,400,064	8,894,618	9,505,466	713.41	833.49	48.34	51.66
Worsted goods	14,909,075	6,314,481	8,594,644	941.78	920.54	42.35	57.65

Of the industries here shown it appears that the boot and shoe industry requires the least capitalization to secure a given value of product, and cotton goods the greatest. The product per employee is also least

in the cotton industry, paper standing first, with machines and machinery a close second. In four of the nine industries shown, more than one-half of the industry product was paid out in wages, the largest showing being in cotton goods, where 68.60 per cent went to that item.

In the following presentation manufacturing conditions in the State in 1895 are compared with those in 1900:

STATISTICS OF MANUFACTURES, 1895 AND 1900.

Items.	1895.	1900.	Per cent of increase.
Number of establishments	26,265	31,953	21.66
Number of proprietors, firm members, etc	30,370	34,790	14.55
Amount of capital invested	\$516,082,557	\$826,160,280	60.08
Value of stock and material used	\$461,251,353	\$552,919,846	19.87
Value of goods made and work done	\$849,807,302	\$1,035,958,355	21.90
Average number of wage-earners employed	432,272	498,208	15.25
Total amount paid in wages	\$192,970,059	\$228,289,763	18.30
Number of salaried persons employed	18,823	27,860	48.01
Total amount paid in salaries	\$23,812,542	\$31,257,630	31.26

RECENT FOREIGN STATISTICAL PUBLICATIONS.

FRANCE.

Seconde Enquête sur le Placement des Employés, des Ouvriers et des Domestiques. Office du Travail, Ministère du Commerce, de l'Industrie, des Postes et des Télégraphes. 1901. 186 pp.

This report of the French labor bureau contains the results of an investigation begun in 1898 respecting the operations of the various agencies through which working people may secure employment. A similar investigation was begun in 1891 and the results were published in 1893. This earlier report presents a historical outline which serves to show the methods of employing workmen in vogue under the ancient régime and the changes wrought during the Revolution and under subsequent Governments, together with laws, decrees, and regulations bearing on the subject; also, an exhaustive consideration of the present methods and of the various agencies through which working people may secure employment.

The present investigation was undertaken for the purpose of bringing to date the information contained in the earlier report and was conducted on practically the same lines. The classes of institutions investigated comprise: Authorized private employment agencies; free municipal bureaus; bureaus maintained by labor exchanges (*bourses du travail*), by employers' associations, by workmen's unions, by journeymen's societies (*compagnonnages*), and by mixed associations which draw their membership from both employers and working people; also mutual-aid societies, charitable institutions, etc. The main period covered in the investigation includes the years 1893 to 1897 for the authorized private agencies, and from 1894 to 1897 for the other institutions. A supplementary investigation for the years 1898 and 1899 was made of the municipal bureaus, labor exchanges, employers' associations, and labor unions. The information contained in the report is necessarily incomplete as regards some classes of institutions, for the free employment bureaus are not required by law to report their existence nor to keep exact records. As a consequence, the data furnished by such institutions are more often estimates than statements of actual operations.

The greater part of the report is devoted to a consideration of the authorized private agencies. The statistical matter relative to these

agencies is presented both in general tables for the State and in detail tables by departments.

A decree, dated March 25, 1852, leaves the authorization and regulation of private agencies to the municipalities in which they operate. The agencies are required by the municipal decrees authorizing their operation to keep accurate records of all transactions, hence the returns from them are more complete than from the other classes of institutions. In 1899 there were 1,455 authorized private agencies in France and Algeria. Of these, 1,399 returned answers for the 5-year period covered in the investigation. The returns are not reported for separate years, but the average annual results for the period are given. The 1,399 agencies reported an annual average of 1,698,019 applications for employment, 1,160,015 requests for help on the part of employers, and 598,447 permanent and 334,375 temporary situations secured.

The investigation of 1891-92 showed, for the 994 agencies reporting, an average annual number of 2,495,079 applications, 938,237 offers from employers, and 459,459 permanent, and 361,991 temporary situations secured. The proportion between the applications and offers for the two periods shows a marked variation, over 265 applications to each 100 offers having been reported for the earlier as against a proportion of 146 to 100 for the later period. The average number per agency of permanent situations secured was larger for the earlier period, it having been about 462 as compared with 427 for the later period.

The following table shows, by occupations, the average annual number of applications, offers, and positions secured through the authorized private agencies during the period 1893 to 1897:

AVERAGE ANNUAL RESULTS OF OPERATION OF THE AUTHORIZED PRIVATE AGENCIES IN FRANCE FOR THE PERIOD 1893 TO 1897.

Occupations subserved.	Agencies.		Average for years 1893 to 1897.			
	Number.	Number reporting.	Applica- tions.	Offers from employers.	Situations secured.	
					Permanent.	Temporary.
Agricultural employees.....	66	63	26, 730	23, 563	15, 019	801
Bakers.....	101	100	78, 770	64, 519	38, 858	44, 077
Barbers and hairdressers.....	42	37	24, 003	28, 053	17, 886	53, 516
Boot and shoe makers.....	1	1	6, 500	1, 842	1, 842
Butchers.....	13	13	49, 218	31, 820	21, 084	4, 660
Commercial clerks and office employees.....	5	5	5, 146	4, 058	1, 449	160
Domestic servants.....	965	929	999, 389	716, 344	349, 520	49, 205
Dyers.....	1	1	300	250	94
Flour mill hands.....	2	1	800	1, 000	800	25
Gardeners.....	1	1	13	14	12
Pastry makers, cooks, and con- fectioners.....	13	13	20, 300	16, 510	6, 134	24, 129
Provision house employees.....	3	3	25, 500	24, 600	11, 944	4, 170
Sailors.....	9	8	6, 272	5, 204	4, 858	110
Salesmen, groceries.....	6	6	29, 130	30, 456	16, 489	5, 613
Stock feeders, etc.....	2	2	8, 684	5, 183	2, 875
Tailors.....	1	1	88	88	88
Teachers and governesses.....	22	21	37, 203	22, 963	10, 523	1, 349
Waiters, hotel, restaurant, etc.....	47	46	279, 002	109, 760	58, 282	143, 306
All occupations.....	155	148	100, 471	73, 788	40, 740	3, 252
Total.....	1, 455	1, 399	1, 698, 019	1, 160, 015	598, 447	334, 375

The greater number of the agencies are intended for placing the unemployed in those occupations comprised in domestic and personal service. The operations of 965 agencies are limited to the placing of domestic servants alone. In 155 agencies positions are secured in all occupations, but more especially in domestic service, while 185 other agencies were operated more especially for placing employees in the food industries, leaving 150 agencies for other occupations.

Of these authorized private agencies 292, or about one-fifth, were located in the Department of the Seine, which includes the city of Paris. Reports from 284 of these show a total of 889,481 applications for work, 524,345 offers of employment, and 259,545 permanent and 233,058 temporary positions secured during the years 1893 to 1897, inclusive.

The fees that may be charged by authorized private agencies are in every case determined by the proper local authorities. Usually a small registration fee is charged, the amount of which may vary according to the sex or occupation of the applicant. In some instances this registration fee is deducted from the fee that must be paid when a position is secured. The amount of the registration fee in 932 of the agencies reporting may be summed up as follows: In 52 agencies it was less than 0.30 franc (5.79 cents); in 536 agencies it was from 0.30 to 0.50 franc (5.79 to 9.65 cents); and in 344 agencies it was over 0.50 franc (9.65 cents), the highest registration fee reported being 2 francs (38.6 cents). As for the other 523 agencies, 33 reported fees varying according to occupation, 191 made no report, and 299 have no registration fee. Of the latter 292 were in the Department of the Seine, where such fees have been abolished by order of the prefect.

The fees required when situations are secured are not as a rule collectible until after the applicant has been employed 8 to 15 days or longer. The fees are not uniform for all agencies, even in the same municipality. The rate is determined independently for each agency, and may also vary with the occupations in which positions are secured. In some agencies the fee is a definitely stated sum, while in others a percentage of the monthly or annual salary is required. Thus, 619 agencies reported a definite fee only, 682 reported that a percentage of salary only is charged, while 83 reported that fees are sometimes fixed and sometimes in proportion to salary, according to the occupation. Of the other 71 agencies, 63 made no report as to fees, and 8 reported that no direct fee is charged.

In 520 of the 619 agencies that reported a fixed charge, the fee ranged from 1 franc to 5 francs (19.3 to 96.5 cents). In 17 agencies the fee was above 5 francs (96.5 cents), while in the other 82 the fixed charge varied with the occupation. In 549 of the 682 agencies in which a percentage of salary was charged, the rate was based upon the annual salary. In 470 of these agencies the range was from 1 to 3 per cent, in 75 agencies it was from 3 to 5 per cent, in 2 others from

3 to 6 per cent, and in 2 it was 10 per cent. In 133 agencies the rate was based upon the monthly salary, usually that of the first month. In 71 of these agencies the rate ranged from 5 to 10 per cent. One agency reported 12 per cent, 23 reported 15 per cent, 22 reported 20 per cent, 5 reported 25 per cent, 1 reported 33 per cent, while 10 reported rates which varied according to the occupation. These are the fees charged for securing permanent situations. As a rule the situation is not considered permanent and the full fee can not be charged until the lapse of a certain period. The fee for securing temporary situations or for such situations as do not prove permanent is specified in the municipal regulations.

The investigation of free municipal bureaus covered the period from 1894 to 1899. These bureaus are supported by the communes and are usually in charge of a clerk in the mayor's office. Applicants have to pay no fee whatever. In some instances rewards are given to those who remain long in the positions secured through the bureau. Fifty-one municipal bureaus were in existence at some time during the period, of which number 18 were located in the Department of the Seine and 33 in other departments.

Domestic servants, clerks and office employees, etc., most frequently make use of the free municipal bureaus. The information as to the results of the operation of these bureaus is admittedly incomplete. Some bureaus outside the Department of the Seine recorded only the applications for situations and the requests for help from employers, while others which endeavored to keep an accurate record of the situations obtained were prevented from doing so because applicants did not report the results after having been sent to prospective employers. Many bureaus reported for only a portion of the period, while others made no report at all, no record having been kept or no business having been done. The information is separately reported for the Department of the Seine and for the remainder of France.

The first of the following tables shows the results of the operation of free municipal bureaus in France (outside the Department of the Seine). The second table shows the results for the Department of the Seine.

RESULTS OF OPERATION OF FREE MUNICIPAL BUREAUS IN FRANCE (OUTSIDE THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE) FOR THE PERIOD 1894 TO 1899.

[The figures for the years 1894 to 1897 show the average annual results.]

Year.	Applications.		Offers from employers.		Situations secured.			
	Bureaus reporting.	Number.	Bureaus reporting.	Number.	Permanent.		Temporary.	
					Bureaus reporting.	Number.	Bureaus reporting.	Number.
1894-1897	27	21,606	26	11,972	22	8,963	2	97
1898	17	9,851	17	5,818	13	3,500	3	96
1899 (a).....	18	8,204	18	5,621	13	3,521	3	86

a Not including one bureau, open only six months, which reported 2,201 applications, 220 offers, and 174 permanent situations secured.

RESULTS OF OPERATION OF FREE MUNICIPAL BUREAUS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE, DURING THE PERIOD 1894 TO 1899.

Year.	Bureaus.	Applica- tions.	Offers from employers.	Situations secured.	
				Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.
1894.....	12	43,722	23,264	20,245
1895.....	15	56,423	39,433	27,356
1896.....	17	57,134	43,067	30,570	3,823
1897.....	18	92,080	66,552	38,472	16,788
1898.....	18	78,386	70,396	43,844	16,598
1899.....	18	86,810	85,090	50,060	21,070

The information is in some respects so incomplete that it is useless to attempt a comparison of the results of operations of the free municipal bureaus for the periods covered by the two reports. The figures for the Department of the Seine furnish a fairly reliable index as to the increasing value of the services performed by this class of institutions. The table for that department shows that while the maximum of applications was reached in 1897, there has been a steady annual increase in the number of offers from employers, and of the total situations secured.

The following table shows, by sex and occupations, the number of permanent and temporary situations secured through free municipal bureaus in the Department of the Seine during the years 1896 to 1899. Seventeen bureaus were in operation in 1896, and 18 in each of the following years.

SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH FREE MUNICIPAL BUREAUS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF THE SEINE, BY SEX AND OCCUPATIONS, 1896 TO 1899.

Sex and occupations.	Permanent situations secured in—				Temporary situations secured in—			
	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1896.	1897.	1898.	1899.
MALES.								
Agents and brokers.....	378	544	672	563	72	110	151	49
Apprentices.....	1,459	1,324	1,697	2,730	720	3,749	3,057	2,393
Clerks and bookkeepers.....	850	953	952	931	67	20	14	36
Coachmen.....	76	116	182	214	3	6	1
Domestics.....	115	124	114	89	2	7	16	1
Doorkeepers, janitors, etc.....	212	218	241	273	2
Errand boys.....	2,134	3,275	2,532	2,625	67	149	463	668
Footmen, etc.....	68	83	45	34	1
Grooms.....	72	144	187	297	1	7	3
Laborers.....	833	922	1,155	1,406	112	166	173	259
Waiters, café.....	379	451	556	517	2	16	19	13
Warehouse hands.....	679	652	398	1,164	11	32	40	80
FEMALES.								
Artificial flower makers.....	433	514	624	761	88	2,585	2,947	3,316
Cashiers.....	55	110	37	116	9	27
Charwomen.....	2,490	3,451	3,919	4,646	121	209	135	146
Cooks.....	516	793	866	1,180	11	109	76	86
Domestic servants.....	8,189	11,533	12,409	13,533	80	172	216	214
Errand girls.....	343	445	952	891	98	60	36	24
Laundresses.....	358	500	817	1,132	189	1,273	1,010	1,519
Milliners.....	166	219	406	576	109	1,080	920	885
Nurses.....	6	11	6	13
Seamstresses (dressmakers, etc.).....	2,387	2,921	3,138	3,760	1,014	3,604	2,780	4,184
Sewing-machine operators.....	782	765	1,019	1,440	81	698	590	747
Warehouse girls.....	340	435	586	809	37	78	29	7
All other (males and females).....	7,255	7,969	9,334	10,360	1,266	12,384	3,319	6,412
Total.....	30,570	38,472	43,844	50,060	3,823	16,788	16,598	21,070

α The figures in this column do not produce this total; they are given, however, as found in the report.

A certain number of organizations existing under the law of March 21, 1884, that is to say, labor exchanges, local unions of employers or employees, mixed unions composed of employers and employees, etc., maintain free employment bureaus among their other institutions. These bureaus furnish a most important medium for the placing of working people in industrial and commercial occupations. Their importance may be estimated when it is known that in 1899 there were 137 free bureaus maintained by employers' organizations, 653 by workmen's organizations, and 27 by mixed unions of employers and employees. As a general rule very few of these organizations reported the transactions of their employment bureaus. Being operated free of charge to applicants they are not required by law to keep accurate records as are the authorized private agencies.

Partial reports covering all or a portion of the period from 1894 to 1899 were received from 56 labor exchanges, nearly all of which receive subsidies from the municipality or the department for services rendered.

The following table presents a summary of the operations, in as far as they were reported, of the labor exchanges which maintained employment bureaus during all or a part of the period:

APPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT, OFFERS FROM EMPLOYERS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH LABOR EXCHANGES, 1894 TO 1899.

Year.	Applications.		Offers from employers.		Situations secured.		
	Exchanges reporting.	Number.	Exchanges reporting.	Number.	Exchanges reporting.	Number.	
						Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.
1894.....	25	38, 141	25	17, 190	24	15, 081	5, 335
1895.....	28	58, 108	28	27, 247	28	24, 518	6, 044
1896.....	37	68, 220	36	32, 611	37	33, 553	7, 450
1897 (a).....	29	60, 239	28	31, 273	31	35, 180	28, 822
1898.....	41	83, 648	39	45, 461	41	47, 237	38, 159
1899.....	43	75, 575	41	41, 482	43	55, 096	48, 618

^a Beginning with 1897 the figures include the operations of the individual unions composing the Labor Exchange of Paris, that organization having no special employment bureau.

In 1891 the average number of permanent situations secured for each exchange reporting was about 700. This average had risen to nearly 1,300 for the 43 exchanges that reported in 1899.

Partial returns were received from 52 employers' associations for the period from 1894 to 1897, and from 19 employers' associations for each of the years 1898 and 1899. During the main period covered from 1894 to 1897 the 52 employers' associations reporting received an average annual number of 27,593 applications for employment and 21,725 offers from employers, and 18,486 permanent and 2,021 temporary situations were secured. During the earlier period, 1891-1892, the same number of associations reported an annual number of 22,594 applications, 20,851 offers from employers, and 18,396 permanent, and 430 temporary situations secured.

The operations of the bureaus of employers' associations which reported are shown, by occupations, in the following table:

APPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT, OFFERS FROM EMPLOYERS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH EMPLOYERS' ASSOCIATIONS, 1894 TO 1899.

[The figures for 1894 to 1897 show the average annual results for that period.]

Occupations.	Year.	Associa- tions re- porting.	Applica- tions.	Offers from em- ployers.	Situations secured.	
					Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.
Bakers	1894-1897	9	2,142	1,571	1,197	1,142
	1898	1	1,014	597	380
	1899	1	1,020	690	479
Barbers and hairdressers	1894-1897	4	338	304	284	125
	1898	1	81	81	31	6
	1899	1	84	84	34	34
Blacksmiths and wheelwrights	1894-1897	1	81	8	8	73
Boot and shoe makers	1894-1897	1	500	500	450
Building trades employees	1894-1897	3	282	268	261
	1898	1	15	12	8
	1899	1	28	18	14
Butchers, etc.	1894-1897	3	6,328	6,175	6,143
	1898	1	294	134	97
	1899	1	282	93	70
Commercial clerks and office employees	1894-1897	4	729	622	400
	1898	2	533	664	465
	1899	2	554	808	484
Dyers	1894-1897	1	250	150	100
	1898	1	50	50	50
	1899	1	64	64	64
Flour mill hands	1894-1897	2	343	185	174
	1898	1	213	108	108
	1899	1	209	121	115
Gardeners and florists	1894-1897	2	153	110	65	25
	1898	1	75	69	30	35
	1899	1	80	75	34	40
Metal workers	1894-1897	3	477	400	410
	1898	2	448	384	384
	1899	2	434	394	394
Paper and paper goods workers	1894-1897	2	809	436	240
	1898	2	1,072	622	302
	1899	2	1,104	953	512
Salesmen, groceries	1894-1897	4	6,437	5,511	4,331	5
	1898	3	7,327	7,897	6,088	5
	1899	2	7,479	9,336	6,550	5
Tailors	1894-1897	3	333	221	221	10
Waiters, hotel and restaurant	1894-1897	3	3,456	3,133	2,678	563
	1898	2	1,930	1,924	1,850	180
	1899	2	2,369	2,442	2,291	269
Other occupations	1894-1897	7	4,765	2,070	1,524	78
	1898	1	4,971	1,856	1,631
	1899	1	4,393	2,483	1,604
Total	1894-1897	52	27,593	21,725	18,486	2,021
	1898	19	17,913	14,348	11,372	206
	1899	19	18,000	17,511	12,645	348

A large number of workingmen's unions, it has been shown, have become interested in the question of securing employment for their members. During the investigation schedules of inquiry were addressed to 380 unions known to have employment bureaus in 1897, but it was not possible to secure full information respecting the operations of many bureaus. Many of the bureaus keep no records of situations secured. Again the figures were sometimes reported for the union and also included in the returns for the labor exchange, of which the union is a member, the result being that a partial duplication of the figures for these two classes of organizations exists. It was not found possible to establish a satisfactory basis for a comparison of the results for the two periods 1891-1892 and 1894-1897.

The situations secured through 129 unions are shown, by occupations, in the following table. The figures represent the average annual results for the period 1894 to 1897.

AVERAGE ANNUAL NUMBER OF SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH 129 WORKINGMEN'S UNIONS, 1894 TO 1897.

Occupation or industry.	Department of the Seine.			Other departments.		
	Unions reporting.	Situations secured.		Unions reporting.	Situations secured.	
		Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.		Perma- nent.	Tempo- rary.
Bakers	2	759	54	7	1,123	147
Barbers and hairdressers	1	670	6,356	3	442	433
Blacksmiths and wheelwrights	1	134
Book printing and publishing	5	1,320	3	89
Building trades employees	5	2,077	1	620	106
Butchers	1	1,672
Caoutchouc and paper goods workers	3	523
Commercial clerks and office employees	7	1,425	1,487	8	353
Domestic servants, etc.	3	2,498	1	251
Dyers	1	283
Florists (laborers)	1	15	33
Hide and leather workers	7	1,091	1	42
Metal workers	14	1,144	3	212
Pastry and other cooks	4	1,678	6	1,239	2,311
Tailors	4	655	1	145
Textile workers	4	319	5	179
Transportation and handling	2	74
Waiters, café	8	7,999	380	10	6,202	2,580
Woodworkers	5	475	7	2	215
Total	75	24,722	8,284	54	11,151	5,609

Continuing the investigation through the years 1898 and 1899, it was found that for the first of these years a monthly average of 3,161 permanent situations was secured in 270 unions, and for the second year the monthly average for 353 unions was 4,505.

Responses were received from 10 of the 24 mixed associations addressed. For the period from 1894 to 1897 these 10 associations reported an annual average of 4,376 applications, 4,235 offers from employers, and 4,232 permanent situations secured. For the period 1891-1892 13 mixed associations reported an annual number of 1,896 permanent and 1,396 temporary situations secured.

Inquiries were addressed to 21 journeymen's societies (*compagnonnages*), to 1,481 mutual aid societies, and to 450 charitable institutions. The applications, offers from employers, and situations secured through 15 journeymen's societies, 126 mutual aid societies, and 189 charitable institutions were reported and are shown in the following table. For purposes of comparison the number of permanent situations secured in 1891-1892 are shown for those institutions reporting at that time.

APPLICATIONS FOR EMPLOYMENT, OFFERS FROM EMPLOYERS, AND SITUATIONS SECURED THROUGH JOURNEYMEN'S SOCIETIES, MUTUAL AID SOCIETIES, AND CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS, 1894 TO 1897.

Classes of institutions.	Number reporting.	Average for period 1894 to 1897.				1891-1892.	
		Applications.	Offers from employers.	Situations secured.		Number of institutions reporting.	Permanent situations secured.
				Permanent.	Temporary.		
Journeyman's societies.....	15	8,209	8,835	5,339	2,198	15	6,188
Mutual aid societies.....	126	36,049	35,276	26,464	19,721	48	26,227
Charitable institutions and other societies.....	189	68,785	67,609	49,482	5,650	52	17,794

Following an ancient custom many workmen in certain classes of occupations and industries still resort to *places de grève*, or hiring places, where the hiring is effected by direct contact of employers and workmen. These places are designated localities—public places, street corners, dance halls, drinking places, etc., where the workman in search of employment stands during certain hours of the day. The prefects of the departments reported the existence of 56 of these hiring places for industrial employees and 21 for agricultural workers.

Annuaire des Syndicats Professionnels, Industriels, Commerciaux et Agricoles constitués conformément à la loi du 21 mars 1884, en France et aux Colonies. Direction du Travail, Ministère du Commerce, de l'Industrie, des Postes et des Télégraphes. 1902. lviii, 728 pp.

This is the thirteenth annual report on trade, industrial, commercial, agricultural, and certain professional associations or unions organized in France and her colonies in conformity with the provisions of the law of March 21, 1884.^a The report considers local organizations or unions (*syndicats*), federations of local organizations (*unions des syndicats*), and labor exchanges (*bourses du travail*). Local organizations are classified as employers' associations, employees' unions, mixed unions or those composed of both employers and employees, and agricultural associations. This last class comprises only those agricultural associations which are composed of both employers and employees, thus forming a special type of mixed organization. Those organizations of an agricultural character, composed entirely of employers, that is, persons conducting their own business, are classed with employers' associations, while those whose membership is recruited entirely from the employees are placed with other employees' organizations. Federations are similarly classified. A directory of these associations, federations, etc., by departments, takes up the main portion of the report. It contains, in addition, a number of short summary tables; a reproduction of the law of March 21, 1884, and

^a For the provisions of this law see Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 25, p. 838.

subsequent laws, orders, ministerial circulars and instructions relating to organizations; judgments and decisions of courts during the year in questions arising in connection with organizations; a list of the publications of the organizations, and lists of the unions, federations, etc., classified under the general trades or industries.

The following table shows the number of the individual or local organizations on July 1 of each year from 1884 to 1896, and on December 31 from 1897 to 1901:

INDUSTRIAL, COMMERCIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL ASSOCIATIONS IN EXISTENCE ON JULY 1 OF EACH YEAR FROM 1884 TO 1896 AND ON DECEMBER 31 FROM 1897 TO 1901.

[Under "Industrial, commercial, etc., associations" are included professional associations and certain agricultural associations, as explained in the text.]

Date.	Industrial, commercial, etc., associations.			Agricultural associations.	Total.	Increase since preceding year.
	Employers'.	Employees'.	Mixed.			
July 1, 1884.....	101	68	1	5	175
July 1, 1885.....	285	221	4	39	549	374
July 1, 1886.....	359	280	8	93	740	191
July 1, 1887.....	598	501	45	214	1,358	618
July 1, 1888.....	859	725	78	461	2,123	765
July 1, 1889.....	877	821	69	557	2,324	201
July 1, 1890.....	1,004	1,006	97	648	2,755	431
July 1, 1891.....	1,127	1,250	126	750	3,253	498
July 1, 1892.....	1,212	1,589	147	863	3,811	558
July 1, 1893.....	1,397	1,926	173	952	4,448	637
July 1, 1894.....	1,518	2,178	177	1,092	4,965	517
July 1, 1895.....	1,622	2,163	173	1,188	5,146	181
July 1, 1896.....	1,731	2,243	170	1,275	5,419	273
December 31, 1897.....	1,894	2,324	184	1,499	5,901	482
December 31, 1898.....	1,965	2,361	175	1,524	6,325	424
December 31, 1899.....	2,157	2,685	170	2,069	7,081	756
December 31, 1900.....	2,382	3,287	162	2,204	8,035	954
December 31, 1901.....	2,609	3,680	155	2,375	8,819	784

The membership of these organizations on July 1 of each year from 1890 to 1896 and on December 1 from 1897 to 1901 is shown in the following table:

MEMBERSHIP OF INDUSTRIAL, COMMERCIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL ASSOCIATIONS ON JULY 1 OF EACH YEAR FROM 1890 TO 1896 AND ON DECEMBER 31 FROM 1897 TO 1901.

Date.	Membership of associations.					Increase since preceding year.
	Employers'.	Employees'.	Mixed.	Agricultural.	Total.	
July 1, 1890.....	93,411	139,692	14,096	234,234	481,433
July 1, 1891.....	106,157	205,152	15,773	269,298	596,380	114,947
July 1, 1892.....	102,549	288,770	18,561	313,800	723,680	127,300
July 1, 1893.....	114,176	402,125	30,052	353,883	900,236	176,556
July 1, 1894.....	121,914	408,440	29,124	378,750	933,228	32,992
July 1, 1895.....	131,031	419,781	31,126	403,261	985,199	51,971
July 1, 1896.....	141,877	422,777	30,333	423,492	1,018,479	33,280
December 31, 1897.....	189,514	437,793	34,963	448,395	1,110,665	92,186
December 31, 1898.....	151,624	419,761	34,286	491,692	1,097,313	a 13,352
December 31, 1899.....	158,300	491,647	28,519	512,794	1,191,260	93,947
December 31, 1900.....	170,030	588,832	29,044	533,454	1,321,360	130,100
December 31, 1901.....	185,199	614,204	34,446	592,613	1,426,462	105,102

a Decrease.

By virtue of an act of July 4, 1900, those agricultural mutual insurance societies which are directed gratuitously and which are not operated for profit are relieved from compliance with the provisions of the law governing insurance societies and placed under the law of March 21, 1884, respecting trade, etc., unions. In 1901 there were 906 such societies, with a membership of 60,217. These figures have not been included in those for agricultural associations in the tables above.

There were 59,838 female members of organizations on January 1, 1902. Of this number 3,977 were members of employers' associations, 42,874 of employees' organizations, 7,574 of mixed organizations, and 5,413 were members of agricultural associations. Females to the number of 1,626 were also members of agricultural mutual insurance societies.

The following table shows, by groups of industries, the number and membership of employers' and employees' associations in 1901, and what per cent the number of members in each group is of the total number engaged in the group, according to the census of 1896:

NUMBER AND MEMBERSHIP OF ORGANIZATIONS IN 1901, BY GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES, AND PER CENT OF MEMBERSHIP OF TOTAL NUMBER ENGAGED ACCORDING TO THE CENSUS OF 1896.

Industries.	Employers' organizations.			Employees' organizations.		
	Num-ber.	Member-ship.	Per cent of member-ship of total employers.	Num-ber.	Member-ship.	Per cent of member-ship of total employees.
Agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and stock raising (a).....	114	12,483	0.44	149	15,515	0.46
Mining.....	2	78	21.45	62	80,098	51.43
Quarrying.....	7	151	2.64	29	3,311	5.95
Food products (manufacture and sale).....	883	79,874	18.07	226	26,355	4.38
Chemical products.....	39	2,884	28.65	96	24,010	22.65
Printing and publishing.....	64	3,527	41.41	242	19,146	15.88
Hides and leather.....	69	3,433	7.85	212	21,663	12.87
Textiles proper.....	89	4,662	8.87	317	57,174	8.96
Clothing, cleaning, etc.....	81	5,167	3.38	206	17,121	3.92
Woodworking.....	74	2,468	3.48	275	20,643	9.18
Metal working.....	155	7,517	10.21	482	75,964	15.47
Stone and earthen ware.....	35	1,634	13.87	107	12,212	3.45
Building trades.....	231	15,441	11.40	710	119,683	23.00
Commerce, transportation, and handling.....	361	21,950	15.58	468	106,872	6.77
Domestic and personal service.....	47	1,960	13.91	33	9,075	1.13
Professional (medicine, pharmacy, etc.).....	358	21,990	61.03	66	5,362	3.25
Total.....	2,609	185,199	3,680	614,204

a Including only those agricultural organizations which are composed entirely of employers or of employees.

The number of federations, of associations federated, and the total membership of federations on December 31 of each year, 1897 to 1901, are shown in the following table:

FEDERATIONS OF INDUSTRIAL, COMMERCIAL, AND AGRICULTURAL ASSOCIATIONS IN EXISTENCE ON DECEMBER 31, 1897 TO 1901.

Items.	Industrial, commercial, etc., organizations.			Agricultural organizations.	Total.	Increase since preceding year.
	Em- ployers'.	Em- ployees'.	Mixed.			
Federations:						
1897	46	94	9	30	179
1898	49	76	11	34	170	α 9
1899	54	73	11	35	173	3
1900	60	95	9	38	202	29
1901	72	121	9	36	238	36
Associations federated:						
1897	791	1,302	37	1,184	3,314
1898	915	1,132	49	1,192	3,238	α 26
1899	927	1,199	49	1,326	3,501	213
1900	1,060	1,533	43	1,481	4,117	616
1901	1,294	2,025	50	1,720	5,089	972
Membership of federations:						
1897	37,095	327,638	3,150	700,557	1,118,440
1898	96,585	312,185	4,343	466,529	879,642	α 238,798
1899	105,557	432,950	3,381	487,145	1,028,983	149,341
1900	137,562	533,575	1,829	529,541	1,202,507	173,524
1901	133,793	674,145	1,841	539,566	1,349,345	146,838

α Decrease.

Eighty-six labor exchanges (*bourses du travail*), with 2,054 participating organizations and 446,368 members, were reported for 1901. Nearly all these exchanges received subsidies from municipalities and many of them were assisted by departments during the year. The assistance received from municipalities amounted to 396,045 francs (\$76,436.69) and that from departments to 33,950 francs (\$6,552.35). In addition to the annual subsidies granted by them, municipalities have assisted to the amount of 3,164,011.28 francs (\$610,654.18) in the cost of installation of these exchanges. Employment was secured through the medium of the exchanges for 34,159 persons during the year 1901.

The various organizations considered in the report maintain 1,104 employment offices or bureaus, 1,014 technical libraries, 602 funds for the relief of unemployed members, 457 trade schools, trade courses, and lecture courses, 302 publications, and a large number of mutual relief funds, other funds for different purposes, accident insurance societies, competitions and expositions, etc.

Statistique des Grèves et des Recours à la Conciliation et à l'Arbitrage Survenus Pendant l'Année 1901. Direction du Travail, Ministère du Commerce, de l'Industrie, des Postes et des Télégraphes. xvi, 400 pp.

This is the eleventh of a series of annual reports on strikes and conciliation and arbitration issued by the French labor bureau. The information is presented in the same form as that contained in previous reports.

STRIKES.—During the year 1901 there were 523 strikes, which involved 111,414 strikers and caused 10,147 other employees to be thrown out of employment. Of the strikers 100,096 were men, 10,209 were women, and 1,109 were children. The 523 strikes affected 6,970 establishments and caused an aggregate time loss of 1,862,050 working days, of which number 1,687,895 days were lost by strikers and 174,155 were lost by other employees thrown out of employment on account of strikes. The average number of days lost per striker was 15. No lockouts were reported for the year. During the preceding year there were 902 strikes, in which 222,714 strikers were involved and which caused 26,757 other employees to be thrown out of employment. The aggregate time loss for that year amounted to 3,760,577 working days.

Of the 523 strikes during 1901, 375 involved but 1 establishment each, 59 involved from 2 to 5 establishments, 23 from 6 to 10 establishments, 36 from 11 to 25 establishments, 13 from 26 to 50 establishments, and 13 from 51 to 100 establishments. Of the 4 remaining strikes, 1 involved 152 establishments, 2 involved 200 establishments each, and 1 involved over 3,900 establishments. The latter was a general strike which was begun by the dock laborers of Marseille. It extended throughout the various industries and trades of the city and involved 22,680 strikers. In regard to the number of strikers this was by far the largest strike of the year, but in regard to time loss the most important strike was that which occurred in the mining industry at Montceau, Department of Saône-et-Loire. This strike involved 8,566 strikers, lasted 105 days, and caused a time loss of 695,535 days. The 2 strikes just mentioned and 6 others, viz, 1 of miners in the Departments of the Nord and Pas-de-Calais, 1 of porcelain workers at Vierzon, 2 of masons at Grenoble and Toulouse, 1 of slate quarrymen at Rimogne, and 1 of molders at Montluçon furnished over four-elevenths of the total strikers and caused a time loss of 1,218,009 days, or about two-thirds of the total days lost on account of strikes during the year.

In 363 strikes, all or a part of the striking employees were organized. The employers were organized in 146 strikes. Fourteen workingmen's unions and 2 employers' associations were organized during the progress of strikes or immediately following them. In 29 strikes regular aid was given by labor organizations to their striking members.

As regards results, 114 strikes, involving 9,364 strikers, were successful; 195 strikes, involving 44,386 strikers, were partly successful, and 214 strikes, involving 57,664 strikers, resulted in failure.

The two tables following show by groups of industries the number of strikes, strikers, and establishments involved, according to the results of strikes; also the days of work lost by all employees, and

the number of strikers per 1,000 working people in each group of industries:

STRIKES AND ESTABLISHMENTS INVOLVED, BY GROUPS OF INDUSTRIES, 1901.

Industries	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Total.	
	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.
Agriculture, forestry, and fish-eries	1	14	3	41	3	14	7	69
Mining	3	3	8	9	9	13	29	25
Quarrying	2	13	3	5	6	11	11	29
Food products	4	12	10	444	7	104	21	560
Chemical industries	1	1	9	12	7	7	17	20
Paper and printing	3	5	5	10	4	4	12	19
Hides and leather	10	10	13	35	12	94	40	139
Textiles proper	14	14	31	59	55	124	100	197
Clothing, cleaning, etc.	4	23	4	4	5	132	13	159
Woodworking	14	65	11	97	14	53	39	215
Building (woodwork)	5	15	4	67	4	7	13	89
Metal refining	4	4	2	2	2	2	8	8
Metal working	11	210	22	199	26	88	59	497
Precious metal work					1	1	1	1
Stone, earthenware, glass, etc.	4	25	8	34	10	44	22	103
Building (stone, tile, excavat-ing, roofing, etc., work)	19	89	27	464	27	173	73	726
Transportation and handling	15	80	30	168	22	3,866	67	4,114
Total	114	583	195	1,650	214	4,737	523	6,970

STRIKERS AND DAYS OF WORK LOST BY ALL EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK BY STRIKES IN 1901, BY INDUSTRIES.

Industries.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.	Strikers per 1,000 working people in each industry. (a)	Days of work lost by all employes thrown out of work.
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.			
Agriculture, forestry, and fisheries	350	620	432	1,402	0.42	14,275
Mining	260	11,570	7,624	19,454	125.04	760,488
Quarrying	318	1,035	1,330	2,683	43.26	65,200
Food products	65	1,886	268	1,719	2.86	10,105
Chemical industries	410	2,525	1,205	4,140	39.02	11,657
Paper and printing	109	648	230	987	8.17	19,185
Hides and leather	592	1,790	1,828	4,210	24.91	60,660
Textiles proper	680	4,776	6,905	12,361	19.39	103,553
Clothing, cleaning, etc.	433	122	1,198	1,753	4.02	47,512
Woodworking	580	1,824	1,057	3,461	15.39	35,545
Building (woodwork)	245	128	149	522	(b)	5,273
Metal refining	319	77	67	463	8.81	3,670
Metal working	1,323	2,347	3,643	7,313	17.36	126,705
Precious metal work			5	5	.24	25
Stone, earthenware, glass, etc.	190	2,017	4,047	6,254	42.96	140,624
Building (stone, tile, excavating, roofing, etc., work)	1,143	4,844	2,064	8,051	c 16.46	137,944
Transportation and handling	2,341	8,683	25,612	36,636	58.63	319,629
Total	d 9,364	d44,386	57,664	111,414	e 25.96	1,862,050

a Based on the census of 1896.

b Included in building (stone, tile, excavating, roofing, etc., work).

c Including building (woodwork).

d This total and the sum of the items do not agree; the figures are given, however, as found in the report.

e Based on the total number of industrial working people in France.

Of these industries the textiles furnished 100 strikes and 12,361 strikers; the building trades, 86 strikes and 8,573 strikers; transportation and handling, 67 strikes and 36,636 strikers; metals and metallic goods (all metal groups), 68 strikes and 7,781 strikers; and mining, 20 strikes and 19,454 strikers, making 341 strikes and 84,803 strikers,

or 65 per cent of the total strikes and 76 per cent of the total strikers for these five groups of industries. As in the previous year, the largest relative number of strikers was furnished by the mining industry, 125.04 out of every 1,000 employees in that industry having been engaged in strikes during the year.

The strike data are shown by causes in the two tables following:

STRIKES, BY CAUSES, 1901.

[A considerable number of strikes was due to two or more causes, and the facts in such cases have been tabulated under each cause; hence the totals for this table necessarily do not agree with those for the preceding tables.]

Cause or object.	Succeeded.		Succeeded partly.		Failed.		Total.	
	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.	Strikes.	Estab-lish-ments.
For increase of wages.....	60	446	105	1,140	109	4,811	274	6,397
Against reduction of wages....	21	37	18	35	18	18	57	90
For reduction of hours of labor with present or increased wages.....	18	238	11	99	40	4,395	69	4,732
Relating to time and method of payment of wages, etc.....	19	145	8	58	19	140	46	343
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	9	32	10	259	13	76	32	367
Against piecework.....	4	159	1	51	11	119	16	329
For or against modification of shop rules.....	12	273	7	7	14	3,872	33	4,152
For abolition or reduction of fines.....	4	4	6	6	9	9	19	19
Against discharge or for reinstatement of workmen, foremen, or directors.....	9	15	12	12	41	58	62	85
For discharge of workmen, foremen, or directors.....	14	29	10	13	48	3,893	72	3,935
Against employment of women.....	1	1					1	1
For limitation of number of apprentices.....	1	4	1	1	2	2	4	7
Relating to deductions from wages for support of insurance and aid funds.....	12	124	3	58	6	27	21	204
Other causes.....	12	85	8	260	25	178	45	523

STRIKERS AND DAYS OF WORK LOST BY ALL EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK BY STRIKES IN 1901, BY CAUSES.

[A considerable number of strikes was due to two or more causes, and the facts in such cases have been tabulated under each cause; hence the totals for this table necessarily do not agree with those for the preceding tables.]

Cause or object.	Strikers in strikes which—			Total strikers.	Days of work lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.		
For increase of wages.....	5,290	29,121	42,097	76,508	1,551,397
Against reduction of wages.....	1,357	2,002	1,517	4,876	77,991
For reduction of hours of labor with present or increased wages.....	3,446	1,194	37,232	41,872	448,162
Relating to time and method of payment, etc., of wages.....	2,928	976	8,224	12,128	135,622
For or against modification of conditions of work.....	1,842	1,934	1,115	4,891	45,636
Against piecework.....	1,181	116	2,308	3,605	141,800
For or against modification of shop rules.....	3,006	9,985	23,602	36,543	1,075,701
For abolition or reduction of fines.....	730	1,674	1,085	3,489	67,063
Against discharge or for reinstatement of workmen, foremen, or directors.....	570	1,806	4,767	7,143	37,441
For discharge of workmen, foremen, or directors.....	1,777	3,668	29,116	34,561	391,246
Against employment of women.....	10			10	210
For limitation of number of apprentices.....	112	39	58	209	4,332
Relating to deductions from wages for support of insurance and aid funds.....	2,590	212	345	3,147	67,997
Other causes.....	1,441	2,095	12,357	15,893	97,968

Wage disputes continued to be the most frequent cause of strikes, demands for increase of wages, or attempts to reduce wages, having figured 331 times as a cause. More than one-half of the 81,384 persons engaged in strikes on account of wages were unsuccessful.

The next two tables show, respectively, the results of strikes, by duration, and the duration and results of strikes, by number of strikers involved:

STRIKES AND STRIKERS, BY DURATION OF STRIKES, 1901.

Days of duration.	Strikes.				Strikers.			
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.
7 or under.....	84	113	185	332	6,535	18,384	16,573	41,492
8 to 15.....	13	39	22	74	890	7,674	1,840	10,404
16 to 30.....	12	24	30	66	1,638	4,240	12,108	18,086
31 to 100.....	4	17	24	45	171	5,432	26,683	32,336
101 or over.....	1	2	5	6	80	8,606	460	9,146
Total.....	114	195	214	523	9,364	44,386	57,664	111,414

DURATION AND RESULTS OF STRIKES, BY NUMBER OF STRIKERS INVOLVED, 1901.

Strikers involved.	Strikes.				Days of duration.				
	Suc-ceeded.	Suc-ceeded partly.	Failed.	Total.	7 or under.	8 to 15.	10 to 30.	31 to 100.	101 or over.
25 or under.....	41	23	72	136	94	16	17	8	1
26 to 50.....	29	49	52	130	85	25	7	12	1
51 to 100.....	24	42	31	97	71	11	10	4	1
101 to 200.....	8	35	32	75	40	11	16	7	1
201 to 500.....	10	25	16	51	27	6	10	7	1
501 to 1,000.....	2	16	3	21	10	3	3	5
1,001 or over.....	5	8	13	5	2	3	2	1
Total.....	114	195	214	523	332	74	66	45	6

Most of the strikes were small and of short duration, 332, or 63 per cent of all strikes, having lasted 7 days or under, while 50 persons or under were involved in each of 266, or 50 per cent of all strikes. Only 6 strikes lasted over 100 days, and but 13 strikes involved over 1,000 strikers.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.—During the year 1901 recourse to the law of December 27, 1892, in regard to the conciliation and arbitration^(a) of labor disputes, was had in 142 disputes. In 6 cases recourse was had to the law before entire cessation of work had occurred, but strikes were subsequently declared in 4 of these cases, leaving 2 instances only where strikes were averted by application of the law. Including these 2 cases the number of disputes in which the application of the law was requested in 1901 is equal to 27.15 per cent of the number of strikes that actually occurred during the year. During the preceding eight-year period such recourse was had in a

^aFor the provisions of this law see Bulletin of the Department of Labor, No. 25, pp. 854-856.

number of disputes, equal to 23.50 per cent of the total strikes for the period. Requests for the application of the law during 1901 were made by employees in 67 disputes, by employers in 5 disputes, and by employees and employers united in 3 disputes. In the other 67 disputes, in which recourse was had to the law, the initiative was taken by justices of the peace.

As for results it was found that 9 strikes had terminated by agreement between employers and employees before committees of conciliation were formed. The offer of conciliation was rejected in 61 of the 133 remaining disputes, the rejection coming from employers in 51 cases, from the employees in 4 cases, and from both employers and employees in 6 cases. In 7 of the 61 cases in which conciliation was rejected the dispute was terminated on the employees withdrawing their demands or accepting concessions previously offered, while in the 54 other cases strikes were declared or continued. Of these 54 strikes 7 succeeded, 17 succeeded partly, and 30 failed.

Committees of conciliation were constituted for the settlement of the remaining 72 disputes. Thirty-eight of these disputes were settled directly by such committees, and of the 34 disputes remaining 8 were settled by arbitration and 3 were settled by the parties themselves, after having appeared without success before committees of conciliation. Strikes were declared or continued after the failure of conciliation and arbitration in the 23 remaining disputes. Of these strikes 3 succeeded, 11 succeeded partly, and 9 failed.

The following is a summary statement in regard to disputes in which recourse was had to the law concerning conciliation and arbitration, during 1901 and for the preceding 8 years, taken collectively:

SUMMARY OF CASES IN WHICH RECOURSE WAS HAD TO THE LAW CONCERNING CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION, 1893 TO 1900 AND 1901.

Items.	1893 to 1900.	1901.
Total number of strikes.....	4, 272	523
Disputes in which recourse was had to the law of 1892.....	a 1, 012	142
Disputes settled:		
Before the creation of committees of conciliation.....	68	9
After refusal of request for conciliation.....	44	7
Directly by committees of conciliation.....	b 243	38
By arbitration.....	42	8
Directly by the parties after having had recourse to conciliation.....	19	3
Total cases settled through the application of the law.....	413	65
Strikes resulting or continuing:		
After refusal of request for conciliation.....	c 337	54
After failure of recourse to conciliation and arbitration.....	d 257	23
Total cases of failure after application of the law.....	591	77

a Relates to 1,004 disputes. Prior to 1900 the instances in which the application of the law were requested, and not the disputes themselves, were counted.

b There were but 240 disputes settled by committees of conciliation. Three disputes have been counted twice because 2 committees were formed in each case.

c Including 4 disputes that were submitted to committees of conciliation after strike was declared. Hence the figures should be 333, but they are given as found in the report.

d Figures here should be 258; those given are, however, according to the original.

Of the 142 disputes in which recourse was had to the law, 65 were settled either as a direct or an indirect result of such recourse. Of these disputes 11 were settled in favor of the employees, 46 were compromised, and 8 terminated in favor of the employers. In the remaining 77 disputes all efforts toward conciliation and arbitration resulted in complete failure and strikes resulted or continued. Of these strikes 10 succeeded, 28 succeeded partly, and 39 failed.

In addition to disputes settled under the law of December 27, 1892, 33 strikes were terminated through intervention of prefects, sub-prefects, and mayors, 10 were terminated through intervention of trade organizations, and 3 through the intervention of other parties, while in 1 other case the parties to the dispute requested a council of prud'hommes to act as conciliator.

GREAT BRITAIN.

Report on Strikes and Lockouts in the United Kingdom in 1901, and on Conciliation and Arbitration Boards. 1902. lxxxv, 49 pp. (Published by the Labor Department of the British Board of Trade.)

This report on strikes and lockouts in the United Kingdom, prepared by the labor department of the board of trade, is the fourteenth issued since the commencement of the series in 1888. The report shows in detail for each dispute, beginning in 1901, the locality, the number of establishments involved, the number and occupations of employees thrown out of work, the cause or object of the dispute, the date of beginning and ending, and the result; also statements of the work of boards of conciliation and arbitration and of certain agreements and awards terminating trade disputes. The tables giving details are preceded by summary tables, by tables presenting comparative data for the years 1897 to 1901, and by an analysis of the statistics of strikes and lockouts and of conciliation and arbitration. The general method of inquiry and the plan of presentation are the same as for the past few years. Disputes involving less than 10 employees (and those which lasted less than 1 day) have been omitted from the tabulations, except when the aggregate duration exceeded 100 working days.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN 1901.—The number of disputes arising in 1901 and the number of employees directly and indirectly involved show a decrease, when compared with 1900 or any of the other years (1897, 1898, and 1899) for which statistics for comparison are available. The aggregate days of duration, however, was greater than in 1900 or 1899, though much less than in either 1898 or 1897. In 1901 there were 642 strikes and lockouts, involving 111,437 employees directly and 68,109 indirectly, or throwing out of work a total of 179,546 working people and resulting in an aggregate loss of 4,142,287 working days.

The following tables show the number of strikes and lockouts and the number of employees involved in 1901, classified according to the principal causes and the results:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, 1901.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration in 1901 of disputes beginning in previous years and excludes the duration in 1902 of disputes beginning in 1901.]

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts the results of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	86	163	147	6	402	2,505,362
Hours of labor.....	7	16	6	29	209,520
Employment of particular classes of persons.....	26	45	13	84	196,212
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline..	21	38	20	79	909,083
Trade unionism.....	20	14	3	1	38	115,680
Sympathetic disputes.....	2	2	2	6	191,889
Other causes.....	1	2	1	4	14,641
Total.....	163	280	192	7	642	4,142,287

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY CAUSES AND RESULTS, 1901.

Principal cause or object.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Wages.....	14,203	17,447	25,539	1,676	58,865	27,240
Hours of labor.....	328	3,278	592	4,198	25,519
Employment of particular classes of persons.....	3,076	4,528	2,920	10,524	3,351
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline..	3,067	9,918	10,180	23,185	3,303
Trade unionism.....	3,804	966	221	540	11,531	829
Sympathetic disputes.....	50	370	1,470	1,890	250
Other causes.....	43	1,168	33	1,244	1,107
Total.....	30,591	37,675	40,955	2,216	111,437	68,109

As in previous years, the disputes in 1901 were due mostly to wages, 402 out of a total of 642 strikes and lockouts resulting from this cause. Of the total of 111,437 strikers and employees locked out in disputes from all causes, 58,865, or 52.8 per cent, were involved in wage disputes; 23,185, or 20.8 per cent, in disputes relating to working arrangements, rules, and discipline; 11,531, or 10.4 per cent, in disputes relating to questions of trade unionism; 10,524, or 9.4 per cent, in disputes relating to employment of particular classes of persons; 4,198, or 3.8 per cent, in disputes relating to hours of labor; 1,890, or 1.7 per cent, in sympathetic disputes, and 1,244, or 1.1 per cent, in disputes due to other causes.

Of the 642 disputes, 163 resulted in favor of the employees, 280 in favor of the employers, 192 were compromised, and 7 remained indefinite or unsettled. Of the 111,437 strikers and employees locked out,

30,591, or 27.4 per cent, were engaged in disputes which resulted in favor of employees; 37,675, or 33.8 per cent, in disputes which resulted in favor of employers; 40,955, or 36.8 per cent, in disputes which were compromised, and 2,216, or 2.0 per cent, in disputes which remained indefinite or unsettled at the close of the year. Employees involved in sympathetic disputes and in those relating to hours of labor were mostly unsuccessful, while in disputes relating to trade unionism they were mostly successful. A majority of those engaged in disputes for the other principal causes were wholly or partly successful.

In 1901, as in previous years, the majority of disputes affected comparatively few working people. This is brought out in the following table:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY GROUPS OF EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, 1901.

[“Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work” includes the aggregate duration of disputes beginning in 1901 and embraces working days lost in 1902 in disputes extending beyond 1901.]

Groups of employees thrown out of work.	Strikes and lockouts.	Employees thrown out of work.		Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.	
		Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
5,000 or over	1	25,628	14.3	138,768	3.8
2,500 or under 5,000	6	20,920	11.6	857,406	23.3
1,000 or under 2,500	28	36,319	20.2	607,369	16.5
500 or under 1,000	53	35,571	19.8	638,547	17.4
250 or under 500	74	25,300	14.1	536,533	14.6
100 or under 250	141	22,255	12.4	556,367	15.2
50 or under 100	116	7,873	4.4	217,382	5.9
25 or under 50	109	3,904	2.2	85,225	2.3
Under 25	114	1,776	1.0	37,946	1.0
Total	642	179,546	100.0	3,675,593	100.0

From the above it is seen that out of 642 disputes, 339, or 53 per cent, involved less than 100 employees each, or only 7.6 per cent of all the employees thrown out of work, and about the same percentage of the time lost in all the disputes of the year. On the other hand, the 7 largest disputes involved 46,548, or 25.9 per cent, of the employees thrown out of work, and 27.1 per cent of the time lost in all the disputes of the year.

The following tables show the extent to which each of the various groups of industries was involved in the strikes and lockouts in 1901 and the results of the disputes in each case.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, 1901.

["Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" includes the aggregate duration in 1901 of disputes beginning in previous years and excludes the duration in 1902 of disputes beginning in 1901.]

Industries.	Strikes and lockouts the results of which were—				Total strikes and lockouts.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	21	42	40	1	104	574, 848
Mining and quarrying.....	51	91	65	3	210	2, 086, 113
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	23	51	28	1	103	601, 558
Textile.....	35	36	24	1	96	276, 363
Clothing.....	11	17	11	39	87, 384
Transportation.....	9	8	3	20	88, 312
Miscellaneous.....	12	32	20	1	65	469, 908
Employees of public authorities.....	1	3	1	5	7, 811
Total.....	163	280	192	7	642	4, 142, 287

STRIKERS AND EMPLOYERS LOCKED OUT, BY INDUSTRIES AND RESULTS, 1901.

Industries.	Strikers and employees locked out in disputes the results of which were—				Total strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.
	In favor of employees.	In favor of employers.	Compromised.	Indefinite or unsettled.		
Building trades.....	2, 058	2, 932	3, 559	315	8, 864	983
Mining and quarrying.....	16, 807	21, 544	22, 008	1, 706	62, 065	50, 916
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding.....	3, 295	4, 768	5, 627	30	13, 720	8, 769
Textile.....	4, 419	3, 989	3, 120	41	11, 569	5, 040
Clothing.....	1, 826	807	900	3, 533	603
Transportation.....	1, 453	713	443	2, 609	72
Miscellaneous.....	718	2, 780	5, 218	124	8, 840	1, 649
Employees of public authorities.....	15	142	80	237	127
Total.....	30, 591	37, 675	40, 955	2, 216	111, 437	63, 109

The mining and quarrying industry shows the largest number of disputes, working people involved, and working days lost. The largest measure of success on the part of employees seems to have been attained by those involved in disputes in the textile and transportation industries, while the smallest measure is seen on the part of those involved in disputes in miscellaneous industries and in the public service.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS DURING FIVE YEARS.—During the 5-year period, 1897 to 1901, there was a yearly average of 717 disputes, in which there was affected an average of 206,495 working people. The following table presents some of the principal statistics of strikes and lockouts for each year from 1897 to 1901:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, 1897 TO 1901.

["Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work" includes the aggregate duration in each year of disputes beginning in previous years.]

Year.	Strikes and lockouts.	Strikers and employees locked out.	Other employees thrown out of work.	Total employees thrown out of work.	Aggregate working days lost by all employees thrown out of work.
1897.....	864	167, 453	62, 814	230, 267	10, 345, 523
1898.....	711	200, 769	63, 138	253, 907	15, 289, 478
1899.....	719	188, 058	42, 159	180, 217	2, 516, 416
1900.....	648	185, 145	53, 393	188, 538	3, 152, 694
1901.....	642	111, 437	68, 109	179, 546	4, 142, 287

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts and the employees thrown out of work during each year from 1897 to 1901, by industries:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY INDUSTRIES, 1897 TO 1901.

Industries.	Strikes and lockouts.					Employees thrown out of work.				
	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Building trades.....	193	183	180	146	104	15,047	16,684	30,524	19,178	9,797
Mining and quarrying	127	129	109	136	210	49,392	177,029	46,831	74,364	112,981
Metal, engineering, and shipbuilding	229	152	140	111	103	97,189	21,432	21,119	19,810	22,489
Textile	108	99	124	96	96	37,001	24,978	61,499	24,143	16,609
Clothing	56	53	37	38	39	7,016	3,561	2,258	2,154	4,135
Transportation	43	22	47	50	20	12,523	3,478	12,611	23,026	2,682
Miscellaneous	95	67	71	60	65	11,784	6,261	4,212	24,968	10,489
Employees of public au- thorities.....	8	6	11	11	5	365	484	1,163	895	364
Total	864	711	719	648	642	230,267	253,907	180,217	188,538	179,546

The above table shows that in each year except 1897 and 1899 the mining and quarrying industry had the largest number of employees involved in disputes. In 1897 the great dispute of the year was in the engineering trade, and in 1899 it was in the jute industry. Probably the most noteworthy point shown in the table is the decrease in 1901 in the number of persons affected by disputes in the building trades.

The following table shows the principal causes of strikes and lockouts and the number of disputes and employees directly involved in each cause from 1897 to 1901:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY PRINCIPAL CAUSES, 1897 TO 1901.

Principal cause or object.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Wages.....	532	449	460	438	402	73,906	176,392	94,651	82,903	58,865
Hours of labor.....	20	19	17	6	29	39,227	777	3,857	718	4,198
Employment of particular classes or persons	121	87	102	93	84	14,840	9,203	8,187	10,427	10,524
Working arrangements, rules, and discipline.....	119	94	68	57	79	29,068	11,742	17,895	18,956	23,185
Trade unionism.....	49	51	46	45	38	6,327	2,215	5,130	19,573	11,681
Sympathetic disputes.....	20	8	24	5	6	3,796	345	3,233	1,018	1,890
Other causes	3	3	2	4	4	289	95	105	1,550	1,244
Total.....	864	711	719	648	642	167,458	200,769	133,058	135,145	111,437

During this 5-year period 63.6 per cent of all the strikes and lockouts were due to wages. Next in the order of importance were disputes relating to the employment of particular classes of persons, to working arrangements, rules, and discipline, and to trade-unionism and hours of labor.

The following table shows the number of strikes and lockouts and the strikers and employees locked out each year from 1897 to 1901, classified according to results.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, AND STRIKERS AND EMPLOYEES LOCKED OUT, BY RESULTS,
 1897 TO 1901.

Results.	Strikes and lockouts.					Strikers and employees locked out.				
	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
In favor of employees	831	238	230	202	163	40,464	45,490	36,808	40,612	30,591
In favor of employers.....	307	227	245	211	280	68,159	120,667	60,275	38,497	37,675
Compromised.....	215	243	236	221	192	56,897	34,501	40,237	56,390	40,955
Indefinite or unsettled.....	11	3	8	14	7	1,938	111	788	4,646	2,216
Total.....	864	711	719	648	642	167,453	200,769	138,058	135,145	111,487

Of the 3,584 disputes reported during the five-year period, 1,164, or 32.5 per cent, resulted in favor of employees; 1,270, or 35.4 per cent, resulted in favor of employers; 1,107, or 30.9 per cent, were compromised, and 43, or 1.2 per cent, remained indefinite or unsettled. Of 752,862 strikers and employees locked out during the period, 193,965, or 25.8 per cent, were engaged in disputes resulting in favor of employees; 320,273, or 42.5 per cent, in disputes resulting in favor of employers; 228,980, or 30.4 per cent, in disputes which were compromised, and 9,644, or 1.3 per cent, in disputes which remained indefinite or unsettled.

In the table following, the disputes beginning in each of the years 1897 to 1901 and the employees thrown out of work are classified according to the various methods of settlement:

 STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS, AND EMPLOYEES THROWN OUT OF WORK, BY METHOD OF
 SETTLEMENT, 1897 TO 1901.

Method of settlement.	Strikes and lockouts.					Employees thrown out of work.				
	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.	1897.	1898.	1899.	1900.	1901.
Arbitration	14	13	16	19	23	9,756	3,350	3,319	7,118	8,349
Conciliation and mediation..	27	30	22	13	18	9,544	16,167	8,386	8,593	8,465
Direct negotiation or arrangement between the parties	624	495	562	487	456	187,048	206,926	156,743	155,025	143,470
Submission of employees	76	71	22	45	45	15,207	17,590	7,054	8,895	9,362
Replacement of employees	105	96	88	71	89	4,307	9,616	3,980	4,918	6,415
Closing of works	7	3	4	5	1,673	95	300	1,288
Indefinite or unsettled.....	11	6	6	9	6	2,732	258	640	3,689	2,197
Total.....	864	711	719	648	642	230,267	253,907	180,217	188,538	179,546

The great majority of the strikes and lockouts were settled by direct negotiation between the parties concerned or their representatives. Of the total of 642 disputes in 1901, not fewer than 456, or 71 per cent, were so settled, and these embraced 143,470, or 80 per cent, of all the persons involved. The number of disputes settled by means of arbitration in 1901 shows an increase over the figures of previous years, and the number of persons involved shows an increase over the figures of previous years except 1897. The number of working people affected by disputes settled by mediation and conciliation shows but little change as compared with the figures of the two previous years.

Report on the Employment of School Children. 1901-1902. 25, xii, 485 pp. (Published by the British Home Office.)

This is the report of a committee appointed in 1901 to inquire into the question of the employment, for wages or profit, of children of school age; and, further, to report what alterations are desirable in the laws relating to child labor and school attendance and in the administration of those laws.

In 1802 the first of the series of factory acts, of which the act of 1901 is the last, regulating the employment of children in factories, was passed. By these acts a minimum age was established for the employment of children, the hours of labor were limited, and a system was established by which regular attendance at school was made a condition of working half time. These provisions, however, and similar ones in the mining acts, are for the most part confined to industries in which children are employed in considerable numbers and for regular hours.

Beginning in 1870, a series of education acts was passed which, by making education compulsory and by prohibiting the labor of children during the hours at which they were required by law to be in school, made illegal the regular daily employment of children, except by means of a half-time system or out-of-school hours.

It had come to pass, therefore, that, while the employment of children in most large industries was carefully regulated and in some cases prohibited, and while children were forbidden to do any work during school hours, their employment in other occupations outside school hours was wholly unregulated. This condition of affairs has resulted in a tendency toward their employment in other occupations before and after school hours and on Saturdays and Sundays.

In 1897 attention was first directed to this state of things and a committee formed to investigate the subject. The result of the inquiry, which was published in 1899, showed that at least 144,000 children attending school full time were employed out of school hours for wages. Of that number about 40,000 were employed out of school hours for more than 20 hours a week. In upward of 3,000 cases the term of employment was more than 40 hours a week, and in a few instances it was over 60 hours. In consequence of the facts thus disclosed the committee of 1901 was appointed.

The result of the present committee's investigation was the proof of the substantial correctness of the facts obtained by the committee of 1897. With facts obtained from other sources of inquiry, the committee of 1901 reached the conclusion that in the year 1898 there was (including 100,000 half-timers) a total of 300,000 children who were in attendance at school and also in paid employment. The various classes of employment in which these children were engaged and the number

of children in each class are as follows: Factories and workshops, 45,000; home industrial work, 15,000; shops, 100,000; domestic work, 50,000; agriculture, 50,000; street sellers, 25,000; miscellaneous occupations, 15,000.

While these figures are not statistically exact, yet they prove, in the opinion of the committee, that the employment of children while still at school prevails on a large scale, and that the hours of employment of a goodly proportion of these children are excessive. In conclusion, the committee recommends that the overworking of children in those occupations which are still unregulated by law should be prevented by giving to the county and borough councils power to make local labor laws, and that these laws, whether applying to all occupations or to particular occupations, should lay down general conditions and general restrictions. It is further suggested that the gaps that may be left by the local labor laws should be filled by a general prohibition of night labor by children and of labor injurious to health. In the case of street trading a system of licensing the children is suggested.

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.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN—CONTRIBUTORY NEGLIGENCE—*Marino v. Lehmaier, Court of Appeals of New York, 66 Northeastern Reporter, page 572.*—Vito Marino, a minor, sued by his guardian ad litem to recover damages for an injury received while in the service of the defendant. At the time of the accident the plaintiff was under 14 years of age, and was engaged in cleaning a printing press, when his fingers were caught between the cogwheels and cut off. The machine was not in motion at the time he commenced to clean it, and the evidence was not clear as to the precise manner in which the machine was started. The boy was unable to state whether he had previously taken hold of the fly wheel, and in so doing started the motion of the machine. Section 70 of the labor law (chapter 415, laws of 1897) provides that a child under the age of 14 years shall not be employed in any factory, and makes the proprietor of the factory criminally liable for such employment.

The plaintiff was nonsuited in the trial court, but the appellate division of the supreme court reversed the judgment and granted a new trial. Defendant appealed to the court of appeals, which affirmed the judgment of the supreme court, Judge Haight delivering the opinion, Judges Gray and O'Brien dissenting.

Judge Haight cited cases in support of the opinion that the law prohibiting the employment of a child under the age of 14 years in any factory is a determination, in effect, that a child of that age does not possess the judgment and discretion necessary for the pursuit of a dangerous work, and is not, as a matter of law, chargeable with contributory negligence, or with the assumption of any risks of employment; also that where an accident to a child under lawful age in a factory could not have happened but for the employment, such unlawful employment is of itself evidence of negligence on the part of the employer, and concluded that "a question of fact was presented for the determination of the jury, and in case it should be found that the

defendant was negligent, and the plaintiff, under the circumstances, was not chargeable with contributory negligence, the defendant was civilly liable."

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—INJURY RECEIVED WHILE OUTSIDE LINE OF DUTY—NEGLIGENCE—FELLOW-SERVANT—*Longa v. Stanley Hod Elevator Co. et al.*, *Supreme Court of New Jersey*, 54 *Atlantic Reporter*, page 251.—In this case Julia Longa brought suit in the circuit court of Hudson County to recover damages for the death of her intestate, who was employed by one Whan on the construction of a large brick storehouse. Whan had contracted with the Stanley Hod Elevator Company to raise the hods to a platform on which the deceased stood, his duty being to remove the hods from the elevator. While so employed, being in a safe place and free from danger, at the request of the engineer of the elevator company, which exercised an independent employment, he undertook to loosen the elevator, which had stuck fast, and was killed in the attempt. Both Whan and the elevator company were sued, and the judgment of the circuit court was in their favor. This was affirmed in the supreme court, Judge Van Syckel rendering the opinion, which concluded as follows:

The decedent was not in that respect acting as the servant of Whan, and Whan is no more liable for the injury than if the servant, without his authority or consent, had gone across the street to another building, and been there killed by the negligence of some other contractor. Whan furnished the decedent a safe place for his work, and while he was engaged in doing his master's work he was in no peril.

The question remains whether the other defendant is liable in damages. If the engineer of the elevator company had authority to employ the decedent to assist him in loosening the elevator, then he was a fellow-servant of the engineer, and the plaintiff can not recover. If the engineer had no such authority from his employer, then the decedent was a mere volunteer, and the company is without liability.

It is also to be observed that the decedent was guilty of want of care for his own safety in placing himself in a position of obvious danger in the elevator. A nonsuit was properly directed by the trial court as to both defendants.

The judgment below should be affirmed.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY — RAILROAD COMPANIES — NEGLIGENCE — DUTY OF VICE-PRINCIPAL—QUESTION FOR JURY—*Texas and Pacific Railway Company v. Carlin*, *Supreme Court of the United States*, 23 *Supreme Court Reporter*, page 585.—In this case Michael Carlin had sued the above-named railroad company for injuries received while in its service as a member of the bridge gang. The gang was employed in repairing a bridge 60 or 65 feet in length, one of the tools used being a spike maul weighing about 10 pounds. This maul had been

used about ten or fifteen minutes before the passing of a train. It was not clear just where the maul was lying, but as the train passed it struck the maul and threw it toward Carlin, striking and breaking his leg so that amputation was necessary. In a suit for damages before the circuit court for the northern district of Texas, Carlin was awarded judgment. Appeals were taken through the circuit court of appeals up to the Supreme Court of the United States, the judgment of the court below being affirmed. The action was based upon certain provisions of the fellow-servant law of Texas, the material sections of which read as follows:

Art. 4560g. All persons engaged in the service of any person, receiver, or corporation controlling or operating a railroad or street railway, the lines of which shall be situated in whole or in part in this State, who are intrusted by such person, receiver, or corporation with the authority of superintendence, control, or command of other servants or employees of such person, receiver, or corporation, or with the authority to direct any other employee in the performance of any duty of such employee, are vice principals of such person, receiver, or corporation, and are not fellow-servants with their coemployees.

Art. 4560h. All persons who are engaged in the common service of such person, receiver, or corporation controlling or operating a railroad or street railway, and who while so employed are in the same grade of employment, and are doing the same character of work or service, and are working together at the same time and place and at the same piece of work and to a common purpose, are fellow-servants with each other. Employees who do not come within the provisions of this article shall not be considered fellow-servants.

Judge Peckham, who delivered the opinion of the court, after citing the facts as given herewith, said:

Defendant contends that if the negligence which caused the accident was the failure of the foreman to see the maul or hammer upon the bridge and to remove it, it was not the failure to perform a duty peculiar to him, the foreman, and specially imposed upon him as such foreman within the meaning of article 4560g, because it was a duty resting equally upon all the members of the bridge gang. The testimony in regard to this question leaves no doubt as to the duty of the foreman, although it also appeared that when a man was using tools and got through with them he was supposed to put them out of the way where a train would not strike them, and it was his business to do so. The evidence showed, in addition, that it was the special business of the foreman to see that the track was unobstructed on the bridge when a train was about to cross, and that, although the men were supposed to see that the track was clear, it was the foreman's business to supervise them and see that the men left a clear track as the train came on. This was his duty as foreman, and not as fellow-workman; and the duty of care on the part of the workmen under him to keep the tools off the track when the train came on the bridge in no degree lessened the duty of the foreman to see that the men under him did as they ought, and that a free and unobstructed track was left for the train. In other words, it was the special duty of the foreman, as such, to see that the men performed their duty.

The negligent act of the foreman did not arise in the performance of the duty of a mere servant, although each servant was under an obligation to be careful, but it was the negligent act of the vice principal in the performance of his duty as such. As it was the special duty of the foreman to see that the men performed their duty, his neglect so to do was the neglect of a duty which he owed, not as fellow-servant, but as vice principal within the statute above cited.

Upon the second ground, we are of opinion that there was evidence sufficient to go to the jury upon the question of the negligence of the foreman in failing to discover the maul upon the bridge immediately prior to the passage of the train. The foreman himself swears that he did look along the track just prior to the coming of the train, and that he did not see any obstruction on the track, and did not see the spike maul in question. Whether he looked or not is, under the evidence, one of the material facts in the case. He says that he did, but we are of opinion that other facts proved in the case were of such a character as to make it proper to submit the question to the jury. The foreman's evidence was that of a somewhat interested witness. If the foreman did in fact neglect to perform his duty by looking over the track just prior to the coming of the train for the purpose of seeing that the bridge was clear of obstructions, it might be quite a serious matter for him in his future relations with the company. At any rate, no man is an absolutely disinterested witness where his testimony relates to the question of the performance or nonperformance of a duty which he owed on account of the position which he occupied. It was, therefore, a question for the jury as to what measure of credence should be given to his testimony. Of course, the mere absence of evidence that the foreman did his duty would not be equivalent to evidence, direct or circumstantial, that he did not, and it rested with the plaintiff to show negligence of the foreman for which the defendant would be liable.

But there are certain facts proved in this case which we think rendered it necessary to submit the question of negligence to the jury, notwithstanding the testimony of the foreman. The maul being left so that it was struck by the train and hurled against the plaintiff, the failure of the foreman to see it might have been found by the jury to be a negligent failure, and, it being his duty to see that the track was kept clear for the passage of trains, that failure was a neglect which was the proximate cause of the injury. To be sure, it was negligence on the part of the servant who left the tool there in the first place, but after such negligence had occurred the duty of the foreman arose, and he had plenty of time in which to perform it, to overlook the bridge where the track was and see that there was no obstruction for the passing train, and his failure to look, or, looking, to discover the obstruction, thus became the immediate and proximate cause of the injury which followed.

There is no other cause assignable for this injury than the fact that the train did strike the maul, and that fact is proved from the fact that it was thrown in the direction in which the train was going. Counsel for the defendant admits that the evidence shows that fact, but he avers that it does not appear that the maul was in such a position as to convict the foreman of negligence in not discovering it, and as to that fact counsel insists that the negligence of the foreman is disproved by the uncontradicted testimony.

The facts already stated rendered it necessary, in our judgment, to submit the question to the jury as to the negligence of the foreman, even although he testified that he looked and did not discover any obstacle on the bridge.

These two are the propositions particularly argued before us. We do not see in them any ground for disturbing the verdict of the jury.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—RELIEF DEPARTMENT—RELEASE—*O'Reilly v. Pennsylvania Railroad Company, Supreme Court of New Jersey, 54 Atlantic Reporter, page 233.*—Bridget O'Reilly, administratrix, brought an action against the Pennsylvania Railroad Company to recover damages under the death act for the killing of Thomas O'Reilly while in the performance of his duties as an employee of the defendant company, but on demurrer to her declaration final judgment was rendered for the defendant. Afterwards she brought the present suit to recover \$250 claimed to be due as benefits under the rules of the relief department of the company, of which the deceased was a member at the time of his death. The company claimed that the judgment above mentioned bars her claim by force of rule 58 of the rules governing the relief department, which reads as follows:

Should a member or his legal representative make claim or bring suit against the company, or against any other corporation which may be at the time associated therewith in administration of the relief departments, in accordance with the terms set forth in regulation No. 6, for damages on account of injury or death of such member, payment of benefits from the relief fund on account of the same shall not be made until such claim shall be withdrawn or suit discontinued. Any compromise of such claim or suit, or judgment in such suit, shall preclude any claim upon the relief fund for benefits on account of such injury or death, and the acceptance of benefits from the relief fund by a member or his beneficiary or beneficiaries on account of injury or death shall operate as a release and satisfaction of claims against the company and any and all the corporations associated therewith in the administration of the relief departments for damages received from such injury or death.

Judgment was rendered for the company in the district court, which judgment was reversed by the supreme court.

The opinion of the court, delivered by Judge Dixon, after giving a statement of the facts, concludes as follows:

The question for decision is whether a judgment on demurrer is the kind of judgment intended by that rule. We think it is not. The meaning plainly expressed in every clause of this rule, except that now under consideration, is that the employee injured, and the representatives of an employee killed, shall not receive both compensation for the injury or death, and benefits from the relief department; and to effectuate this purpose it is declared that a claim for compensation shall suspend a claim for benefits, and the satisfaction of either claim

shall discharge the other. Among these clauses is that now to be construed, namely, "Any compromise of such claim or suit (for compensation), or judgment in such suit, shall preclude any claim upon the relief fund." Here the judgment intended is coupled with a compromise of the claim or suit, and a compromise implies, not a total defeat of the claim, but an adjustment which gives the claimant at least part of his claim—an adjustment in which the parties agree upon the sum to be paid. Bearing in mind the general purpose of the regulation and this collocation of compromise and judgment, we think the judgment intended is one by which the claimant recovers some compensation for the loss alleged, and not one which turns on the mere form of pleading.

The judgment of the district court to the contrary should be reversed, and the record remitted to that court for a new trial.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROADS—STREET RAILWAYS—FELLOW-SERVANT LAW—*Savannah, Thunderbolt and Isle of Hope Railway v. Williams, Supreme Court of Georgia, 43 Southeastern Reporter, page 751.*—In the city court of Savannah, Zaid Williams recovered damages in a suit against the above-named railway company under the fellow-servant law as found in sections 2297 and 2323 of the Civil Code of 1895, which makes railroad companies liable to one servant for injuries inflicted by a fellow-servant. The defendant company operated a street railway, and the sole question considered was whether a street railway is a railroad within the meaning of these sections.

Judge Lamar, speaking for the court, cited a large number of cases in different States showing widely different conclusions, and then said:

We think the constitution, statutes, and decisions of this State recognize that the word "railroad" is generic, and includes street railroads, narrow-gauge roads, horse car companies, dummy lines, and street railroads operated by electricity. Whether a particular statute applies to any one of these various forms of railroads is to be determined from the language of the statute, from the context, or from the intent of the lawmakers.

While dangers incident to the operation of trains was the moving cause for the enactment of the law, it has frequently been held that the language applied to injuries inflicted by fellow-servants whether connected with the running of trains or not. (*Georgia R. Co. v. Miller*, 90 Ga. 571, 16 S. E. 939.) But when we consider the development of the street railroad business; the fact that in many instances they use steam; that they use a motive power capable of generating a speed greater than that of steam; that the act of 1856 was inserted in the Code of 1863 and in the Code of 1868; that this fellow-servant law was inadvertently repealed by the act of 1869 (Acts 1869, p. 157), and then re-enacted in 1873 (Acts 1873, p. 24); that at the time of such re-enactment there were street railroads, some using horse power and others using horse and steam power; and when we further recall that these Code sections were again reenacted in 1895, at a time when

there were very many horse railroads, narrow-gauge roads, and electric roads, and that in 1885, before the adoption of the Code of 1895, this court had held that a street railroad was within the meaning of the word "railroad" as used in the act of 1837, Pen. Code, Sec. 520, and in 1875, in *Augusta R. Co. v. Renz*, 55 Ga. 127, applied to them the law as to presumptions against railroads—the conclusion is irresistible that the legislature was satisfied with the construction which had been placed on the meaning of this word by the courts, and willing to re-enact these sections in the light of the express or implied definition of the word "railroad." Not only the language of the Code, but the principle of *stare decisis*, requires us to hold that a street railroad is liable for injuries inflicted upon an employee by reason of the negligence of a fellow-servant.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROADS—STREET RAILWAYS—FELLOW-SERVANT LAW—*Sams v. St. Louis and Missouri Railroad Company*, *Supreme Court of Missouri*, 73 *Southwestern Reporter*, page 686.—In this case Robert L. Sams, conductor on a street railway operated by the above-named company, was injured by the negligence of the motor-man of his car. Suit was brought to recover damages under the fellow-servant act of 1897, section 2873, of the Revised Statutes of 1899, which provides "that every railroad corporation owning or operating a railroad in this State shall be liable for all damages sustained by any agent or servant thereof while engaged in the work of operating such railroad by reason of the negligence of any other agent or servant thereof." The St. Louis circuit court ruled that this law did not apply to street railways and gave judgment for the company. From this judgment Sams appealed and the supreme court affirmed the decision of the court below. The matter was discussed at length by Judge Valliant, who announced the majority opinion of the court, and by Judge Gantt, who delivered a dissenting opinion, which was concurred in by two other judges. Judge Valliant spoke, in part, as follows:

Before persons or corporations can be marked out for class legislation, there must be in them, or in their business or property, some peculiar characteristic that, in the judgment of the lawmakers, justifies the distinction. (*State v. Loomis*, 115 Mo. 307, 22 S. W. 350, 21 L. R. A. 789.) An act of class legislation, to stand in the face of the constitution, must include all who belong to the class, not all who bear similarity in some characteristic to those included, but all who can not be distinguished from them in that particular characteristic which justifies the act. And it must include none who do not belong to the class, for, if the legislature must resort to the peculiarity of the business in which corporations operating steam railroads are engaged to find justification for the act in the eyes of the constitution, it must limit the act to those in whose business is the same peculiarity found. When the validity of such an act is in question the courts will look into the nature of the class to see if it possesses peculiar features which might reasonably call for legislative action, but beyond that they will not interfere with the policy of the legisla-

ture. In the statute we are now considering the legislature has marked out railroad corporations owning or operating railroads, and their employees engaged in the operation of their railroads, and has made a law applicable to them as a class. We must look into the nature of the business thus distinguished, and ascertain what there is in it that justifies the act, and what object the legislature had in view in making the law. Then if we find that the street railroad business is of the same nature, and the men engaged in that business are within the class intended by the legislature, we must decide this case in appellant's favor.

It is not the mere fact that men engaged in operating railroads are subjected to hazard that has called forth the legislative action, for men to whom no such protection is afforded are engaged in other kinds of business that are hazardous to as great or greater degree—as, for example, some kinds of mining, tunneling, etc.; but it is the peculiar nature of the hazard incident to the railroad business that makes the foundation of this statute. Reference to this peculiarity runs through all the cases sustaining the validity of the fellow-servant statutes. In *R. Co. v. Ellis*, 165 U. S. 150, 17 Sup. Ct. 255, 41 L. Ed. 666, Mr. Justice Brewer said: "The business in which they are engaged is of a peculiarly dangerous nature, and the legislature, in the exercise of its police powers, may require many things to be done by them in order to secure life and property. Fencing of railroad tracks, the use of safety couplers, and a multitude of other things, easily suggest themselves." In *Lavallee v. Ry. Co.*, 40 Minn. 249, 41 N. W. 974, the court said: "The frequency and magnitude of dangers to which those employed in operating railroads are exposed; the difficulty, sometimes impossibility, of escaping from them, with any amount of care, when they are seen; the fact that a great number of men are employed, laboring in the same work, so that no one of them can know all the others, their competency, skill, and care, so that they may be said to voluntarily assume the risks arising from want of skill or care by any one of the number—are sufficient reasons for applying the rule of liability of the employer to employees so employed, different from that ordinarily applied between master and servant; but no just reason can be suggested why such difference should be founded, not on the character of the employment, nor the dangers to which those employed are exposed, but on the character only of the employer." Men engaged in the operation of street railroads are exposed to hazards, but not to the peculiar hazards which distinguish men engaged in operating steam railroads, and which has made them a class for special legislation. In 1897, when this law was enacted, there were still some street railroads in this State operated by horse power. If the law applies to street railroads at all, it applies to street railroads of all kinds; and, if it applies to them now, it applied to them when it was first enacted, and, if so, then there was no difference in its application to the driver of a horse car and a brakeman on a freight train. There are employments attended with even greater hazard than the operating of a railroad, but men engaged in those employments are not included in this class, because the hazard is not of the same character. And there are men in the employ of railroad corporations who are not within the class because they are not engaged in operating the railroad. Thus the lines around the class are drawn, and men who do not fill the description are not within those lines.

Running through all our statutes on the subject there is an obvious distinction shown between railroads and street railroads. No one can read article 2 of chapter 12, Rev. St. 1899, and gather the idea that it has any reference to street railroads. Then follows article 3, which relates to street railroads only. The very fact of the frequent use of the term "railroad" in our statutes in such connection as to indicate that the legislature understood that it would be taken, as a matter of course, to mean a steam railroad, shows that the usual use of the word is with that meaning, and when some other meaning is intended some additional word is used. Thus section 1180, Rev. St. 1899: "It shall be the duty of every street railway company or corporation operating a street railway across the tracks of a railroad company to bring its cars to a full stop at least ten and not more than twenty feet before reaching the tracks of the railroad company, and it shall be the duty of the conductor or some other employee of the street railway company, to go forward to the tracks of such railroad company for the purpose of ascertaining whether a train is approaching such crossing." In that connection the word "railroad" is brought into sharp contact with the words "street railway," and the legislature took it for granted that any one reading the section would understand that "railroad" meant steam railroad, and therefore did not add any word of qualification or explanation. There are many other sections of our statutes referred to in the briefs of the learned counsel in which the term "railroad" or "railroad corporation" is used without qualifying words, yet manifestly referring only to steam railroads, but we will not now discuss them, because this opinion is already too long. In almost every instance where street railroads are intended in our statutes, street railroads are named. In every instance where steam railroads are intended, the word "railroads" only is used. The fellow-servant law of 1897 does not designate street railroads by name, nor by any words necessarily indicating an intention to include them; and, as such companies are neither within the letter nor reason of the law, it does not apply to them. This is the view the learned trial judge took of the law, and he was correct.

The judgment is affirmed.

From the opinion of Judge Gantt, delivered in dissent from the above, the following is quoted:

By sustaining the demurrer to plaintiff's evidence, the trial court obviously held that defendant was operating a street railroad, and that the above-quoted statute had no application to street railroads; in short, that the words "every railroad corporation owning or operating a railroad in this State" do not mean "every railroad," but those only which own or operate steam railroads, and the word "railroad" must be restricted to those only who operate their cars in trains, and by steam as the motive power. That the words of the act, "every railroad corporation," are broad enough in themselves to include street and electric railroads as well as steam railroads, will not be denied; that they are plain, unambiguous, and comprehensive enough to include all railroads, can not be doubted. *Prima facie*, the act applies to street as well as any and all other railroads. (*Bloxham v. St. Ry. Co. (Fla.) 18 South. 444, 29 L. R. A. 507, 51 Am. St. Rep. 44.*) The rule of construction is that where a law is clearly expressed it is the duty of the court to adhere to the literal expression, unless such construction would lead to a palpable absurdity.

At the time this law was enacted there was a general provision in our statutes defining the term "railroad corporations" as follows (section 1163, Rev. St. 1899): "The term 'railroad corporation' contained in this chapter shall be deemed and taken to mean all corporations, companies or individuals now owning or operating, or which may hereafter own or operate, any railroad in this State." But it is plausibly and ably contended that in the various laws of this State governing railroad corporations the word "railroad" has a well-defined and clearly understood meaning, and is never confounded with "street railroad," and various sections of the general railroad law are cited to show that they have no reference to street railroads. That there are many provisions of the various acts in regard to railroads which do not apply to street railroads may be, and is, conceded; but the statement of counsel is entirely too broad, when they assume that those laws do not apply at all to street railroads, as an examination of the decisions of this court will clearly demonstrate. [Cases cited.] These cases sufficiently indicate that it is not accurate to state that the word "railroad" always refers to steam railroads, and that when street railways are to be included they are specifically named as such. On the contrary, the great weight of authority is that, if the context contains no such indication, a statute containing the word "railroad" will be held to include every species of railroad which is embraced within the general sense of that word.

Looking now more closely to the act, we find it is a short, remedial act, of four sections only, and not a word in it to indicate that it was the intention of the legislature to restrict it to steam railroads operating long trains. Being remedial, the universal rule is that it should receive a liberal construction, to cure the evil which it was intended to remedy. "The old law, the mischief, and the remedy must be kept in mind." Prior to the enactment of this statute the course of decision was that a master, in this State, was not liable to his servant for injuries occasioned by the negligence of his fellow-servant. For many years counsel endeavored to get this court to change this rule, but the answer was that this was a legislative function; that it was the duty of the court to declare, not to make, the law. It is within the knowledge of all of us that this ruling occasioned the passage of this law. But counsel urge that the reason of the law would exclude its application to street railways, because they say in the operation of the car two persons only were employed—a conductor and a motorman—and the reason for changing the law was that steam railroads had a large number of employees operating freight and passenger cars in trains, and there resulted a consequent want of opportunity on the part of the employees to observe and watch their coemployees in the same service, and thus discover their negligence, and an opportunity to quit the service if these negligent coemployees were not discharged. Doubtless this was one of the reasons, but it can not be that it was the only one, because, if it was, if an employee, as a fireman, closely associated in the same cab with an engineer, was injured by the negligence of the latter, it could be urged with the same plausibility that, being so closely associated, they did not fall within the reason which prompted the passage of the act, to wit, that they had no opportunity to watch the conduct of each other. There is no such exception written in the law. Under its terms an employee injured by the negligence of another servant of the same company would not be turned out of court

because his employment brought him so closely in contact with him that he could observe his conduct. If a fireman or engineer, then, can recover for injuries occasioned by the other, whose duties call them together on the same car, how can it be maintained that a motorman or conductor, operating at different ends of the same car, is not equally entitled to be protected from the negligence of the other? Moreover, since the application of electricity, and the operation of cars by cables, it is not true that only one car can be operated, but frequently it occurs that two and three cars are connected in the same train. Neither can it be said that the high rate of speed of steam cars makes it necessary to apply a different rule, as the modern electric car easily makes from 18 to 25 miles an hour. Our act of 1897 was enacted years after our cities and towns in Missouri were gridironed with both systems of street railroads, and therefore our legislature could not be charged with legislating in ignorance of the character of such roads. Neither has our legislature or courts made the distinction between "railroads" and "street railroads" that the learned justices discovered in Minnesota, as we have already shown; and, while the history of railroad legislation in that State may have justified the conclusion reached by that court, the facts upon which that adjudication was bottomed do not and did not exist in Missouri when the act of 1897 under consideration was passed.

The statute before us has been construed by the St. Louis court of appeals in the case of *Stocks v. St. Louis Transit Co.* (at the October term, 1902, of said court) [see Bulletin of the Department of Labor No. 47, p. 952], and held to apply to street railways; * * *

But it is earnestly insisted that in construing this act we must bear in mind that this is class legislation, and, to sustain the constitutionality of the act, we must be convinced, in applying it to street railways, that they fall within the reason of the statute; otherwise the act is unconstitutional. This is a grave contention, because, if sound, it must result in our holding not only that the language of this act does not include street railways, but that it would not be in the power of the legislature, even by using the words "street railways", to make them amenable to its provisions. To sustain their position the learned counsel have recourse to the opinion of the Supreme Court of the United States, sustaining the constitutionality of the fellow-servant act of Kansas, in *Railway v. Mackey*, 127 U. S. 205, 8 Sup. Ct. 1161, 32 L. Ed. 107, in which it is said in justification of that law against the charge of unnatural and unreasonable classification that "the hazardous character of the business of operating a railway would seem to call for special legislation with respect to railroad corporations, having for its object the protection of their employees as well as the safety of the public. The business of other corporations is not subject to similar dangers to their employees, and no objections, therefore, can be made to the legislation on the ground of its making an unjust discrimination." Because the courts, in sustaining these acts, have pointed to the peculiar hazards to which railroad employees are exposed, to defend the statutes against the charge of unjust discrimination, it is assumed that a fellow-servant act applicable to street railways would be unconstitutional, because the employees of such corporations are not subjected to all the hazards that beset employees of steam railroads. It is admitted that employees in the operation of street railroads—especially those engaged in operating cars on which electricity is the motive power—

are exposed to great hazards; but it is said they are not the peculiar hazards which attend the operation of steam railroads, and therefore they do not, and, if the argument is sound, can not, come within the same class as employees of steam railroads. We can not subscribe to this contention. In our opinion, it was entirely competent for the legislature to have enacted a general fellow-servant law, which would have applied to all masters and servants; and it was also within its power to enact this law governing the liability of railroads to their employees, and to include therein, as we hold they did do, the employees of all railroads—street and electric railroads as well as steam railroads.

It is not to be questioned that, in the exercise of its general remedial and police powers, the legislature may enact laws for the health and safety of our citizens, and, when a given subject is within its power, the extent to which it is to be exercised is within the discretion of the legislature. It is within the common knowledge of us all that at the time this act was passed nearly all the street railways in this State were being operated by electricity, and those that were not were rapidly being converted into electric roads; that this motive power was exceedingly hazardous and dangerous. It is not insisted that it would not be wise and humane legislation to throw around the employees operating these cars the same protection that is given an operative on a steam railroad, but only that the general words do not include them, and, if they did, they are not in the same class. To this we answer that, when it is conceded that their avocation subjects them to perils from the negligence of their fellow-servants, it is not for this or any other court to say to the legislature, "You shall not enlarge the class so as to include the employees of all railroads, but shall restrict it to steam railroads alone." In a word, we hold that an act of the legislature is not to be declared void unless the violation of the Constitution is so manifest as to leave no room for doubt.

In view of the remedial character of this act, the absence of anything in any portion of the act indicating a purpose to restrict it to steam railroads, and the decisions in this State which have applied certain general provisions of our railroad laws alike to street railways and steam railroads, and because the plain, unambiguous words of the act are broad enough to include street railways, we hold that the act means what it says, and that street railroads are liable in the same manner as steam railroads to their employees for the negligence of their coemployees or fellow-servants.

EXAMINATION, LICENSING, ETC., OF BARBERS—TITLE—SPECIAL LEGISLATION—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*State v. Sharpless*, *Supreme Court of Washington*, 71 *Pacific Reporter*, page 737.—In this case Richard Sharpless was convicted in the superior court of Spokane County of practicing the occupation of a barber without having first obtained a certificate of registration entitling him to practice such occupation, as required by chapter 172, laws of 1901. (See Bulletin of the U. S. Department of Labor No. 43, pp. 1323, 1324.) Sharpless appealed to the supreme court, which affirmed the judgment of the court below.

Judge Mount in announcing the opinion of the court used, in part, the following language:

The only questions raised which may be considered on this appeal are questions which go to the constitutionality of the act of 1901 (Laws 1901, p. 349, c. 172). It is claimed (1) that the act is repugnant to section 19, art. 2, of the constitution of this State, which provides that "no bill shall embrace more than one subject and that shall be expressed in the title"; (2) that the act is repugnant to the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and especially to section 12, art. 1, of the constitution of this State, which is as follows: "No law shall be passed granting to any citizen or class of citizens or corporation other than municipal privileges or immunities which upon the same terms shall not equally belong to all citizens or corporations."

1. The title of the act is as follows: "An act to regulate the practice of barbering and licensing of persons to carry on such practice, and providing punishment for its violation." The act defines the practice of barbering, and provides that it shall be unlawful for any person to follow the occupation in any incorporated city or town without first having obtained a license therefor. It then provides for the appointment of a board of examiners; defines their term of office, their headquarters, compensation, and their duties; then prescribes the fees for certificates, and also the qualifications of barbers; provides for the issuance of certificates to qualified persons authorizing them to practice barbering; provides for apprentices; and also specifies the causes for which the board of examiners may revoke certificates issued and reissue the same; lastly, provides a penalty for practicing the occupation in certain districts without a certificate therefor, and makes certain acts of barbers in the cities of the first, second, and third classes misdemeanors. Appellant argues that the title does not embrace the appointment of the board of examiners, or the duties of the board or the compensation of its members, or refer to apprentices of barbers, or to the subject of a license fee. But we think the title is sufficient to cover all these provisions. They are all intimately and naturally connected with the subject-matter of the act.

2. It is next argued that the act is void because "local, class, special, and discriminating legislation"; local, because it applies only to incorporated cities and towns, and special and discriminating, because it does not affect all barbers alike.

After quoting sections 1, 9, 10, and 15 of chapter 172, laws of 1901, the court continued:

The right of the legislature to enact laws for the promotion of health is now universally sustained as a police regulation. [Cases cited.] Under this rule the legislature of this State has enacted laws for the regulation of the occupations of physicians, dentists, pharmacy, and other occupations.

It is also well settled in this State that when a law operates equally upon all who fall under its operation, even though they constitute a class, the law is upheld.

The act under consideration in effect classifies the State into three districts: (1) All cities of the first, second, and third classes; (2) all other incorporated cities and towns; (3) all towns or places not incor-

porated. All barbers conducting their occupation in the latter class are exempted from the provisions of the act. All barbers in the second class, except those engaged at the time the act took effect, must pass an examination and pay \$5 for a certificate. All in the first class at the time the law took effect were entitled to a certificate authorizing them to continue the practice of their occupations upon filing an affidavit and paying \$1 therefor. All thereafter within the first and second classes, desiring to barber, must pass an examination and pay a fee of \$5. All barbers in the first class are subject also to certain restrictions as follows: They must not use the same towel on two different persons without having the same laundered. They must sterilize their tools before using them the second time, etc. Barbers as a class throughout the State are undoubtedly subject to different rules and restrictions under this act, but these restrictions depend upon the district in which they carry on their occupation. All who carry on their occupation in the same district are subject to the same laws and are treated alike. No privilege or immunity is granted to one which upon the same terms does not belong equally to all. Barbers as a class have no greater rights or privileges under the constitution than citizens as a class. If citizens may be classified into districts, and different regulations applied to citizens residing in one district from those residing in another, it certainly follows that a class of citizens such as barbers residing in one district may be governed by regulations different from those governing barbers residing in another district. It can not be doubted that the legislature may authorize by general act all cities of the first, second, and third classes, and all incorporated towns within the State, to regulate the occupation of barbering therein, or regulate any occupation affecting the health and morals of the community; that any such cities of the first class under such authority might properly pass an ordinance regulating the occupation of barbers, making the same requirements apply to all barbers within the city limits, requiring them to pay a license sufficient for the costs of maintaining the regulation, requiring them to pass an examination before a qualified board before they are permitted to practice their occupation, and requiring them to sterilize their towels and tools before using them, and other reasonable regulations. Cities of the second and third classes or incorporated towns under such authority might also each pass similar acts, but with different requirements and different charges for licenses, and no one would argue that, because the requirements in different cities were different, or the fees for licenses were different in different towns, or because certain towns had not regulated the occupation at all, the act was inimical to the constitutional provisions under discussion, for the reason that all barbers throughout the State were not placed upon the same terms. If the State may authorize cities and towns to make these regulations, the State may make them in the first instance, because cities and incorporated towns of the State are creatures of the State, and may be regulated by general law as well as by ordinance. For these reasons, we think the act is not repugnant to section 12 of article 1 of the constitution of this State, nor to the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

HOURS OF LABOR—STREET RAILWAYS—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*In re Ten-Hour Law for Street Railway Corporations, Supreme Court of Rhode Island, 54 Atlantic Reporter, page 602.*—The legislature of Rhode Island enacted, April 4, 1902, a law limiting the hours of labor of certain employees of street railway corporations to ten hours per day (see Bulletin of the Department of Labor No. 45, p. 432). There were certain exceptions which need not be cited here. A later enactment declared it to be the true intent and purpose of this law to limit the usual hours of labor, in the absence of agreement as to such hours between employees and their employer, to ten hours' actual work per day, to be performed within a period of twelve consecutive hours, with the provision that "nothing in this act contained shall be considered to forbid or prevent any such employee, being of the age of 21 years or upward, from laboring a greater or lesser number of hours a day in accordance with his contract so to do, nor to impose any penalty upon any person or corporation for permitting such employees to labor such greater or lesser number of hours in the performance of such work." The governor of Rhode Island submitted to the supreme court questions (1) as to the constitutionality of the law, and (2) as to whether there is anything in the provisions of the chapter "to make it illegal for a street railway corporation to make a contract with its employees to labor more than ten hours within the twenty-four hours of the natural day, and within twelve consecutive hours, except as provided in said chapter." The court, Judge Blodgett dissenting, submitted the following opinion in response to these questions:

Chapter 1004 of the Public Laws relates to the hours of labor on street railways. It therefore relates also to the exercise of public franchises upon public streets for public accommodation. When a law is made to affect corporations created by and subject to the legislative authority, it is held to be an amendment to the several charters and sustainable on that ground. A notable instance of this sort is found in the weekly payment law of 1891. The case of *State v. Brown & Sharpe Mfg. Co.*, 18 R. I. 16, 25 Atl. 246, 17 L. R. A. 856, so fully and carefully covered the scope and authority of such laws that we need not here repeat its reasoning. It was there decided that the law was not in violation of any of the constitutional provisions of the United States or of this State. The same reasoning is applicable to the statute in question, so far as it relates to corporations.

There is also a common assent that the legislature has the right of control in all matters affecting public safety, health, and welfare, on the ground that these are within the indefinable but unquestioned purview of what is known as the police power. It is indefinable, because none can foresee the ever-changing conditions which may call for its exercise; and it is unquestioned, because it is a necessary function of government to provide for the safety and welfare of the people. Private rights are often involved in its exercise, but a law is not on that account rendered invalid or unconstitutional. The first inquiry is whether the subject of the law is within the power; for, if it is, the legislature has jurisdiction to enact it, and its terms are subject to a reasonable legislative discretion.

The constitutionality of the law under consideration may also be sustained as an exercise of the police power of the legislature. In *Holden v. Hardy*, 169 U. S. 366, 18 Sup. Ct. 383, 42 L. Ed. 780, the Supreme Court of the United States held that a statute of Utah which limited the hours of labor in mines to eight hours per day, except in cases of emergency, was a valid exercise of the police power, and not in conflict with the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States. That decision goes much further than the question here presented, because the law affected cases based primarily on private contracts. The law before us is more clearly within such power, for the triple reason that it deals with public corporations, the use of a public franchise, and a provision for public safety. It has been held, in many cases, that any one of these grounds is sufficient to sustain an exercise of the police power. In answering your question, therefore, we have to look to possible objections to the details of the law, rather than to the affirmative authority of its scope.

It may be objected that it infringes the right of contract; but that objection is answered, by the decision above quoted, on the ground that the police power stands above private rights in matters affecting the public welfare. Also, as stated by this court in *State v. Dalton*, 22 R. I. 77, 46 Atl. 234, 48 L. R. A. 775, 84 Am. St. Rep. 818: "This inalienable right is trespassed upon and impaired whenever the legislature prohibits a man from carrying on his own business in his own way, provided always that the business and the mode of carrying it on are not injurious to the public, and provided, also, that it is not a business which is affected with a public use or interest." The law in question is clearly within the latter proviso.

It may also be objected that this law is not a proper exercise of the power, because it exempts from its operation cases of existing written contracts. Granting that the legislature has jurisdiction of the subject-matter, it must also be granted that it has reasonable discretion in acting upon it.

While there may be no obvious reason for exempting from the operation of the present statute cases of existing written contracts under which there might be as great danger to the public from the strain of excessive labor as in cases where there is no such contract, so, on the other hand, such exemption is not obviously arbitrary, partial, or oppressive. Assuming knowledge of the facts on the part of the legislature, it may be that written contracts were so few, or held by men of such experience and skill, or applicable to such conditions of labor, as to make the exemption reasonable and proper so far as the public are concerned.

It is a general rule that a law must apply equally to all of the class affected by it, and this law applies to all contracts for labor on street railroads other than those under existing written contracts. It is prospective in its operation, and as the written contracts expire it will embrace all.

The second question calls for a construction of the act with reference to the right to contract under it.

The first section forbids an officer of a company to exact more than 10 hours' work, from which an inference might arise that it could accept it if rendered voluntarily, as by contract. The second section, however, rebuts such an inference, for in that section the intent is explained as follows: "The true intent and purpose of this act is to

limit the usual hours of labor of the employees of street railway corporations, as aforesaid, to ten hours' actual work a day, to be performed within a period of twelve consecutive hours." This express intention to limit the hours is quite inconsistent with an inference to permit it by contract. If such an inference could stand, it would be possible for parties to avoid the act by their simple consent, and thus to render it a nullity. The apparent purpose of the act is not to create a right in favor of the employees, which they might waive, so much as to guard the public safety from service too prolonged for alertness in the exercise of reasonable care. If this be so, the public safety can not be made dependent upon private contracts.

We therefore reply to the second question of your excellency that it is illegal for a street railway company to make a contract with its employees to labor more than 10 hours within the 24 hours of the natural day, and within 12 hours, except as provided in said chapter.

MINIMUM WAGE LAW—LEGISLATIVE SUPERVISION OF MUNICIPAL CORPORATIONS—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Street v. Varney Electrical Supply Company, Supreme Court of Indiana, 66 Northeastern Reporter, page 895.*—This was an action brought by Frank L. Street against the above-named company to recover \$54, balance due for labor performed, and \$300 attorney's fees. Action was brought under the act of March 9, 1901, of the Indiana legislature, commonly called the "minimum wage law." This statute provides that unskilled labor upon any public work of the State, counties, cities, and towns shall receive not less than 20 cents an hour for such labor, and that any contractor or any person in charge of such work who shall violate the provisions of this law shall be subject to penalty of fine and imprisonment. The circuit court of Wayne County gave judgment against Street, and from this judgment he made an appeal to the supreme court, which affirmed the decision of the court below on the grounds of the unconstitutionality of the statute in question.

Judge Dowling, who delivered the opinion of the court, used, in part, the following language:

The act of March 9, 1901, undertakes to fix the minimum rate of compensation to be paid to a particular and limited class of laborers employed upon any public work of the State, counties, cities, and towns, without regard to the actual value of such labor, or the rate paid by other persons, natural or artificial, for the same kind of labor in the same vicinity. It is not contended, and it could not be maintained, that the restrictions in this act upon the right of contract would be valid if the act applied to the work and affairs of private citizens. Even if no express provision of any constitution forbade such legislative interference with the right of contract, it would be void, for the reason that the authority to fix by contract the prices to be paid for property, including human labor, is not ordinarily within the domain of legislation. But such enactments are also held to be in violation of section 1, art. 1, of the State constitution, securing to

every citizen of the State the inalienable right to personal liberty and to the pursuit of happiness.

But it is argued in support of the validity of the act that no specific provision of the Federal or State constitution inhibits this species of legislation, and that counties, cities, and towns are mere political and municipal subdivisions of the State, through which the government is administered. It is said that the State has the power to fix the salaries of its officers, and the wages it will pay to its agents and employees; therefore it has the right to declare what rate of wages shall be paid to the agents and employees of a county, city, or town employed upon any public work.

While the counties, cities, and towns are political and municipal subdivisions of the State, they are not governmental agencies in such sense as to subject the management of their local affairs, involving the making of contracts for labor and materials to be used upon local improvements, and the payment of the same out of the revenues of the county, city, or town, to the arbitrary and unlimited control of the legislature. They are corporations as well as political and governmental subdivisions and agencies, and, as such corporations, they have the power to make contracts by which the rate of compensation for property sold to them is fixed. With regard to such contracts for the purchase of property or the employment of labor, counties, cities, and towns stand much upon the same footing as private corporations; and they can not be compelled by an act of the legislature to pay for any species of property more than it is worth, or more than its market value at the time and in the place where it is contracted for. The power to confiscate the property of the citizens and taxpayers of a county, city, or town, by forcing them to pay for any commodity, whether it be merchandise or labor, an arbitrary price, in excess of the market value, is not one of the powers of the legislature over municipal corporations, nor the legitimate use of such corporations as agencies of the State.

The judge then cited among other cases those of *People ex rel. Rodgers v. Coler* (see Bulletin of the Department of Labor No. 35, p. 805), and of the *City of Cleveland v. Clements Bros. Construction Co.* (see Bulletin of the Department of Labor No. 47, p. 941). Continuing, he said:

If the legislature has the right to fix the minimum rate of wages to be paid for common labor, then it has the power to fix the maximum rate. And if it can regulate the price of labor, it may also regulate the prices of flour, fuel, merchandise, and land. But these are powers which have never been conceded to the legislature, and their exercise by the State would be utterly inconsistent with our ideas of civil liberty.

The statute of March 9, 1901, is obnoxious to the further objection that through its operation a citizen may be deprived of his property without due process of law. If the minimum price to be paid by municipal subdivisions of the State for unskilled labor on public works exceeds the rate at which such labor can be obtained by other persons at the same place, then the excess so paid for labor on public improvements is taken from the citizens assessed for such works, not by due process of law, but by a mere legislative fiat. The citizens of the

State, who must, through assessments made upon their property, pay for the public works of counties, cities, and towns, are entitled to have such work done at such rate of wages as the local agents and official representatives of such municipal subdivisions of the State may be able to secure by contract. They can not be required arbitrarily to pay higher wages than laborers employed on private works or improvements in their particular district demand, any more than they could be compelled by similar legislation to pay a minimum rate of wages to laborers employed by them in their private business. If the minimum rate fixed by the statute exceeds the market value of such wages, the excess is a mere donation exacted under color of law from the citizens liable to assessment for the public improvement, and bestowed upon the unskilled laborer. Public revenues can not be applied in this way. (*McClelland v. State*, 138 Ind. 321, 37 N. E. 1089; *State v. City of Indianapolis*, 69 Ind. 375, 35 Am. Rep. 223; *Warner v. Curran*, 75 Ind. 309.)

Lastly, we think the statute obnoxious to the objection of class legislation. In fixing the minimum rate of wages to be paid for unskilled labor to be employed by counties, cities, and towns on public improvements, a classification is made which is unnatural and unconstitutional. The laboring men of the State may, for some purposes, constitute a class concerning which particular legislation may be proper. This classification has been recognized and sustained in statutes requiring the payment of wages in lawful money of the United States, forbidding the assignment of future and unearned wages, and in similar acts. But no legal and sufficient reason can be assigned for placing unskilled labor in a class by itself for the purpose of fixing by law the minimum rate of wages at which it shall be employed by counties, cities, and towns on their public works. No sufficient reason has been assigned why the wages of the unskilled laborer should be fixed by law, and maintained at an unalterable rate, regardless of their actual value, and that all other laborers should be left to secure to themselves such compensation for their work as the conditions of supply and demand, competition, personal qualities, energy, skill, and experience may enable them to do.

After the most careful and thorough examination of all the questions of law presented by the demurrer in this case, we are satisfied that the ruling of the lower court was not erroneous, and its judgment is therefore affirmed.

WEEKLY WAGE LAW—POLICE POWER—CONSTITUTIONALITY OF STATUTE—*Republic Iron and Steel Company v. State*, *Supreme Court of Indiana*, 66 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 1005.—This was an action by the State of Indiana to secure the enforcement of the "weekly wage law," enacted February 28, 1899. This law provided that every person, company, corporation, or association, except common carriers engaged in interstate commerce, should make weekly payments, in lawful money of the United States, for the full amount due their employees within six days or less of the time of such payment, under penalty of 50 per cent of the amount due and unpaid, to be assessed

and collected for the benefit of the school fund of the State. The enforcement of this law was put in the hands of the department of inspection, or, upon its failure to act, any citizen of the State might bring action in the name of the State. Judgment had been rendered against the above-named company in the circuit court of Delaware County, and from this the company appealed. The facts were not in dispute, the question being as to the constitutionality of the law. The supreme court reversed the judgment of the court below, holding that the above statute was in contravention of the provisions of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States and also of the State constitution. Judge Hadley, in delivering the opinion of the court, used in part the following language:

The attorney-general endeavors to justify the law upon two grounds: (1) The wage-earners are not upon an equal footing with employers, and opportunities for oppression and consequent public suffering ensue; and (2) thrift being beneficial to the community, it should be encouraged by enabling workmen to pay cash for current demands, which can only be done by requiring frequent payment of wages. Assuming all these things to be true, they do not of themselves justify the arbitrary invasion of the personal rights and liberty of the citizen. Liberty to contract on one's own terms, to decide for himself his own employment, to buy and sell, to exchange one belonging for another, are among his most valuable and cherished rights.

Is the statute in question a reasonable regulation, and reasonable in its operation upon the persons whom it affects? The contract prohibited affects employer and employee alike. If the master can employ only upon terms of weekly payment, the workman can find employment on no other terms. It will be observed that the statute gives the parties no choice—no right to waive the provisions of the law. The language is, "Every person, company or corporation, employing any person to labor, shall make weekly payments for the full amount due for such labor, and the chief inspector, or any person interested, may bring suit in the name of the State, against any person, company or corporation that neglects or refuses to comply within ten days after such payment is due and left unpaid." The obvious intention of the Legislature was to make contracts for persons that they would not in all cases make for themselves, and to forbid the making of contracts that they would make. The laborer may be the chief sufferer. His labor may be the only means of supplying himself and family, but by this law he is denied the right to work, and another the right to employ him, unless he can be paid once a week. Any law or policy that disables the citizen from making a contract whereby he may find lawful, needed, and satisfactory employment is unreasonable. It may be that the workman will desire and request his employer, as conducive to economy and saving, to keep back all wages not needed for current necessities. Whether he leaves his surplus earnings with his employer, or deposits them with the building and loan association or with the savings bank, involves no public interest and affects no public concern. Yet, according to this statute, if, in a fair and open agreement, the employer "neglects or refuses" to pay the full amount earned for a period of 10 days after due, the chief inspector may, if he disapproves

the arrangement (and upon his failure to act any citizen of the State may) sue, without the consent and even over the protest of the workman, in the name of the State, and not only compel payment, but mulct the employer in a 50 per centum penalty for making an honest effort to favor his employee.

The statute places the wage-earners of the State under quasi guardianship. It classes them with minors and other persons under legal disability, by making their contracts void at the pleasure of a public officer. It tends to degrade them as citizens, by impeaching their ability to take care of themselves. It is paternalism, pure and simple, and in violent conflict with the liberty and equality theory of our institutions. It is no argument to say that our assumption is unreasonable, and that the inspector is not likely to interfere in such cases. Whether he will or not is unimportant. In discussing the constitutionality of the act in question, it is to be determined not by what has been done or is likely to be done under it, but what may be done under and by virtue of its authority. We do not assert that the legislature is powerless to regulate the payment of wages when the same are paid at unreasonable periods, or that a community composed largely of workmen may not be injuriously affected by unduly delayed payments, for these questions are not before us; but what we do hold is that this statute, which takes away from both the employer and employee, whether in the shop, in the store, or on the farm, all power to contract for labor, except upon terms of weekly payment of wages in cash, is an unreasonable, and therefore an unconstitutional, restriction.

It is also contended that appellant, being an employer, and not an employee, can only raise such questions as involve the rights of employers, and that the constitutional right of a laborer to contract to do lawful work upon terms satisfactory to him can not be questioned or appropriated by an employer as a defense; thus applying to contracting parties the rule affirmed in *Railroad v. Montgomery*, 152 Ind. 1, 13, 49 N. E. 582, 71 Am. St. Rep. 301, and many other cases. We are unwilling to admit that this is a proper case for the application of the rule, since we are unable to see how the result may be different, whether the laborer is disqualified from entering into a contract of employment, or the employer disqualified from making it. In either view, the contract which the parties desire to make is prevented, and both parties mutually and equally affected by the interdiction.

The foregoing conclusions lead us to conclude that the act in controversy, so far as it relates to the question herein involved, is in violation of section 1, art. 1, of the State constitution, commonly known as the "Bill of Rights", and of the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, denying a State the power to deprive a person of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, and the demurrer to the complaint should have been sustained.

DECISIONS UNDER COMMON LAW.

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY—RAILROAD COMPANIES—RULES—*Devoe v. New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company*, Court of Appeals of New York, 66 *Northeastern Reporter*, page 568.—In this case Jeanette E. Devoe sued the railroad company above named to recover damages for the death of William H. Devoe, an inspector

in its employ. The trial court gave judgment for the plaintiff, which, on appeal, was reversed by the appellate division of the supreme court and a new trial granted. The plaintiff, Devoe, then appealed to the court of appeals, which reversed the decision of the appellate division and affirmed the judgment of the court below. Judge Haight presented a dissenting opinion, in which Judge Parker concurred, holding that the sufficiency of rules was a question for the court and not for the jury. The facts in the case were, briefly, that William H. Devoe was an inspector of cars employed at Syracuse, and that at the time of the accident which caused his death he was engaged in inspecting the cars of a passenger train, from which the engine had been detached. While he was between the cars, a switching engine backed up to the train which he was inspecting, for the purpose of coupling thereto, and he was caught by the motion of the cars and crushed. The question considered by the court was as to the sufficiency of the rules adopted by the railroad company and the nature of the evidence introduced.

Judge Vann announced the decision of the court, discussing first, the sufficiency of the evidence in the following language:

Several witnesses who had been employed as inspectors upon other railroads were called by the plaintiff to show what rules had been provided by the companies operating those roads for the protection of car inspectors. In each instance a book containing the rules of the particular company for which the witness had worked was produced by the plaintiff and shown to him. In several instances it did not appear by the date upon the title page whether it purported to be the edition in force while he had so worked or not, but he testified that the rule appearing in the book upon the subject was in force, if not during the entire period of his employment, at least during the last part thereof. To the question whether that rule was in force upon the railroad in question while the witness was employed by it, the defendant objected upon the ground that it was not the best evidence, and now insists that the plaintiff should have produced "the actual edition of the book of rules in force during the term of the witness' employment." We think the exception to the rulings which allowed such questions to be answered raises no error. It was competent to show any rule relating to the subject recently in force upon another railroad. The witness in each instance testified that the rule was in force while he worked on such road and when he left it. It was competent to show by parol from the actual knowledge and recollection of the witness the rule actually enforced while he was in the employment of another railroad, and to use any edition of the company's rules to refresh his recollection. It was unnecessary to produce the manuscript of the rules as written, or the book printed therefrom. Reasoning is illogical when it leads to an absurdity.

Judge Vann then reviewed a portion of the charge to the jury in which, among other things, the trial judge had said that it was a question for the jury to decide as to whether or not a rule which was testified to by the foreman in charge of the yard at Syracuse was a proper and sufficient rule with reference to the inspection of cars. To

this instruction the defendants excepted, and on this point Judge Vann said:

When the business of a master is such that the safety of one servant depends upon the way in which other servants do their work, it is his duty to make, promulgate, and enforce reasonable and sufficient rules for the protection of the servant exposed to danger. The situation at the Syracuse station of the defendant was somewhat complicated at the time of the accident in question. There were many tracks, switches, and branches. Between 50 and 60 trains came and went every day, and the car inspectors were required to inspect the wheels, running gear, couplings, safety chains, and other appliances belonging to each car of each train. There was much movement of trains at the station from one track to another; cars were taken out of one train and put into others; shifting of various kinds was done; trains were made up; and while all this was going on other trains were constantly coming in and going out. The work of car inspection is dangerous, and the necessity for rules to protect the inspectors so obvious as to be scarcely disputed. A rule known as "No. 38" had been made and promulgated by the company in the following form: "A blue flag by day and a blue light by night, placed on the end of the car, engine or train, denote that workmen are at work under or about the car, engine or train. The car, engine or train thus protected must not be coupled to, or moved or other cars placed in front of it, until the blue signal is removed by the person who placed it." The rule, as quoted above, was the only rule upon the subject made or promulgated by the company, but it is conceded that it was never enforced. It is also conceded that, if it had been enforced on the occasion in question, the plaintiff's intestate would not have been injured. Several inspectors had been injured at the Syracuse station while in the discharge of their duties prior to the accident in question, others had narrowly escaped injury, and many complaints had been made by employees as to the danger attending the work of inspection.

While the defendant was without any printed rule upon the subject, except the one quoted, which was a dead letter, because it was not enforced, its foreman of the car department testified that he, without instructions from the company, or from any superior officer, had established a practice by verbal directions to certain employees, which, in his opinion, afforded ample protection. According to his testimony, which was not corroborated, he required the inspectors not to go under the cars to inspect, and whenever they had any repairing to do which compelled them to go under to notify the depot master, whereupon he was to inform the engineer of the shifting engine and the engineer in charge of the engine of the train not to move their engines without orders. He further required that the entire crew of the train be notified that the inspectors were at work, and that one man should be stationed by the engine to take signals and another at the end of the car being repaired to give warning in case of danger. According to the practice, as testified to by him, and there was no other evidence for the defendant upon the subject of rules, even if repairs were to be made between or under the cars, which would take but a single minute, such as screwing on a nut or tightening a chain, still this tedious and indirect process was to be resorted to. At times there would be difficulty in promptly finding the depot master, or, in his absence, his

representative. At times, also, it would be difficult to find men not otherwise engaged to act as watchers at the engine and at the car under reparation. The delay and difficulty in enforcing the rule was a temptation to employees to disregard it and run the risk. It lacked the simplicity and adequacy of the blue signal rule, which, as it was shown, is in force on six leading railroads. The existence of that unenforced rule, printed in the books furnished to engineers and others, tended to produce confusion. A rule to protect employees should be so framed as to guard them to a reasonable extent against the consequences not only of the carelessness of coemployees, but of their own carelessness also. It is known of all that men are prone to run risks in order to save time and trouble, especially when the risk lasts but a moment, and the precaution necessary to guard against it requires a considerable period of time. The duty of the master in making rules, is measured by the law of ordinary diligence. That law varies with the situation, for what would be ordinary diligence under one set of facts would be negligence in another. If, however, under the circumstances of a particular case, the master has met the obligation of ordinary diligence in making and enforcing a rule, he is free from liability, even if some other rule would have been safer and better. While the law requires him to make and promulgate reasonably safe and proper rules, if he does so, he is not liable, even if he might have made safer and more effective rules. If a rule is actually made, the question still remains whether it is proper and sufficient, under the circumstances; for due diligence is not satisfied by an insufficient and inadequate rule. There was no discretion, as in the cases relied upon by the defendant, to make rules or not, as it saw fit. The reasonableness of rules made for the protection of the master's interest is quite different from the sufficiency of rules made to protect human life. The former involves simple inconvenience to the public if the rules are unreasonable, while the latter involves the lives of the employees. It may be that where the situation is simple, and entirely free from complications, the sufficiency of rules made even to protect employees would be a question of law. When, however, as in this case, the situation was complicated, owing to the large number of tracks and trains, and the rule was not only verbal, leaving its enforcement to the unaided recollection of a simple announcement, but the delay in finding the depot master, the difficulty of getting men to act as watchmen, the danger of taking them from other employment, and the temptation to run a momentary risk rather than to consume time in order to be safe, were so great that the question of the sufficiency of the verbal instructions was for the jury. [Cases cited.]

It is said that it is inexpedient to leave such questions to the jury, as different juries might find diverse verdicts upon the same evidence, and thus there would be no uniformity. The objection is not without reason, but it is not controlling. It applies with equal force to the subject of the necessity for rules, which is clearly for the jury when the evidence is sufficient to raise the question. What is reasonable and proper under a complicated state of facts permitting diverse inferences is a question of fact.

After examining all the exceptions which are open to review by us, we find none to justify the reversal by the appellate division. Their judgment should therefore be reversed, and that of the trial court affirmed, with costs in all courts.

INJUNCTION—VIOLATION—PICKETING—*George Jonas Glass Company v. Glass Blowers' Association of the United States and Canada et al., Court of Chancery of New Jersey, 54 Atlantic Reporter, page 567.*—This was an application by the George Jonas Glass Company asking for the punishment of the defendants for the violation of an injunction. The facts appear sufficiently in the ruling made by Vice-Chancellor Grey, which is as follows:

The petition in this matter asks that certain defendants may be adjudged to be guilty of contempt because of their action on September 17, 1902, in alleged breach of a restraining order of this court made on the 7th day of July, 1902. The order restrains the defendants from attempting to prevent any person, by threats, intimidation, annoying language or acts, force or violence, from entering the service of the complainant, and from congregating for the purpose of intimidating, threatening, or coercing any person seeking employment of complainant, etc. An order to show cause was allowed, and testimony in open court was taken in support of and in opposition to the charges of the petition. The petitioner's testimony is that two men, named Mingin and Noble, had been told that, if they applied at the works of the complainant company, they could probably get employment. They approached the complainant's factory by walking along the railroad which passes by it. They were met by two or three men, apparently strikers, one of whom asked whether they were going to the factory to work. They denied that they were, and proceeded towards the factory; several of the strikers accompanying them nearly to the gates. They went into the factory without interference or molestation of any sort. They then left the factory to go to the house of a Mr. Schaible. Three or four other men went ahead of them, and some followed them on bicycles; no conversation passing between them. They were unable to find Mr. Schaible's house, and returned to the factory without hindrance from any one; some of those who had accompanied them going before and some behind them, at distance varying from 25 to 75 yards. At the factory they stated their inability to find Schaible's house, and started out again with a Mr. Dare to find it. They testify that they were now followed, at some yards' distance, by a considerable number of men on bicycles and afoot. When they were going across a lot, one of these men threw an apple at them, and, Mingin says, called Mr. Dare a foul name. Noble says, if he understood them aright, the men called foul names after all of them. When they got to the Schaible house, Mingin, Noble, and Dare went into the house, while the men who followed remained outside. One of the latter came to the door, and wanted to talk to Mingin and Noble. Mingin went to the door, and was asked by the man if he was going to work at the factory. Mingin again told him that he "didn't know as he was." Mr. Schaible and the men then had some words, and one of the latter pulled off his coat and invited Schaible to fight. The two—Mingin and Noble—stayed in the house three-quarters of an hour, and then left by a back door. Neither Mingin nor Noble was hired to work at the factory, and both declared they were afraid to stay. Their testimony is flatly contradicted by that of a large number of witnesses who deny the use of any opprobrious words or threats. It is shown by the testimony of Mingin and Noble themselves that they had been drinking when

they came to Minotola, and the proof strongly indicates that they were considerably under the influence of liquor. They admit that they told the first man they met that they did not mean to apply for work at the complainant's factory, and that they afterwards repeated this statement at Mr. Schaible's house. There is no pretense of proof that there was in fact any interference seeking to prevent the two men from entering the complainant's factory. They went into the factory twice without any attempt on the part of any one to stop or molest them. The testimony as to a showing of hostility to Mingin and Noble is by words only, which might, of course, be sufficient, if proven by the weight of the evidence. But the evidence given by the complainant's own witnesses as to the words used is neither consistent nor clear in stating what was said, and it is flatly contradicted by numbers of witnesses who were in the party, or followers of it.

There is but one element in the proofs which leads me to hesitate in disposing of this motion, and that is on the charge that there was a congregating of a large number of men for the purpose of intimidating those who might wish to seek employment at the complainant's factory. There can be no question, taking the whole case together, that at and near the complainant's factory a system of picketing has been inaugurated. All of the approaches to Mr. Jonas' factory are watched by these men, who frankly say that they propose to persuade (as they say, peaceably) anybody from taking employment in the factory. I have not been invited to declare that mere peaceable picketing of public roads is in itself a breach of the restraint. I am not prepared to say, if that question were under consideration, that men may not, under the law, stand in the public road and try in a peaceable way to persuade other people not to take work in a factory. The proof on the point of the assemblage of a number of persons for the purpose of intimidating persons seeking the complainant's employment was uncertain and variant as to their number, and still more so as to their purpose. Noble and Mingin themselves differ as to their number, and do not show that at any time the followers approached at all nearly to them—apparently not near enough for them to distinguish their remarks with any certainty. On this point, however, the testimony comes nearer to showing a breach of the restraint than on any other line of the examination. I make this judgment with some hesitation, but, considering the weight of all the testimony, I am not able to say that a breach has been shown.

LAWS OF VARIOUS STATES RELATING TO LABOR ENACTED SINCE JANUARY 1, 1896.

[The Second Special Report of this Bureau 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.]

CALIFORNIA.

ACTS OF 1903.

CHAPTER 11.—*Employment agencies.*

SECTION 1. Any person, firm, corporation, or association pursuing for profit the business of furnishing, directly or indirectly, to persons seeking employment, information enabling, or tending to enable, such persons to secure such employment, or registering for any fee, charge, or commission the names of any person seeking employment as aforesaid, shall be deemed to be an employment agent within the meaning of this act.

SEC. 2. It shall be unlawful for an employment agent in the State of California to receive, directly or indirectly, any money or other valuable consideration from any person seeking employment, for any information or assistance furnished or to be furnished by said agent to such person, enabling or tending to enable said person to secure such employment, prior to the time at which said information or assistance is actually thus furnished.

SEC. 3. It shall be unlawful for an employment agent in the State of California to retain, directly or indirectly, any money or other valuable consideration received for any registration made or for information or assistance such as is described in section two hereof, if the person for whom such registration is made or to whom such information or assistance is furnished fails, through no neglect or laches of his own, to secure the employment regarding which registration such information or assistance is furnished; and said money or consideration shall be by said agent forthwith returned to the payer of the same, upon demand therefor by the latter or his agent.

SEC. 4. It shall be unlawful for an employment agent in the State of California to receive, directly or indirectly for registration made or for information or assistance such as is described in section two hereof, any money or other consideration which is in value in excess of ten per cent of the amount earned, or prospectively to be earned, by the person for whom said registration is made or to whom such information is furnished, through the medium of the employment regarding which such registration, information or assistance is given, during the first month of such employment: *Provided*, That said value shall not be in excess of ten per cent of the amount actually prospectively to be earned in such employment when it is mutually understood by the agent and person in this section mentioned, at the time when said information or assistance is furnished, that said employment is to be for a period of less than one month.

SEC. 5. The tax collector or license collector of each respective city, county or city and county of the State of California shall furnish quarterly, to the commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics of the State of California the name and address of each employment agent doing business in said city, county or city and county: *Provided*, That where the license is not a county license, but is collected by a municipal government, then the municipal collector of said tax shall furnish the names and addresses.

SEC. 6. Each employment agent in the State of California shall keep a written record, which shall show the name of each person making application to said agent for registration, information or assistance, such as is described in section two hereof; the name of each such person to whom such registration or information is furnished; and the amount received in each such case therefor; the name of each person who, having received and paid for, as herein contemplated, registration, information or

assistance such as is described in section two hereof, fails to secure the employment regarding which such registration, information or assistance is furnished, together with the reason why said employment was not by said person secured, and the name of each person to whom return is made, in accordance with the provisions of section three hereof, of any money or other consideration such as is in said section named, together with the amount of said money, or the value of said consideration, thus returned.

SEC. 7. Each employment agent in the State of California shall permit the commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics of said State, by himself, or by his deputies or agents, to have at all times access to, and to inspect, the record in section six hereof named, and upon demand in writing therefor by said commissioner, shall furnish to such commissioner a true copy of said record, or of such portion thereof as said demand in writing shall require a copy of to be thus furnished.

SEC. 8. Any employment agent or other person violating, or omitting to comply with, any of the provisions of this act, shall be deemed guilty of misdemeanor, and upon conviction shall be punished by fine not exceeding five hundred (500) dollars, or by imprisonment not exceeding six (6) months, or by both such fine and imprisonment in the discretion of the court.

[Approved February 12, 1903.]

CHAPTER 12.—*Seats for female employees.*

SECTION 1. Section five of an act * * * approved February sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-nine, is amended to read as follows:

Section 5. Every person, firm, or corporation employing females in any manufacturing, mechanical, or mercantile establishment shall provide suitable seats for the use of the females so employed, and shall provide such seats to the number of at least one-third the number of females so employed; and shall permit the use of such seats by them when they are not necessarily engaged in the active duties for which they are employed.

[Approved February 12, 1903.]

CHAPTER 107.—*Hours of labor on public works.*

SECTION 1. The time of service of any laborer, workman, or mechanic employed upon any of the public works of the State of California, or of any political subdivision thereof, or upon work done for said State, or any political subdivision thereof, is hereby limited and restricted to eight hours during any one calendar day; and it shall be unlawful for any officer or agent of said State, or of any political subdivision thereof, or for any contractor or subcontractor doing work under contract upon any public works aforesaid, who employs, or who directs or controls, the work of any laborer, workman or mechanic, employed as herein aforesaid, to require or permit such laborer, workman, or mechanic, to labor more than eight hours during any one calendar day, except in cases of extraordinary emergency, caused by fire, flood, or danger to life or property, or except to work upon public military or naval defenses or works in time of war.

SEC. 2. Any officer or agent of the State of California, or of any political subdivision thereof, making or awarding, as such officer or agent, any contract, the execution of which involves or may involve the employment of any laborer, workman, or mechanic upon any of the public works, or upon any work, hereinbefore mentioned, shall cause to be inserted therein a stipulation which shall provide that the contractor to whom said contract is awarded shall forfeit, as a penalty, to the State or political subdivision in whose behalf the contract is made and awarded, ten (10) dollars for each laborer, workman, or mechanic employed, in the execution of said contract, by him, or by any subcontractor under him, upon any of the public works, or upon any work, hereinbefore mentioned, for each calendar day during which such laborer, workman, or mechanic is required or permitted to labor more than eight hours in violation of the provisions of this act; and it shall be the duty of such officer or agent to take cognizance of all violations of the provisions of said act committed in the course of the execution of said contract, and to report the same to the representative of the State or political subdivision, party to the contract, authorized to pay to said contractor moneys becoming due to him under the said contract, and said representative, when making payments of moneys thus due, shall withhold and retain therefrom all sums and amounts which shall have been forfeited pursuant to the herein said stipulation.

SEC. 3. Any officer, agent, or representative of the State of California, or of any political subdivision thereof, who shall violate any of the provisions of this act, shall

be deemed guilty of misdemeanor, and shall upon conviction be punished by fine not exceeding five hundred (500) dollars, or by imprisonment, not exceeding six (6) months, or by both such fine and imprisonment, in the discretion of the court.
[Approved March 10, 1903.]

CHAPTER 151.—*Examination and licensing of barbers.*

SECTION 1. An act entitled an act to regulate the practice of barbering, the registering and licensing of persons to carry on such practice, and to insure the better education and promote competency and skill among such practitioners in the State of California, approved February 20, 1901, is hereby repealed.
[Approved March 16, 1903.]

CHAPTER 193 [adding a new section to the Penal Code].—*Protection of employees on buildings.*

SECTION 402½. Any person or corporation employing or directing another to do or perform any labor in the construction, alteration, repairing, painting or cleaning of any house, building or structure within this State, who knowingly or negligently furnishes or erects or causes to be furnished or erected for the performance of such labor, unsafe or improper scaffolding, slings, hangers, blocks, pulleys, stays, braces, ladders, irons, ropes or other mechanical contrivances, or who hinders or obstructs any officer attempting to inspect the same under the provisions of section 12 of "An act to establish and support a bureau of labor statistics," or who destroys, defaces or removes any notice posted thereon by such officer or permits the use thereof, after the same has been declared unsafe by such officer, contrary to the provisions of said section 12 of said act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor.
[Approved March 19, 1903.]

CHAPTER 220.—*Employment of labor—Assumption of risk.*

SECTION 1. Section nineteen hundred and seventy of the Civil Code of the State of California is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

1970. An employer is not bound to indemnify his employee for losses suffered by the latter in consequence of the ordinary risks of the business in which he is employed, nor in consequence of the negligence of another person employed by the same employer in the same general business, unless the negligence causing the injury was committed in the performance of a duty the employer owes by law to the employee, or unless the employer has neglected to use ordinary care in the selection of the culpable employee.

[Approved March 20, 1903.]

CHAPTER 229.—*Employment of labor—False representations.*

SECTION 1. It shall be unlawful for any person, partnership, company, corporation, association, or organization of any kind, doing business in this State directly or through any agent or attorney, to induce, influence, persuade, or engage any person to change from one place to another in this State or to change from any place in any State, territory, or country to any place in this State, to work in any branch of labor, through or by means of knowingly false representations, whether spoken, written, or advertised in printed form, concerning the kind or character of such work, the compensation therefor, the sanitary conditions relating to or surrounding it, or the existence or nonexistence of any strike, lockout, or other labor dispute affecting it and pending between the proposed employer or employers and the persons then or last theretofore engaged in the performance of the labor for which the employee is sought.

SEC. 2. Any violation of section one or section two hereof shall be deemed a misdemeanor, and shall be punished by a fine of not exceeding two thousand dollars or by imprisonment for not more than one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.
[Approved March 20, 1903.]

CHAPTER 235.—*Labor combinations not unlawful.*

SECTION 1. No agreement, combination, or contract by or between two or more persons to do or procure to be done, or not to do or procure not to be done, any act in contemplation or furtherance of any trade dispute between employers and employees in the State of California shall be deemed criminal, nor shall those engaged therein be indictable or otherwise punishable for the crime of conspiracy, if such act

committed by one person would not be punishable as a crime, nor shall such agreement, combination, or contract be considered as in restraint of trade or commerce, nor shall any restraining order or injunction be issued with relation thereto. Nothing in this act shall exempt from punishment, otherwise than as herein excepted, any persons guilty of conspiracy, for which punishment is now provided by any act of the legislature, but such act of the legislature shall, as to the agreements, combinations, and contracts hereinbefore referred to, be construed as if this act were therein contained: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall be construed to authorize force or violence, or threats thereof.

[Approved March 20, 1903.]

GEORGIA.

ACTS OF 1902.

Act No. 96.—*Emigrant agents.*

(Page 19.)

SECTION 2. * * * The following specific taxes shall be levied and collected for each of said fiscal years.

Tenth.—Upon each emigrant agent, or employer or employee of such agents, doing business in this State, the sum of five hundred dollars for each county in which such business is conducted.

Approved December 16, 1902.

VERMONT.

ACTS OF 1902.

Act No. 90.—*Sale of liquor to employees.*

SECTION 24. * * * No liquor shall be sold or otherwise furnished * * * to a person whose * * * employer has given notice in writing to the licensee forbidding sale to such person.

SEC. 83. A licensee who knowingly sells intoxicating liquors to one having the habit of drinking such liquors to excess, after having received notice in writing not to sell to him, shall forfeit one hundred dollars for each offense, to be recovered by the husband, wife, parent, child, guardian, or employer of such person in an action on the case. But such action shall not be had unless commenced within two years from the time of the alleged offense.

SEC. 84. * * * An employer or other person who is injured in person, property or means of support by an intoxicated person, or in consequence of the intoxication, habitual or otherwise, of any person, shall have a right of action * * * against any person or persons who by selling or giving intoxicating liquor have caused in whole or in part such intoxication; * * *

Approved December 11, 1902.

Act No. 90.—*Employment of women and minors in barrooms.*

SECTION 24. * * * No female [shall] be employed on the premises or in the room in which the license is operated.

No male person under the age of twenty-one [shall] be employed therein.

The two prohibitions last named shall not apply to hotels, common victuallers or pharmacists holding a license of the fifth class [druggist's license].

Approved December 11, 1902.

Act No. 158.—*Payment of wages.*

SECTION 1. Any person, corporation or business firm using checks, other than bank checks, slips, due bills, or other device to represent money in payment of wages or any other debt or obligation due to any employee or servant of such person, corporation or business firm, shall pay the face value of such checks, slips, due bills or other device, in current money of the United States to the holder thereof on the regular pay days of such person, corporation or business firm, and such checks, slips, due bills or other device shall be redeemable at intervals of not more than one month: *Provided, however*, That if any such employee or servant be discharged during the

month, said checks, slips, due bills and other device shall be redeemed at their face value, in current money of the United States on the day of his discharge.

SEC. 2. Any person, corporation or business firm refusing to redeem any of its obligations as above provided, shall forfeit twice the face value in an action on this statute.

SEC. 3. This act shall take effect from its passage.

Approved December 12, 1902.

UNITED STATES.

ACTS OF CONGRESS OF 1902-1903.

CHAPTER 552.—*Department of Commerce and Labor.*

SECTION 1. There shall be at the seat of government an executive department to be known as the Department of Commerce and Labor, and a Secretary of Commerce and Labor, who shall be the head thereof, who shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, who shall receive a salary of eight thousand dollars per annum, and whose term and tenure of office shall be like that of the heads of the other Executive Departments; * * *

SEC. 2. There shall be in said Department an Assistant Secretary of Commerce and Labor, to be appointed by the President, who shall receive a salary of five thousand dollars a year. He shall perform such duties as shall be prescribed by the Secretary or required by law. There shall also be one chief clerk and a disbursing clerk and such other clerical assistants as may from time to time be authorized by Congress; * * *

SEC. 3. It shall be the province and duty of said Department to foster, promote, and develop the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishery industries, the labor interests, and the transportation facilities of the United States; and to this end it shall be vested with jurisdiction and control of the departments, bureaus, offices, and branches of the public service hereinafter specified, and with such other powers and duties as may be prescribed by law. * * *

SEC. 4. The following-named offices, bureaus, divisions, and branches of the public service, now and heretofore under the jurisdiction of the Department of the Treasury, and all that pertains to the same, known as the Light-House Board, the Light-House Establishment, the Steamboat-Inspection Service, the Bureau of Navigation, the United States Shipping Commissioners, the National Bureau of Standards, the Coast and Geodetic Survey, the Commissioner-General of Immigration, the commissioners of immigration, the Bureau of Immigration, the immigration service at large, and the Bureau of Statistics, be, and the same hereby are, transferred from the Department of the Treasury to the Department of Commerce and Labor, and the same shall hereafter remain under the jurisdiction and supervision of the last-named Department; and that the Census Office, and all that pertains to the same, be, and the same hereby is, transferred from the Department of the Interior to the Department of Commerce and Labor, to remain henceforth under the jurisdiction of the latter; that the Department of Labor, the Fish Commission, and the Office of Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, and all that pertains to the same, be, and the same hereby are, placed under the jurisdiction and made a part of the Department of Commerce and Labor; that the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, now in the Department of State, be, and the same hereby is, transferred to the Department of Commerce and Labor and consolidated with and made a part of the Bureau of Statistics, hereinbefore transferred from the Department of the Treasury to the Department of Commerce and Labor, and the two shall constitute one bureau, to be called the Bureau of Statistics, with a chief of the bureau; and that the Secretary of Commerce and Labor shall have control of the work of gathering and distributing statistical information naturally relating to the subjects confided to his Department; and the Secretary of Commerce and Labor is hereby given the power and authority to rearrange the statistical work of the bureaus and offices confided to said Department, and to consolidate any of the statistical bureaus and offices transferred to said Department; and said Secretary shall also have authority to call upon other Departments of the Government for statistical data and results obtained by them; and said Secretary of Commerce and Labor may collate, arrange, and publish such statistical information so obtained in such manner as to him may seem wise. * * *

SEC. 5. There shall be in the Department of Commerce and Labor a bureau to be called the Bureau of Manufactures, and a chief of said bureau, who shall be appointed by the President, and who shall receive a salary of four thousand dollars per annum. There shall also be in said bureau such clerical assistants as may from time to time

be authorized by Congress. It shall be the province and duty of said bureau, under the direction of the Secretary, to foster, promote, and develop the various manufacturing industries of the United States, and markets for the same at home and abroad, domestic and foreign, by gathering, compiling, publishing, and supplying all available and useful information concerning such industries and such markets, and by such other methods and means as may be prescribed by the Secretary or provided by law. * * *

SEC. 6. There shall be in the Department of Commerce and Labor a bureau to be called the Bureau of Corporations, and a Commissioner of Corporations who shall be the head of said bureau, to be appointed by the President, who shall receive a salary of five thousand dollars per annum. There shall also be in said bureau a deputy commissioner who shall receive a salary of three thousand five hundred dollars per annum, and who shall in the absence of the Commissioner act as, and perform the duties of, the Commissioner of Corporations, and who shall also perform such other duties as may be assigned to him by the Secretary of Commerce and Labor or by the said Commissioner. There shall also be in the said bureau a chief clerk and such special agents, clerks, and other employees as may be authorized by law.

The said Commissioner shall have power and authority to make, under the direction and control of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, diligent investigation into the organization, conduct, and management of the business of any corporation, joint stock company or corporate combination engaged in commerce among the several States and with foreign nations excepting common carriers subject to "An Act to regulate commerce," approved February fourth, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven, and to gather such information and data as will enable the President of the United States to make recommendations to Congress for legislation for the regulation of such commerce, and to report such data to the President from time to time as he shall require; and the information so obtained or as much thereof as the President may direct shall be made public.

In order to accomplish the purposes declared in the foregoing part of this section, the said Commissioner shall have and exercise the same power and authority in respect to corporations, joint stock companies and combinations subject to the provisions hereof, as is conferred on the Interstate Commerce Commission in said "Act to regulate commerce," and the amendments thereto in respect to common carriers so far as the same may be applicable, including the right to subpoena and compel the attendance and testimony of witnesses and the production of documentary evidence and to administer oaths. All the requirements, obligations, liabilities, and immunities imposed or conferred by said "Act to regulate commerce" and by "An Act in relation to testimony before the Interstate Commerce Commission," and so forth, approved February eleventh, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, supplemental to said "Act to regulate commerce," shall also apply to all persons who may be subpoenaed to testify as witnesses or to produce documentary evidence in pursuance of the authority conferred by this section.

It shall also be the province and duty of said bureau, under the direction of the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, to gather, compile, publish, and supply useful information concerning corporations doing business within the limits of the United States as shall engage in interstate commerce or in commerce between the United States and any foreign country, including corporations engaged in insurance, and to attend to such other duties as may be hereafter provided by law.

SEC. 7. The jurisdiction, supervision and control now possessed and exercised by the Department of the Treasury * * * over the immigration of aliens into the United States, its waters, territories and any place subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are hereby transferred and vested in the Department of Commerce and Labor: *Provided*, That nothing contained in this act shall be construed to alter the method of collecting and accounting for the head-tax prescribed by section one of the act entitled "An Act to regulate immigration," approved August third, eighteen hundred and eighty-two. The authority, power and jurisdiction now possessed and exercised by the Secretary of the Treasury by virtue of any law in relation to the exclusion from and the residence within the United States, its territories and the District of Columbia, of Chinese and persons of Chinese descent, are hereby transferred to and conferred upon the Secretary of Commerce and Labor, and the authority, power and jurisdiction in relation thereto now vested by law or treaty in the collectors of customs and the collectors of internal revenue, are hereby conferred upon and vested in such officers under the control of the Commissioner-General of Immigration, as the Secretary of Commerce and Labor may designate therefor.

SEC. 8. The Secretary of Commerce and Labor shall annually, at the close of each fiscal year, make a report in writing to Congress, giving an account of all moneys received and disbursed by him and his Department, and describing the work done by

the Department in fostering, promoting, and developing the foreign and domestic commerce, the mining, manufacturing, shipping, and fishery industries, and the transportation facilities, of the United States, and making such recommendations as he shall deem necessary for the effective performance of the duties and purposes of the Department. He shall also from time to time make such special investigations and reports as he may be required to do by the President, or by either House of Congress, or which he himself may deem necessary and urgent.

SEC. 10. * * * All duties, power, authority and jurisdiction, whether supervisory, appellate or otherwise, now imposed or conferred upon the Secretary of the Treasury by acts of Congress relating to merchant vessels or yachts, their * * * officers, seamen, * * *, inspection, equipment for the better security of life, * * * the use of petroleum or other similar substances to produce motive power and relating to the remission or refund of fines, penalties, forfeitures, exactions or charges incurred for violating any provision of law relating to vessels or seamen or to informer's shares of such fines, * * *, shall be and hereby are transferred to and imposed and conferred upon the Secretary of Commerce and Labor * * *.

Approved February 14, 1903.

CHAPTER 976.—*Safety appliances on railroads.*

SECTION 1. The provisions and requirements of the act entitled "An Act to promote the safety of employees and travelers upon railroads by compelling common carriers engaged in interstate commerce to equip their cars with automatic couplers and continuous brakes and their locomotives with driving-wheel brakes, and for other purposes," approved March second, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, and amended April first, eighteen hundred and ninety-six, shall be held to apply to common carriers by railroads in the Territories and the District of Columbia and shall apply in all cases, whether or not the couplers brought together are of the same kind, make, or type; and the provisions and requirements hereof and of said acts relating to train brakes, automatic couplers, grab irons, and the height of drawbars shall be held to apply to all trains, locomotives, tenders, cars, and similar vehicles used on any railroad engaged in interstate commerce, and in the Territories and the District of Columbia, and to all other locomotives, tenders, cars, and similar vehicles used in connection therewith, excepting those trains, cars, and locomotives exempted by the provisions of section six of said act of March second, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, as amended by the act of April first, eighteen hundred and ninety-six, or which are used upon street railways.

SEC. 2. Whenever, as provided in said act, any train is operated with power or train brakes, not less than fifty per centum of the cars in such train shall have their brakes used and operated by the engineer of the locomotive drawing such train; and all power-braked cars in such train which are associated together with said fifty per centum shall have their brakes so used and operated; and, to more fully carry into effect the objects of said act, the Interstate Commerce Commission may, from time to time, after full hearing, increase the minimum percentage of cars in any train required to be operated with power or train brakes which must have their brakes used and operated as aforesaid; and failure to comply with any such requirement of the said Interstate Commerce Commission shall be subject to the like penalty as failure to comply with any requirement of this section.

SEC. 3. The provisions of this act shall not take effect until September first, nineteen hundred and three. Nothing in this act shall be held or construed to relieve any common carrier, the Interstate Commerce Commission, or any United States district attorney from any of the provisions, powers, duties, liabilities, or requirements of said act of March second, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, as amended by the act of April first, eighteen hundred and ninety-six; and all of the provisions, powers, duties, requirements and liabilities of said act of March second, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, as amended by the act of April first, eighteen hundred and ninety-six, shall, except as specifically amended by this act, apply to this act.

Approved March 2, 1903.

CHAPTER 1012.—*Regulation of immigration.*

SECTION 1. There shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of two dollars for each and every passenger not a citizen of the United States, or of the Dominion of Canada, the Republic of Cuba, or of the Republic of Mexico, who shall come by steam, sail, or other vessel from any foreign port to any port within the United States, or by any railway or any other mode of transportation, from foreign contiguous territory to the United States. The said duty shall be paid to the collector of customs of the

port or customs district to which said alien passenger shall come, or, if there be no collector at such port or district, then to the collector nearest thereto, by the master, agent, owner, or consignee of every such vessel or transportation line. The money thus collected shall be paid into the United States Treasury and shall constitute a permanent appropriation to be called the "immigration fund," to be used under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury to defray the expense of regulating the immigration of aliens into the United States under this act, including the cost of reports of decisions of the Federal courts, and digests thereof, for the use of the Commissioner-General of Immigration, and the salaries and expenses of all officers, clerks, and employees appointed for the purpose of enforcing the provisions of this act. The duty imposed by this section shall be a lien upon the vessel which shall bring such aliens to ports of the United States, and shall be a debt in favor of the United States against the owner or owners of such vessels, and the payment of such duty may be enforced by any legal or equitable remedy; the head tax herein provided for shall not be levied upon aliens in transit through the United States nor upon aliens who have once been admitted into the United States and have paid the head tax who later shall go in transit from one part of the United States to another through foreign contiguous territory: *Provided*, That the Commissioner-General of Immigration, under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, by agreement with transportation lines, as provided in section thirty-two of this act, may arrange in some other manner for the payment of the duty imposed by this section upon aliens seeking admission overland, either as to all or as to any such aliens.

SEC. 2. The following classes of aliens shall be excluded from admission into the United States: All idiots, insane persons, epileptics, and persons who have been insane within five years previous; persons who have had two or more attacks of insanity at any time previously; paupers; persons likely to become a public charge; professional beggars; persons afflicted with a loathsome or with a dangerous contagious disease; persons who have been convicted of a felony or other crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude; polygamists, anarchists, or persons who believe in or advocate the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States or of all government or of all forms of law, or the assassination of public officials; prostitutes, and persons who procure or attempt to bring in prostitutes or women for the purpose of prostitution; those who have been, within one year from the date of the application for admission to the United States, deported as being under offers, solicitations, promises or agreements to perform labor or service of some kind therein; and also any person whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another, or who is assisted by others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown that such person does not belong to one of the foregoing excluded classes; but this section shall not be held to prevent persons living in the United States from sending for a relative or friend who is not in the foregoing excluded classes: *Provided*, That nothing in this act shall exclude persons convicted of an offense purely political, not involving moral turpitude: *And provided further*, That skilled labor may be imported, if labor of like kind unemployed can not be found in this country: *And provided further*, That the provisions of this law applicable to contract labor shall not be held to exclude professional actors, artists, lecturers, singers, ministers of any religious denomination, professors for colleges or seminaries, persons belonging to any recognized learned profession, or persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants.

SEC. 4. It shall be unlawful for any person, company, partnership, or corporation, in any manner whatsoever, to prepay the transportation or in any way to assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien into the United States, in pursuance of any offer, solicitation, promise, or agreement, parole or special, expressed or implied, made previous to the importation of such alien to perform labor or service of any kind, skilled or unskilled, in the United States.

SEC. 5. For every violation of any of the provisions of section four of this act the person, partnership, company, or corporation violating the same, by knowingly assisting, encouraging, or soliciting the migration or importation of any alien to the United States to perform labor or service of any kind by reason of any offer, solicitation, promise, or agreement, express or implied, parole or special, to or with such alien shall forfeit and pay for every such offense the sum of one thousand dollars, which may be sued for and recovered by the United States, or by any person who shall first bring his action therefor in his own name and for his own benefit, including any such alien thus promised labor or service of any kind as aforesaid, as debts of like amount are now recovered in the courts of the United States; and separate suits may be brought for each alien thus promised labor or service of any kind as aforesaid. And it shall be the duty of the district attorney of the proper district to prosecute every such suit when brought by the United States.

SEC. 6. It shall be unlawful and be deemed a violation of section four of this act to assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien by a promise of employment through advertisements printed and published in any foreign country; and any alien coming to this country in consequence of such an advertisement shall be treated as coming under a promise or agreement as contemplated in section two of this act, and the penalties imposed by section five of this act shall be applicable to such a case: *Provided*, That this section shall not apply to States or Territories, the District of Columbia, or places subject to the jurisdiction of the United States advertising the inducements they offer for immigration thereto, respectively.

SEC. 7. No transportation company or owner or owners of vessels or others engaged in transporting aliens into the United States, shall, directly or through agents, either by writing, printing, or oral representations, solicit, invite, or encourage the immigration of any aliens into the United States except by ordinary commercial letters, circulars, advertisements, or oral representations, stating the sailings of their vessels and terms and facilities of transportation therein; and for a violation of this provision any such transportation company and any such owner or owners of vessels, and all others engaged in transporting aliens to the United States, and the agents by them employed, shall be subjected to the penalties imposed by section five of this act.

SEC. 8. Any person, including the master, agent, owner, or consignee of any vessel, who shall bring into or land in the United States, by vessel or otherwise, or who shall attempt, by himself or through another, to bring into or land in the United States, by vessel or otherwise, any alien not duly admitted by an immigrant inspector, or not lawfully entitled to enter the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction, be punished by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars for each and every alien so landed or attempted to be landed, or by imprisonment for a term not less than three months nor more than two years, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 12. Upon the arrival of any alien by water at any port within the United States it shall be the duty of the master or commanding officer of the steamer, sailing or other vessel, having said alien on board to deliver to the immigration officers at the port of arrival lists or manifests made at the time and place of embarkation of such alien on board such steamer or vessel, which shall, in answer to questions at the top of said lists, state as to each alien the full name, age, and sex; whether married or single; the calling or occupation; whether able to read or write; the nationality; the race; the last residence; the seaport for landing in the United States; the final destination, if any, beyond the port of landing; whether having a ticket through to such final destination; whether the alien has paid his own passage, or whether it has been paid by any other person or by any corporation, society, municipality, or government, and if so, by whom; whether in possession of fifty dollars, and if less, how much; whether going to join a relative or friend, and if so, what relative or friend and his name and complete address; whether ever before in the United States, and if so, when and where; whether ever in prison or almshouse or an institution or hospital for the care and treatment of the insane or supported by charity; whether a polygamist; whether an anarchist; whether coming by reason of any offer, solicitation, promise or agreement, expressed or implied, to perform labor in the United States, and what is the alien's condition of health mental and physical, and whether deformed or crippled, and if so, for how long and from what cause.

SEC. 13. All aliens arriving by water at the ports of the United States shall be listed in convenient groups, and no one list or manifest shall contain more than thirty names. To each alien or head of a family shall be given a ticket on which shall be written his name, a number or letter designating the list in which his name, and so forth, is contained, and his number on said list, for convenience of identification on arrival. Each list or manifest shall be verified by the signature and the oath or affirmation of the master or commanding officer or the first or second below him in command, taken before an immigration officer at the port of arrival, to the effect that he has caused the surgeon of said vessel sailing therewith to make a physical and oral examination of each of said aliens, and that from the report of said surgeon and from his own investigation he believes that no one of said aliens is an idiot, or insane person, or a pauper, or is likely to become a public charge, or is suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease, or is a person who has been convicted of a felony or other crime or misdemeanor involving moral turpitude, or a polygamist, or an anarchist, or under promise or agreement, express or implied, to perform labor in the United States, or a prostitute, and that also, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, the information in said lists or manifests concerning each of said aliens named therein is correct and true in every respect.

SEC. 15. In the case of the failure of the master or commanding officer of any vessel to deliver to the said immigration officers lists or manifests of all aliens on board

thereof as required in sections twelve, thirteen, and fourteen of this act, he shall pay to the collector of customs at the port of arrival the sum of ten dollars for each alien concerning whom the above information is not contained in any list as aforesaid.

SEC. 16. Upon the receipt by the immigration officers at any port of arrival of the lists or manifests of aliens provided for in sections twelve, thirteen, and fourteen of this act it shall be the duty of said officers to go or send competent assistants to the vessels to which said lists or manifests refer and there inspect all such aliens, or said immigration officers may order a temporary removal of such aliens for examination at a designated time and place, but such temporary removal shall not be considered a landing, nor shall it relieve the transportation lines, masters, agents, owners, or consignees of the vessel upon which such aliens are brought to any port of the United States from any of the obligations which, in case such aliens remain on board, would, under the provisions of this act, bind the said transportation lines, masters, agents, owners, or consignees: *Provided*, That where a suitable building is used for the detention and examination of aliens the immigration officials shall there take charge of such aliens, and the transportation companies, masters, agents, owners, and consignees of the vessels bringing such aliens shall be relieved of the responsibility for their detention thereafter until the return of such aliens to their care.

SEC. 18. It shall be the duty of the owners, officers and agents of any vessel bringing an alien to the United States to adopt due precautions to prevent the landing of any such alien from such vessel at any time or place other than that designated by the immigration officers, and any such owner, officer, agent, or person in charge of such vessel who shall land or permit to land any alien at any time or place other than that designated by the immigration officers, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall on conviction be punished by a fine for each alien so permitted to land of not less than one hundred nor more than one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment, and every such alien so landed shall be deemed to be unlawfully in the United States and shall be deported, as provided by law.

SEC. 19. All aliens brought into this country in violation of law shall, if practicable, be immediately sent back to the countries whence they respectively came on the vessels bringing them. The cost of their maintenance while on land, as well as the expense of the return of such aliens, shall be borne by the owner or owners of the vessels on which they respectively came; and if any master, person in charge, agent, owner, or consignee of any such vessels shall refuse to receive back on board thereof, or of any other vessel owned by the same interest, such aliens, or shall neglect to detain them thereon, or shall refuse or neglect to return them to the foreign port from which they came, or to pay the cost of their maintenance while on land, such master, person in charge, agent, owner, or consignee shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor and shall, on conviction, be punished by a fine not less than three hundred dollars for each and every such offense; and no such vessel shall have clearance from any port of the United States while any such fine is unpaid: *Provided*, That the Commissioner-General of Immigration, under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, may suspend, upon conditions to be prescribed by the Commissioner-General, the deportation of any alien found to have come under promise or agreement of labor or service of any kind if, in his judgment, the testimony of such alien is necessary on behalf of the United States Government in the prosecution of offenders against the provisions of sections four and five of this act: *Provided*, That the cost of maintenance of any person so detained resulting from such suspension of deportation shall be paid from the "immigrant fund," but no alien certified, as provided in section seventeen of this act, to be suffering with a loathsome or with a dangerous contagious disease other than one of a quarantinable nature, shall be permitted to land for medical treatment thereof in the hospitals of the United States.

SEC. 20. Any alien who shall come into the United States in violation of law, or who shall be found a public charge therein, from causes existing prior to landing, shall be deported as hereinafter provided to the country whence he came at any time within two years after arrival at the expense, including one-half of the cost of inland transportation to the port of deportation, of the person bringing such alien into the United States, or, if that can not be done, then at the expense of the immigrant fund referred to in section one of this act.

SEC. 21. In case the Secretary of the Treasury shall be satisfied that an alien has been found in the United States in violation of this act he shall cause such alien, within the period of three years after landing or entry therein, to be taken into custody and returned to the country whence he came, as provided in section twenty of this act, or, if that can not be so done, at the expense of the immigrant fund provided for in section one of this act; and neglect or refusal on the part of the

masters, agents, owners, or consignees of vessels to comply with the order of the Secretary of the Treasury to take on board, guard safely, and return to the country whence he came any alien ordered to be deported under the provisions of this section shall be punished by the imposition of the penalties prescribed in section nineteen of this act.

SEC. 32. The Commissioner-General of Immigration, under the direction or with the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, shall prescribe rules for the entry and inspection of aliens along the borders of Canada and Mexico, so as not to unnecessarily delay, impede, or annoy passengers in ordinary travel between the United States and said countries, and shall have power to enter into contracts with foreign transportation lines for the same purpose.

SEC. 33. For the purposes of this act the words "United States" as used in the title as well as in the various sections of this act shall be construed to mean the United States and any waters, territory or other place now subject to the jurisdiction thereof.

SEC. 36. All acts and parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed: *Provided*, That this act shall not be construed to repeal, alter, or amend existing laws relating to the immigration, or exclusion of, Chinese persons or persons of Chinese descent.

Approved March 3, 1903.

LEADING ARTICLES IN PAST NUMBERS OF THE BULLETIN.

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Employer and employee under the common law, by V. H. Olmsted and S. D. Fessenden.
- No. 2. The poor colonies of Holland, by J. Howard Gore, Ph. D.
The industrial revolution in Japan, by William Eleroy Curtis.
Notes concerning the money of the U. S. and other countries, by W. C. Hunt.
The wealth and receipts and expenses of the U. S., by W. M. Steuart.
- No. 3. Industrial communities: Coal Mining Co. of Anzin, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 4. Industrial communities: Coal Mining Co. of Blanzy, by W. F. Willoughby.
The sweating system, by Henry White.
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Industrial communities: Krupp Iron and Steel Works, by W. F. Willoughby.
- 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.
Rates of wages paid under public and private contract, by Ethelbert Stewart.
- No. 8. Conciliation and arbitration in the boot and shoe industry, by T. A. Carroll.
Railway relief departments, by Emory R. Johnson, Ph. D.
- No. 9. The padrone system and padrone banks, by John Koren.
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- No. 10. Condition of the Negro in various cities.
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- No. 11. Workers at gainful occupations at censuses of 1870, 1880, and 1890, by W. C. Hunt.
Public baths in Europe, by Edward Mussey Hartwell, Ph. D., M. D.
- No. 12. The inspection of factories and workshops in the U. S., by W. F. Willoughby.
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- No. 13. The anthracite mine laborers, by G. O. Virtue, Ph. D.
- No. 14. The Negroes of Farmville, Va.: A social study, by W. E. B. Du Bois, Ph. D.
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- No. 15. Boarding homes and clubs for working women, by Mary S. Ferguson.
The trade-union label, by John Graham Brooks.
- No. 16. Alaskan gold fields and opportunities for capital and labor, by S. C. Dunham.
- No. 17. Brotherhood relief and insurance of railway employees, by E. R. Johnson, Ph. D.
The nations of Antwerp, by J. Howard Gore, Ph. D.
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- No. 20. Condition of railway labor in Europe, by Walter E. Weyl, Ph. D.
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- No. 22. Benefit features of American trade unions, by Edward W. Bemis, Ph. D.
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- No. 24. Statistics of cities.
- No. 25. Foreign labor laws: Great Britain and France, by W. F. Willoughby.
- No. 26. Protection of workmen in their employment, by Stephen D. Fessenden.
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- No. 27. Wholesale prices: 1890 to 1899, by Roland P. Falkner, Ph. D.
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- No. 28. Voluntary conciliation and arbitration in Great Britain, by J. B. McPherson.
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- No. 33. Foreign labor laws: Australasia and Canada, by W. F. Willoughby.
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- No. 34. Labor conditions in Porto Rico, by Azel Ames, M. D.
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