

# MONTHLY REVIEW

OF THE

## U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

VOL. IV—NO. 5

WASHINGTON

MAY, 1917

### PROTECTION OF LABOR STANDARDS.

Prominent organizations and individuals, upon the threat of war, earnestly interested themselves in the protection of existing standards of labor and in organizing the direction of the energies of the labor forces of the country to secure their maximum usefulness in the threatened crisis.

(1) The advisory commission of seven members appointed by the President and attached to the Council of National Defense established by the Army appropriation act of December, 1916, organized from its members an advisory committee on labor, with Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, as chairman. It is the duty of this committee to advise in all matters concerning the relation of labor to the industrial preparedness of the Nation.

(2) The president of the American Association for Labor Legislation, Prof. Irving Fisher, of Yale University, conferred with the Secretary of the Navy on March 31 and suggested a statement from that department on its attitude toward the maintenance of the existing standards of labor.

(3) On April 2 the advisory committee on labor met for the first time at Washington, D. C. The chairman had already appointed an executive committee, upon whom will fall the greater part of the work of advice to the Council of National Defense. The executive committee consisted of the following:

Samuel Gompers, president, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C., chairman; Miss Gertrude Beeks, National Civic Federation, New York City, secretary; William B. Wilson, Secretary of Labor, Washington, D. C.; V. Everit Macy, president, National Civic Federation, New York City; James Lord, president, mining department, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.; Elisha Lee, general manager, Pennsylvania Railroad, Philadelphia, Pa.; Warren S. Stone, grand chief, Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, Cleveland, Ohio; C. E. Michael, National Association of Manufacturers (president, Virginia Bridge & Iron Co.), Roanoke, Va.; Frank Morrison, secretary, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.; Lee K. Frankel, third vice president, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York City; James O'Connell, president, metal trades department, American Federation of Labor, Washington, D. C.; Louis B. Schram, chairman, labor committee United States Brewers' Association, Brooklyn, N. Y.; R. M. Easley, assistant to Samuel Gompers as chairman of executive committee, New York City; James W. Sullivan, assistant to Samuel Gompers as member of advisory commission, Washington, D. C.

(4) At a joint meeting on Saturday, April 7, of the Council of National Defense and its advisory commission, President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor and member of the commission, in effect pledged organized labor to a full and loyal support of the Government in the war. His report to the council as chairman of the advisory committee on labor urges employers and employees not to change existing standards of employment. The report was unanimously adopted by the council and its advisory commission.

(5) On April 11 the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor issued a press notice on "children in war time," calling attention to some of the salient effects of war conditions in Europe upon child life, and announced a series of reports reviewing conditions in foreign countries, whose experience may guide this country.

(6) The Navy Department declared its policy in relation to the protection of labor on April 16.

(7) The National Consumers' League, in a letter signed by Mrs. Florence Kelley, general secretary, and Pauline Goldmark, research secretary, issued an appeal for the maintenance of existing labor standards to the various women's organizations which had offered the services of their members to the Government.

(8) The American Association for Labor Legislation began the publication of a special bulletin, the first issue appearing for April, and entitled "Labor Laws in War Time."

(9) The National Child Labor Committee circulated an appeal for the protection of children.

(10) On April 24 the Council of National Defense supplemented its statement prepared after a joint meeting with its advisory commission April 7, and explained more definitely the intent of the recommendation "that neither employers nor employees shall endeavor to take advantage of the country's necessities to change existing standards."

#### COMMITTEE ON LABOR, ADVISORY COMMISSION, COUNCIL OF NATIONAL DEFENSE.

The membership of this committee is composed principally of the representatives of labor and capital, officials and members of organizations interested in social and industrial welfare and progress, and Government officials and specialists. It is a subcommittee of the advisory commission of the Council of National Defense. Its membership is appointed by its chairman, Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor and one of the seven members of the advisory commission. As thus far appointed, its membership is as follows:

Adams, A. E. (railway signalman), Hotel Warner, Chicago, Ill.  
Adams, Edgar A., Cleveland Hardware Co., Cleveland, Ohio.



- \*Alifas, N. P. (machinist), Naval Lodge Building, Washington, D. C.  
 Alpine, John R. (plumber), Bush Temple of Music, Chicago, Ill.  
 Armstrong, Frank C., president, Ray Hercules Copper Co., 25 Broad Street, New York City.  
 Baker, George F., jr., vice president, First National Bank, New York City.  
 \*Ballard, S. Thruston, Ballard & Ballard, millers, Louisville, Ky.  
 Barker, A. E. (maintenance-of-way employee), 27 Putnam Avenue, Detroit, Mich.  
 \*Bass, Robert, ex-governor of New Hampshire, 290 Metropolitan Tower, New York City.  
 \*Beeks, Gertrude (Miss), secretary, welfare department, National Civic Federation, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.  
 Belmont, August, 43 Exchange Place, New York City.  
 \*Bemis, Alfred Farwell, president, National Cotton Manufacturers' Association, 45 Milk Street, Boston, Mass.  
 Bennett, Paul (powder worker), Hymera, Ind.  
 \*Berger, M. L., 1800 Seldon Street, Chicago, Ill.  
 Bergstrom, Carl (paving cutter), Lock Box 27, Albion, N. Y.  
 \*Berres, A. J., metal trades department, American Federation of Labor, Ninth Street and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.  
 Berry, David J., care National Labor Journal, Pittsburgh, Pa.  
 Bittner, Van (coal miner), Box 402, Cumberland, Md.  
 Bowen, William (bricklayer), University Park Building, Indianapolis, Ind.  
 Brady, Peter J., Allied Printing Trades, 924 World Building, New York City.  
 \*Britton, W. W. (metal polisher), Box 641, Cincinnati, Ohio.  
 Brown, J. G. (shingle weaver), 202 Maynard Building, Seattle, Wash.  
 \*Bryan, W. E. (leather worker), Postal Building, Kansas City, Mo.  
 \*Bryant, Lewis T. (Col.), commissioner of labor, Trenton, N. J.  
 Butterworth, Frank (brick maker), 2341 West Twelfth Street, Chicago, Ill.  
 \*Caminetti, Anthony (Hon.), Commissioner-General of Immigration, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.  
 Carey, J. F. (paper maker), 127 North Pearl Street, Albany, N. Y.  
 Carter, W. S. (engineman and fireman), Jefferson Building, Peoria, Ill.  
 \*Clark, W. Irving (Dr.), Norton Co., Worcester, Mass.  
 Clark, W. M. (railway conductor), 101 B Street SE., Washington, D. C.  
 \*Clarke, William P. (flint-glass worker), Ohio Building, Toledo, Ohio.  
 Coates, D. C. (printer), 402 Rookery Building, Spokane, Wash.  
 \*Coolidge, Louis A., National Civic Federation, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.  
 Coulter, John M. (Dr.), University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.  
 \*Curtis, T. J. (tunnel and subway constructor), 206-208 East One hundred and twenty-eighth Street, New York City.  
 d'Alessandro, D. (hod carrier), 82 State Street, Albany, N. Y.  
 \*Darlington, Thomas (Dr.), secretary, welfare commission, American Iron & Steel Institute, 61 Broadway, New York, N. Y.  
 Davison, Henry P., 23 Wall Street, New York City.  
 Dawson, Miles M. (publicist), 135 West Ninety-fifth Street, New York City.  
 Devine, Edward T., 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City.  
 Dewey, John (Dr.), Columbia University, New York City.

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\*Present at meeting of April 2, 1917.

- \*Diamond, William (coal miner), Box 402, Cumberland, Md.
- \*Ditman, N. E. (Dr.), Museum of Safety, New York City.
- \*Doak, William N. (railway trainman), 101 B Street SE., Washington, D. C.
- \*Dodd, A. E., secretary, National Society for Promotion of Industrial Education, 140 West Forty-second Street, New York City.
- Dold, Charles (piano worker), 166 West Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.
- Donlin, John, building trades department, American Federation of Labor, Ninth Street and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- \*Doty, Alvah H. (Dr.), medical director, Employees' Benefit Fund, Western Union Telegraph Co., 195 Broadway, New York City.
- \*Dow, M. A., Safety Department, New York Central Lines, New York, N. Y.
- Duffy, Frank (carpenter), Carpenters' Building, Indianapolis, Ind.
- \*Easley, Ralph M., secretary, National Civic Federation, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.
- \*Eaton, J. M., Welfare Department, Cadillac Motor Car Co., Detroit, Mich.
- \*Egan, J. P. (printer), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- \*Feeney, Frank (elevator constructor), 708 South Fifty-second Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Ferguson, John, 2715 Jefferson Street, Baltimore, Md.
- Finley, John H., New York State Commission of Education, Albany, N. Y.
- Fiske, Haley, vice president, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York City.
- \*Fitch, John, The Survey, New York, N. Y.
- \*Flaherty, Thomas F. (post-office clerk), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Flore, Edward (hotel and restaurant employee), 375 Oak Street, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \*Forrester, J. J. (railway clerk), 406 Second National Bank Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- \*Frankel, Lee K. (Dr.), head, welfare department, Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.
- \*Frankfurter, Felix (Dr.), Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.
- Franklin, J. A. (boiler maker), Law Building, Kansas City, Kans.
- Frayne, Hugh (sheet-metal worker), 2 East Twenty-third Street, New York City.
- \*Freel, J. J. (stereotyper), 1839 Eighty-fifth Street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \*Freeman, Carl (railway postal clerk), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Frey, John P. (iron molder), Commercial Tribune Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- \*Geier, Otto P. (Dr.), American Association Industrial Physicians and Surgeons, care of Cincinnati Milling Machine Co., Cincinnati, Ohio.
- \*Giles, J. E. (bookkeeper), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Gorgas, William C., Surgeon General, United States Army, Highlands Apartments, Washington, D. C.
- \*Golden, John (textile worker), Bible House, New York City.
- Goldmark, Josephine (Miss), research secretary, National Consumers' League, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City.
- \*Goldsworthy, Benjamin (steel-plate transferrer), 1201 Harvard Street, Washington, D. C.
- Green, William (coal miner), Merchants' Bank Building, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Guggenheim, Daniel, 120 Broadway, New York City.
- \*Hamilton, Alice (Dr.), Hull House, Chicago, Ill.

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\* Present at meeting of April 2, 1917.

- \*Hamilton, Grant (printer), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- \*Harriman, J. Borden (Mrs.), 1709 H Street NW., Washington, D. C.  
Harriman, W. Averell, vice president, Union Pacific System, New York City.  
Hart, J. F. (meat cutter), Post Office Box 130, Yorkville, N. Y.
- Hatch, James H. (upholsterer), 229 East Sixty-seventh Street, New York City.  
Hayes, Frank J. (coal miner), Merchants' Bank Building, Indianapolis, Ind.
- \*Hays, J. W., label trades department, American Federation of Labor, Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- \*Healy, Timothy (fireman), 211 East Forty-fifth Street, New York City.
- \*Heberling, S. E. (switchman), 326 Brisbane Building, Buffalo, N. Y.  
Hedrick, George F. (painter), Drawer 99, Lafayette, Ind.
- Herr, E. M., president, Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Co., East Pittsburgh, Pa.
- Hoard, Otto E. (sheet-metal worker), 2053 North Seventh Street, Kansas City, Kans.
- \*Hoffman, Frederick L. (Dr.), statistician, Prudential Insurance Co. of America, Newark, N. J.
- Hogan, Stephen C. (marble worker), 406 East One hundred and forty-ninth Street, New York City.
- Holden, Hale, president, Chicago, Burlington & Quincy Railroad Co., Chicago, Ill.
- \*Holder, Arthur E. (machinist), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.  
Holder, William (plate printer), 2374 Webster Avenue, The Bronx, N. Y.
- Holman, Ralph T., 73 Herbert Street, New Brunswick, N. J.
- Hoyt, Colgate, 14 Wall Street, New York City.
- \*Hudson, W. G. (Dr.), medical director, Du Pont Powder Co., Wilmington, Del.
- Hudspeth, Robert S., Democratic National Committee, Jersey City, N. J.
- Hughes, A. C. (cooper), 1012 Boylston Street, Newton Highlands, Mass.
- Humphrey, A. L., vice president, Westinghouse Air Brake Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
- Hutcheson, William L. (carpenter), Carpenters' Building, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Hynes, J. J. (sheet-metal worker), 407 Nelson Building, Kansas City, Mo.
- Jenks, Prof. J. W., Hamilton Institute, 13 Astor Place, New York City.
- \*Johnson, William, general manager, Oliphant-Johnson Coal Co., Vincennes, Ind.
- Johnston, W. H. (machinist), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Jones, Jerome, care Journal of Labor, Atlanta, Ga.
- Judson, Harry Pratt, president, University of Chicago, Chicago, Ill.
- \*Kearney, L. W., Disbursing Office, Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.
- Kingsley, Darwin P., president, New York Life Insurance Co., New York City.
- Kline, J. W. (blacksmith), Monon Building, Chicago, Ill.
- \*Kober, George M. (Dr.), 920 H Street NW., Washington, D. C.
- Kohn, Robt. D. (architect, factory buildings), 56 West Forty-fifth Street, New York City.
- \*Konenkamp, S. J. (commercial telegrapher), Transportation Building, Chicago, Ill.
- \*Lee, Frederic S. (Dr.), Columbia University, New York City.  
Lee, W. G. (railway trainman), American Trust Building, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Lennon, John B. (tailor), Bloomington, Ill.
- Logan, William A. (carriage worker), 96 Appman Terrace, Cleveland, Ohio.

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\* Present at meeting of April 2, 1917.

- \*Lord, James, mining department, American Federation of Labor, Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- \*Lovely, Collis (boot and shoe worker), 5129 Minerva Avenue, St. Louis, Mo.
- McAndrew, A. (tobacco worker), Iroquois Life Building, Louisville, Ky.
- McClory, J. E. (bridge and iron worker), American Central Life Building, Indianapolis, Ind.
- McCormick, Vance C., chairman, Democratic National Committee, Harrisburg, Pa.
- \*McCreery, J. F. (railway carman), 1246 South Thirteenth Street, Paducah, Ky.
- McGinley, Thomas A., vice president, Duff Manufacturing Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.
- McGivern, E. J. (plasterer), 28 Cotter Street, Roslandale, Mass.
- McMillen, Emerson, 120 Broadway, New York City.
- \*McNamara, P. J. (locomotive fireman), 101 B Street SE., Washington, D. C.
- McNulty, Frank (electrical worker), Reich Building, Springfield, Ill.
- \*McSorley, William J. (metal lather), 401 Superior Building, Cleveland, Ohio.
- \*Macy, V. Everit, president, National Civic Federation, 1 Madison Avenue, New York City.
- \*Mahon, W. D. (street railway employee), 104 East High Street, Detroit, Mich.
- Malone, Murt (travelers' goods), 191 Boyd Street, Oshkosh, Wis.
- \*Manly, Basil M., 1853 Irving Street NW., Washington, D. C.
- \*Manning, Van H., Bureau of Mines, Washington, D. C.
- Marks, Louis B. (lighting expert), 103 Park Avenue, New York City.
- \*Meeker, Royal (Dr.), Commissioner of Labor Statistics, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C.
- Menge, Edward (potter), Box 6, East Liverpool, Ohio.
- Merrill, Theodore C. (Dr.), Bureau of Chemistry, Department of Agriculture, Room 406, Washington, D. C.
- Meyer, Andries (diamond worker), 323 Washington Street, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- Michael, C. Edwin, representative of National Association of Manufacturers (president, Virginia Bridge & Iron Co.), Roanoke, Va.
- \*Miles, H. E., chairman, industrial training commission, National Manufacturing Association, Racine, Wis.
- Morgan, Wm. Fellowes, president, Merchants' Association of New York, New York City.
- \*Morrison, Frank, secretary, American Federation of Labor, Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Moscowitz, Henry (Mrs.) (expert welfare consultant), Metropolitan Tower, New York, N. Y.
- Moulton, W. H., secretary, pension department, Cleveland-Cliffs Iron Co., Ishpeming, Mich.
- Moyer, C. H. (metal miner), 503 Denham Building, Denver, Colo.
- \*Mullaney, J. A. (asbestos worker), 15 Eleventh Street, Elmhurst, Long Island, N. Y.
- Murphy, P. F. (bill poster), 2543 West Adams Street, Chicago, Ill.
- \*Murray, John (printer), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- \*Neenan, J. M. (window-glass worker), 419 Electric Building, Cleveland, Ohio.
- Neill, Charles P. (Hon.), manager, bureau of information, Southeastern Railways, 616 Woodward Building, Washington, D. C.
- Nelson, Oscar, president, International State Factory Inspectors' Association, Transportation Building, Chicago, Ill.
- Noschang, Frank X. (barber), 222 East Michigan Street, Indianapolis, Ind.
- O'Connell, James (machinist), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.

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\* Present at meeting of April 2, 1917.

- O'Connor, T. V. (longshoreman), 704 Brisbane Building, Buffalo, N. Y.
- \*O'Grady, John (Rev.), Catholic University, Washington, D. C.
- Palmer, Lew. R., president, National Council of Safety, Harrisburg, Pa.
- Patterson, Dorothy (Miss), Dayton, Ohio.
- \*Peckitt, Leonard, president, Republic Iron & Steel Co., Hudson Terminal Building, New York, N. Y.
- Perham, H. B. (railway telegrapher), Star Building, St. Louis, Mo.
- Perkins, George W. (cigarmaker), Monon Building, Chicago, Ill.
- Podolsky, Michael, M., M. E., Transportation Building, 26 South Fifteenth Street, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Pope, George, president, National Association of Manufacturers, Hartford, Conn.
- Porter, A. J., president, Shredded Wheat Co., Niagara Falls, N. Y.
- \*Price, George M. (Dr.), 32 Union Square, New York City.
- Proebstle, Joseph (brewery workman), 2347 Vine Street, Cincinnati, Ohio.
- Purtill, F. J. (locomotive fireman), Duquoin, Ill.
- Randall, Blanchard, president, Baltimore Chamber of Commerce, Baltimore, Md.
- \*Reider, Edith S., Harvester Building, Chicago, Ill.
- \*Richards, R. C., safety department, Chicago & North Western Railway Co., Chicago, Ill.
- Rickert, T. A. (garment worker), 175 West Washington Street, Chicago, Ill.
- Rittenhouse, E. E., commissioner of public service and conservation, Equitable Life Insurance Society, New York City.
- \*Roberts, F. C. (printer), The Home Apartment, Washington, D. C.
- Robins, Thomas, secretary, United States Naval Consulting Board, 13 Park Row, New York City.
- Rockefeller, John D., jr., 26 Broadway, New York City.
- \*Russell, Charles E. (newspaper writer), Munsey Building, Washington, D. C.
- Ryan, M. F. (railway carman), 503 Hall Building, Kansas City, Mo.
- Savage, T. J. (machinist), Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Schereschewsky, J. W. (Dr.), United States Public Health Service, Treasury Department, Washington, D. C.
- \*Schram, Louis B., chairman, labor committee, United States Brewers' Association, Brooklyn, N. Y.
- \*Sculley, John W. (hatter), 72 Bible House, New York City.
- Shaw, Albert (editor), Review of Reviews, New York City.
- \*Shay, C. C. (theatrical stage employee), 107 West Forty-sixth Street, New York City.
- Sheppard, L. E., vice president, Order of Railway Conductors of America, Cedar Rapids, Iowa.
- \*Shuey, E. L., Lowe Bros., Dayton, Ohio.
- \*Snellings, Milton (steam engineer), 6334 Yale Avenue, Chicago, Ill.
- Sovey, A. P. (bookbinder), 222 East Michigan Street, Indianapolis, Ind.
- \*Spencer, William J., building trades department, American Federation of Labor, Ninth Street and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.
- Stillman, Charles B. (teacher), 1620 Lake Avenue, Wilmette, Ill.
- Stone, Warren S. (locomotive engineer), Cleveland, Ohio.
- Stotesbury, Edward T., Philadelphia, Pa.
- Straus, Percy S., R. H. Macy & Co., New York City.
- Suitor, Fred W. (quarry worker), Scampini Building, Barre, Vt.

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\* Present at meeting of April 2, 1917.



Sweeney, Thomas (tailor), corner East Sixty-seventh Street and Stony Island Avenue, Chicago, Ill.

\*Thompson, W. Gilman (Dr.), New York City.

\*Thorne, Florence C., assistant editor, American Federationist, Ninth and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Thornton, George (spinner), 669 Lonsdale Avenue, Central Falls, R. I.

Tobin, John F. (boot and shoe worker), 246 Summer Street, Boston, Mass.

\*Towson, Charles R., secretary, Industrial Department, Y. M. C. A., 124 East Twenty-eighth Street, New York City.

Vail, Theodore N., president, American Telephone & Telegraph Co., New York City.

Valentine, Joseph F. (iron molder), Commercial Tribune Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Vanderbilt, Cornelius, United States Mortgage & Trust Co., New York City.

\*Van Dornes, G. C. (blacksmith), 1270 Monon Building, Chicago, Ill.

\*Voll, John A. (glass-bottle blower), Witherspoon Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Wagner, Robert (Hon.), State Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

Wainwright, J. M. (Dr.), Moses Taylor Hospital, Scranton, Pa.

Wald, Lillian (Miss), 265 Henry Street, New York City.

\*Warne, Frank Julian, Southern Building, Washington, D. C.

Warren, Charles B. (attorney), Detroit, Mich.

\*Weber, Joseph N. (musician), 110-112 West Fortieth Street, New York City.

Welsh, W. M. (steam shovel and dredge man), 39 Cortland Street, New York City.

\*Werber, Gustavus (Dr.), 1353 Q Street NW., Washington, D. C.

\*Westover, F. S., General Electric Co., Schenectady, N. Y.

Wharton, A. O., railway employees department, American Federation of Labor, Ohio Building, St. Louis, Mo.

\*White, William T. (Capt.), chairman, industrial betterment committee, National Association of Manufacturers, Lowell, Mass.

\*Williams, John (iron, steel, and tin worker), 503-506 House Building, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Williams, Talcott (Prof.), Columbia University, New York City.

\*Wills, H. E. (locomotive engineer), 101 B Street SE., Washington, D. C.

\*Wilson, James (pattern maker), Second National Bank Building, Cincinnati, Ohio.

\*Wilson, William B. (Hon.), Secretary of Labor, Washington, D. C.

Winslow, Charles H. (vocational education adviser), 9 Franklin Street, Newark, N. J.

Woll, Matthew (photo-engraver), 6111 Bishop Street, Chicago, Ill.

Woodruff, Clinton Rogers, secretary, National Municipal League, Philadelphia, Pa.

\*Wright, Chester M. (newspaper writer), Ninth Street and Massachusetts Avenue, Washington, D. C.

\*Zuckerman, Max (cloth hat and cap maker), 62 East Fourth Street, New York City.

#### MEETING OF COMMITTEE ON LABOR, APRIL 2, 1917.

Of the above committee appointed at the time there were present at the first meeting on April 2 at the headquarters of the American Federation of Labor in Washington, D. C., 95 members. The

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\* Present at meeting of April 2, 1917.

committee has been organized into smaller committees under the following chairmen:

- I. Wages and hours—Frank Morrison, Washington, D. C.
- II. Mediation and conciliation—V. Everit Macy, New York City.
- III. Welfare work—L. A. Coolidge, Boston, Mass.
- IV. Women in industry—Mrs. Borden Harriman, Washington, D. C.
- V. Information and statistics—Frederick L. Hoffman, Newark, N. J.
- VI. Press—Grant Hamilton, Washington, D. C.
- VII. Publicity—E. T. Devine, New York City.
- VIII. Cost of living, domestic economy—S. Thurston Ballard, Louisville, Ky.

It is reported that the general committee will work through State and local health boards, State and city labor federations, central labor bodies, city governments, and local shop committees.

No complete reports of the proceedings of this meeting had been issued as late as April 25, but a statement of certain recommendations to the Council of National Defense was issued as a press notice by the council on April 8. The full text of the recommendations is as follows:

The defense and safety of the Nation must be the first consideration of all patriotic citizens. To avoid confusion and to facilitate the preparation for national defense and give a stable basis upon which the representatives of the Government may operate during the war, we recommend:

1. That the Council of National Defense should issue a statement to employers and employees in our industrial plants and transportation systems advising that neither employers nor employees shall endeavor to take advantage of the country's necessities to change existing standards. When economic or other emergencies arise requiring changes of standards, the same should be made only after such proposed changes have been investigated and approved by the Council of National Defense.

2. That the Council of National Defense urge upon the legislatures of the States, as well as all administrative agencies charged with the enforcement of labor and health laws, the great duty of rigorously maintaining the existing safeguards as to the health and welfare of workers, and that no departure from such present standards in State laws or State rulings affecting labor should be taken without declaration of the Council of National Defense that such departure is essential for the effective pursuit of the national defense.

3. That the Council of National Defense urge upon the legislatures of the several States that before final adjournment they delegate to the governors of their respective States the power to suspend or modify restrictions contained in their labor laws when such suspension or modification shall be requested by the Council of National Defense, and such a suspension or modification, when made, shall continue for a specified period and not longer than the duration of the war.

#### "LABOR LAWS IN WAR TIME."

The above recommendations of the Committee on Labor were unanimously accepted by the Council of National Defense and its Advisory Commission at a meeting on April 7. In a subsequent statement the council explained more fully the intent of these recommendations. This explanation in full follows:

There seems to be some misunderstanding of the scope of the statement made by the Council of National Defense on April 8 when it advised "that

neither employers nor employees shall endeavor to take advantage of the country's necessities to change existing standards." In order that that misunderstanding may be removed, the following amplification is made:

There have been established by legislation, by mutual agreement between employers and employees, or by custom certain standards constituting a day's work. These vary from 7 hours per day in some kinds of office work to 12 hours per day in continuous-operation plants. The various States and municipalities have established specific standards of safety and sanitation and have provided inspection service to enforce the regulations. They have also established maximum hours of work for women and minimum age limits for children employed in gainful occupations. It is the judgment of the Council of National Defense that the Federal, State, and municipal governments should continue to enforce the standards they have established unless and until the Council of National Defense has determined that some modification or change of these standards is essential to the national safety; that employers and employees in private industries should not attempt to take advantage of the existing abnormal conditions to change the standards which they were unable to change under normal conditions.

The one other standard that the council had in mind was the standard of living. It recognizes that the standard of living is indefinite and difficult to determine, because it is in a measure dependent upon the purchasing power of the wages received remaining the same. It believes, however, that no arbitrary change in wages should be sought at this time by either employers or employees through the process of strikes or lockouts without at least giving the established agencies of the Government—the Mediation Board in the transportation service and the Division of Conciliation of the Department of Labor in the other industries—an opportunity to adjust the difficulties without a stoppage of work occurring. While the Council of National Defense does not mean to intimate that under ordinary circumstances the efficiency of workers is the only element that should be taken into consideration in fixing the hours of labor, safety, sanitation, women's work, and child-labor standards, it is the object that must be attained during the period when the Nation's safety is involved. It may therefore be necessary for the council as a result of its investigations and experience to suggest modifications and changes in these standards during that time. It is not the purpose of the council, however, to undertake to determine the wage rate that will be sufficient to maintain the existing standards of living. That should be referred to the mediation agencies of the Government above referred to or to such other constituted agencies as may exist to the end that such questions may be adjusted in an orderly and equitable manner to avoid the stoppage of industries which are so vital to the interests of the Nation at this critical time.

These recommendations of the Committee on Labor, Advisory Commission, Council of National Defense, are similar to the resolutions of the American Association for Labor Legislation passed at a meeting on March 23, and appearing in the first issue of its bulletin, entitled "Labor Laws in War Time":

Whereas the entrance of the United States into the world war appears imminent; and

Whereas other countries upon engaging in the conflict permitted a serious breakdown of protective labor regulations with the result, as shown by recent official investigations, of early and unmistakable loss of health, output, and national effectiveness; and

Whereas our own experience has already demonstrated that accidents increase with speeding up and the employment of new workers unaccustomed to their tasks; that overfatigue defeats the object aimed at in lengthening working hours, and that new occupational poisoning has accompanied the recent development of munition manufacture; and

Whereas the full strength of our Nation is needed as never before, and we can not afford to suffer loss of labor power through accidents, disease, industrial poisoning, and overfatigue: Now, therefore, be it

*Resolved*, That the American Association for Labor Legislation at this critical time, in order to promote the success of our country in war as well as in peace, would sound a warning against the shortsightedness and laxness at first exemplified abroad in these matters, and would urge all public-spirited citizens to cooperate in maintaining, for the protection of those who serve in this time of stress the industries of the Nation—who as experience abroad has shown are quite as important to military success as the fighting forces—the following essential minimum requirements:

#### I. SAFETY.

1. Maintenance of all existing standards of safeguarding machinery and industrial processes for the prevention of accidents.

#### II. SANITATION.

1. Maintenance of all existing measures for the prevention of occupational diseases.

2. Immediate agreement upon practicable methods for the prevention of special occupational poisonings incident to making and handling explosives.

#### III. HOURS.

1. Three-shift system in continuous industries.
2. In noncontinuous industries, maintenance of existing standard working-day as basic.
3. One day's rest in seven for all workers.

#### IV. WAGES.

1. Equal pay for equal work, without discrimination as to sex.
2. Maintenance of existing wage rates for basic working-day.
3. Time and one-half for all hours beyond basic working-day.
4. Wage rates to be periodically revised to correspond with variations in the cost of living.

#### V. CHILD LABOR.

1. Maintenance of all existing special regulations regarding child labor, including minimum wages, maximum hours, prohibition of night work, prohibited employments, and employment certificates.

2. Determination of specially hazardous employments to be forbidden to children under 16.

#### VI. WOMAN'S WORK.

1. Maintenance of existing special regulations regarding woman's work, including maximum hours, prohibition of night work, prohibited hazardous employments, and prohibited employment immediately before and after childbirth.

## VII. SOCIAL INSURANCE.

1. Maintenance of existing standards of workmen's compensation for industrial accidents and diseases.
2. Extension of workmen's compensation laws to embrace occupational diseases, especially those particularly incident to the manufacture and handling of explosives.
3. Immediate investigation of the sickness problem among the workers to ascertain the advisability of establishing universal workmen's health insurance.

## VIII. LABOR MARKET.

1. Extension of existing systems of public employment bureaus to aid in the intelligent distribution of labor throughout the country.

## IX. ADMINISTRATION OF LABOR LAWS.

1. Increased appropriations for enlarged staffs of inspectors to enforce labor legislation.
2. Representation of employees, employers, and the public on joint councils for cooperating with the labor departments in drafting and enforcing necessary regulations to put the foregoing principles into full effect.

## "CHILDREN IN WAR TIME."

The Children's Bureau, in a statement issued on April 11, declared as follows for the protection of children in war time:

"Thousands of children besides war orphans and refugees have been directly affected by the war, according to reports from belligerent countries which have come to the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. Juvenile delinquency has increased, more children have been employed under adverse conditions, special measures have been necessary to protect the health of mothers and babies, and home life has been broken up by the increased employment of mothers.

"The bureau believes that the experience of other countries should be carefully considered in order that all possible provision may be made to prevent similar harm to children in the United States. The bureau has therefore begun a brief review of foreign experience, in so far as it can be understood from available reports, and will shortly publish a series of special articles about children in war time.

"A preliminary survey of the foreign material emphasizes the importance of a strict enforcement of all child-labor and school-attendance laws and a generous development of infant-welfare work by public and private agencies. The Children's Bureau suggests that a well-planned baby week will be more valuable this year than ever before and will gladly send its bulletin of directions for baby-week campaigns to any address."

The National Child Labor Committee in a special circular cites the experience of Great Britain in the war-time protection of its



children and wage earners and urges its members to (1) oppose all attempts to break down the school system in their vicinity either by relaxing enforcement of compulsory education laws or by cutting down school funds; (2) oppose all attempts to break down the labor laws of the State, either by giving young children special permits to work, or by exempting certain establishments from the laws limiting hours of labor; (3) support as usual local and national social agencies; and (4) work for the enactment of constructive legislative measures in spite of the war—measures now before Congress and the State legislatures.

#### ANNOUNCEMENT OF THE NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE.

In a letter of April 6 the National Consumers' League, through its secretaries, Mrs. Florence Kelley and Miss Pauline Goldmark, appealed to the National League for Woman's Service, the New York State Woman Suffrage Party, the National Council of Women, and the women's section of the National Service School for the maintenance of existing labor standards. The letter cites the experience of England and warns against acting under the first common impulse to sacrifice on the part of men and women. "In their zeal and haste there is danger that the safeguards of life, health, and vigor of working people will be lost, upon which success itself depends." Labor legislation rests on science and economic law; "health and economic efficiency alike depend upon such protection" as is afforded by labor legislation.

Attention is called to the apparent threat to the existing standards of labor in the proposed abrogation in New York State of the 54-hour law for women in so far as they may be employed in the manufacture of supplies for the Army and Navy, the action of the industrial commission of that State in exempting the Curtis Aeroplane Co. for an indefinite period from the observance of the law on weekly rest, the action of the State Federation of Labor of New York in recommending the removal of limitations on hours of labor, and the resolution of the New York Association of Employing Printers urging the State legislature to suspend or repeal limitations on hours of labor of women.

"In the light of English experience," the letter continues, "it is clear that whatever emergency measures may be indispensably necessary in the United States for the moment—such as the Executive order allowing 10 hours' instead of eight hours' work in shipyards on account of shortage of labor—should be exceptional and strictly temporary, and not precedents to apply in any field beyond the one in which each is issued."

An appeal is made to each organization addressed in the letter to (1) preserve short working hours wherever they exist; (2) maintain

the present minima of sanitation and safety; (3) keep the children in school by means of scholarships where necessary; (4) uphold the standard of living for the family, whether the chief wage earner is a soldier at the front or working on national supplies at home.

**SUSPENSION OF EIGHT-HOUR DAY ON GOVERNMENT SHIPBUILDING AND MUNITION CONTRACTS.**

The Executive Order of March 22, 1917, which suspended the eight-hour day on Government shipbuilding and munition contracts reads as follows:

In order to enable the Navy Department to meet the requirements of law to secure the more expeditious construction of ships and procurement of munitions authorized, and by virtue of the authority vested in me by the provisions of the act of Congress approved March 4, 1917, entitled "An act making appropriations for the naval service for the fiscal year ending June thirtieth, nineteen hundred and eighteen, and for other purposes," whereby it is provided "That in case of national emergency the President is authorized to suspend provisions of law prohibiting more than eight hours labor in any one day of persons engaged upon work covered by contracts with the United States: *Provided further*, That the wages of persons employed upon such contracts shall be computed on a basic day rate of eight hours work, with overtime rates to be paid for at not less than time and one-half for all hours work in excess of eight hours," I do hereby authorize the suspension of the provisions of law prohibiting more than eight hours of labor in any one day of persons engaged in such work under contract with the Navy Department in all navy yards and private establishments where such suspension of the provisions of the law will result in hastening preparation to meet present emergency conditions.

This order shall take effect from and after this date.

WOODBROW WILSON.

THE WHITE HOUSE,  
22 March, 1917.

**POLICY OF THE NAVY DEPARTMENT.**

Maintenance of protective standards for wage earners who serve their country in the factories and workshops under the pressure of war will be the policy of the Navy Department, as announced April 16 by Secretary Daniels.

"National effectiveness is now our paramount desire and duty," stated Secretary Daniels in reply to an inquiry by Prof. Irving Fisher, of Yale University, president of the American Association for Labor Legislation. "Labor strength and efficiency should be conserved. All the resources of the Nation, human as well as material, must be organized and operated with a view to the highest service. Those who serve in our industries are quite as necessary to successful prosecution of the war as are the fighting forces. The increase and maintenance of our naval strength will call for maximum output, sustained effort, and unimpaired labor power. The fitness of our industrial army must be safeguarded."

Referring to the scattering indications of a tendency to lower protective standards for men, women, and children in the supposed interest of quick and increased production, Secretary Daniels declared: "Testimony from Europe indicates that such a policy in war as well as in peace is mistaken and defeats the very purpose sought. It is of great national concern that at the outset of war this country shall maintain a scientific program of legal protection for workers, in the interest both of maximum production and human conservation. We must not permit overzeal to lead to the weakening of our protective standards and hence to the breaking down of the health and productiveness of labor."

#### MIGRATION OF WOMEN'S LABOR THROUGH THE EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES OF GREAT BRITAIN.<sup>1</sup>

During 1914 the number of women who obtained employment in other districts through the employment exchanges was 32,988; in 1915 the number increased to 53,096, and in 1916 to no less than 160,003.

In some cases these figures merely indicate a transference of labor from, e. g., one village to the next, or from one district of London to another; in others they indicate a complete change of residence and of occupation. (The number of women at present being transferred away from home through the employment exchanges to work at a distance amounts to an average of between 4,000 and 5,000 a month.) In general the figures illustrate the increasing mobility of women's labor, due to war conditions.

Two main difficulties have been experienced by the exchanges in the past in attempting to move even women without domestic ties from areas where there was unemployment or a lack of staple industries employing women's labor to centers where their services were in demand. In many cases the wages offered were too low to support a woman living in a strange town or to attract a woman from a district where the men of her household normally earned high wages. In others, even where the wages offered were comparatively high, there was a lack of a compelling motive strong enough to counteract the working woman's natural distrust of new conditions of employment amongst strange surroundings.

These difficulties have been in great part lessened by the increasing competition during the last two years for women to carry out Government contract work, or to act as substitutes for men, which has resulted in a growing demand for their services on favorable terms. At the same time economic pressure in the early days of the war and

<sup>1</sup> Great Britain. Board of Trade Labor Gazette, March, 1917, p. 92.

the patriotic desire of women of all classes to undertake work directly in connection with the manufacture of munitions and other war supplies have been powerful incentives to women to volunteer for work away from home if necessary.

The migration of women has also been very considerably facilitated by the arrangements made for their housing, welfare, and recreation in the larger demand centers, through the activities of the ministry of munitions and of the local advisory committees on women's war employment appointed under the Labor Exchanges Act (details of whose work in this connection were described in an article in the November, 1916, issue of this journal).

Some incidents of this war-time migration of women's labor are described below.

In the early days of the war women thrown out of employment in the pottery districts were moved to silk mills in neighboring towns, cotton operatives and carpet weavers were transferred to the Yorkshire woolen mills, and tailoresses from Cambridge, Cardiff, Belfast, and elsewhere were imported into Leeds for work in the local clothing factories.

In the West Midlands district alone, where before the war the migration of industrial women was practically unknown, over 4,000 women were during 1915 placed by the employment exchanges in employment away from their own districts, the greater number on munitions work, and others as artificial silk workers, rubber workers, chocolate makers, farm hands, and as substitutes for men in various kinds of work.

In the great majority of cases the occupations were entirely new to the workers, who were drawn from such diverse occupations as carpet weaving, chair making, domestic service, dressmaking, fustian cutting, lock making, millinery, shopwork, tailoring, web weaving, and pottery decorating.

Similarly much useful work was accomplished during this early period by the exchanges in transferring inland to other employment women from seasonal resorts on the east coast and fisher girls and other women engaged on subsidiary industries in fishing towns.

For example, women from Scarborough and Grimsby were moved to Keighley and the Colne Valley, and between March, 1915, and the end of the year no less than 700 women from the northeast coast towns and villages in Scotland were found employment in the Dundee jute mills and other industries of the town.

During the last year women have been transferred through the exchanges in steadily increasing numbers to act as substitutes for men in clerical and commercial occupations or in staple industries and to meet the growing demand for their services in agricultural districts and in different large munitions centers.

Some 300 women, for example, have been transferred from the Provinces for work in Government offices in London, in addition to the 11,000 or so who have been drawn into this work from London and its suburbs. Over 200 women have been imported from other northern districts into Huddersfield to act as pieceners, and a successful experiment was made at Barwell in drawing in some dozens of women from other East Midlands towns and villages to undertake work on various processes in the boot trade hitherto entirely performed by men.

During the summer of 1916, partly as the result of a specially organized scheme for vocational land workers, 1,225 women were moved to rural areas for fruit picking, harvesting, and other seasonal work, in addition to the very large numbers who were found permanent employment on the land.

The effort made by the minister of labor and the ministry of munitions in recruiting for munitions work to avoid as far as possible disturbing the labor employed on other important work in munitions centers or in other areas has in many cases necessitated the transference of women over considerable distances. Special propagandist campaigns have been undertaken appealing to unoccupied women in nonindustrial areas remote from the center where their labor is required. For example, efforts have been made to enroll the services of women in eastern and southern coast towns, in London suburbs, and in Tyneside towns, where there is normally little outlet for women's industrial activity.

During the last month 5,118 women from some 200 different exchange areas were brought into eight large munitions centers alone.

To one factory, for example, in the south of Scotland 1,641 women were brought during this period from 63 different districts, including 228 from two Tyneside towns alone, 40 from Berwick, 55 from Inverness, and 9 from one small Fifeshire village. To another in the West Midlands 772 women were imported from centers as far apart as Aberdeen and Penzance.

In this responsible work of transferring large numbers of women away from home the exchanges have had valuable assistance from local authorities, from women's county committees for agriculture, from the central and local advisory committees on women's war employment, and from other voluntary workers cooperating with them unofficially in meeting emergency problems.

As a general result the employment exchange authorities are able to guarantee that no woman is sent forward for employment away from home without suitable arrangements having been made as to reception and transit at the other end, lodging or hostel accommodation, and general welfare. Women submitted for work in national



factories have to pass a medical test before they leave home, and in all cases before proceeding on their journey women are fully informed as to the conditions of employment, the details of the journey, the address of the exchange at the other end, and the nature and approximate cost of the lodging accommodation available.

The exchanges also have general powers under the Labor Exchanges Act to advance money for traveling expenses by means of railway warrants.

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### JUVENILE EMPLOYMENT COMMITTEES OF GREAT BRITAIN.<sup>1</sup>

The departmental committee on juvenile education in relation to employment after the war have recently recommended that juvenile employment committees should be set up in about 150 new areas where, up to the present, no such provision has been made. It is, therefore, of some interest to describe the nature and functions of the existing committees which have during the last six years been set up in connection with employment exchanges in about 130 areas of the United Kingdom.

Nearly half of these committees have been formed by local education authorities under the Education (Choice of Employment) Act, 1910, while a similar number of advisory committees for juvenile employment have been appointed by the Board of Trade under the Labor Exchanges Act, 1909. The latter include the London committee, which has itself formed 20 local advisory committees to work with the employment exchanges in the area of the L. C. C. It should be added that the control of the committees of this type has now passed from the Board of Trade to the new ministry of labor, together with the administration of the employment exchanges themselves. On the other hand, committees under the Choice of Employment Act are subcommittees of the education committee of the local authority in each case.

Four parts of the work may conveniently be distinguished. In the first place there is the work of obtaining full knowledge of the educational and physical qualifications of boys and girls on leaving school or at later stages in their careers, in order that it may become possible to advise them suitably as to the occupations which they should enter. To this end teachers send to the committee, in respect of children leaving school, forms designed to obtain, among other information, particulars of their educational qualifications, their own wishes as to employment, and a summary of the school medical officer's health report. Invitations to meet members or offi-

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<sup>1</sup> Great Britain. Board of Trade Labor Gazette, February, 1917, p. 48.

cers of the committee are sent to children and their parents. Assistance is also given by committees to older children up to 17 years of age who apply to the exchange on seeking a change of employment.

The second part of the work consists in obtaining knowledge of the conditions of juvenile employment in the various trades and of the particular vacancies which arise from time to time. The cooperation of employers is enlisted by means of circular letters and personal canvass. Such a canvass is usually undertaken by the officers of the employment exchange, but it may also be carried on by a subcommittee of employers.

In the third place, the committee have to bring the boys and girls desiring work into touch with the employers desiring workers. It is at this stage that the information which has been collected as to the children on the one hand and the available employment on the other is found to be of extreme value in helping each child to choose the employment which is best suited to him. A committee can often give most valuable advice which prevents a promising boy from taking up uneducative but highly paid work or from entering an occupation for which his aptitude or physical condition makes him quite unsuited. Often the child is persuaded to remain at school until a suitable vacancy arises, or, if he is placed forthwith, arrangements may be made for his attendance at continuation classes, or, again, he may be found temporary employment and a record kept in order that he may be placed in skilled employment at a later date.

The last of the four parts of work referred to is that of supervising the boys and girls who have been placed and giving them on appropriate occasions much-needed advice designed to counteract the effects of the deteriorating industrial conditions to which they are so frequently exposed. For this purpose the committee will usually establish after-care committees and attract voluntary workers who are willing to keep in touch with boys and girls and from time to time forward reports on their welfare to the committee. The influence of these after-care workers, exerted in a variety of ways, has been found to be extremely valuable in dealing with the difficulties of juvenile employment. It is largely directed to steadying the child during a difficult period by impressing upon him a sense of his responsibility to his employer, by deprecating frequent changes of employment without adequate reason and without the knowledge of the juvenile exchange, and by encouraging attendance at continuation classes and the practice of thrift. The visitor will concern himself, too, with the physical welfare of the child by urging parents to obtain expert advice when necessary. A special watch will be kept over the boy who has been placed in some temporary employment

with a view to his becoming an apprentice in a skilled trade a year or two later.

Most committees are not content with limiting their work to the essential branches which have been indicated. They go further and widen their activities in attempts to improve the general conditions of boys' and girls' employment. They use their influence in the direction of raising the age at which children leave school; in a number of districts exemption certificates are issued to children only after the cases have been referred to the local juvenile employment committee. They have in some cases secured the adoption and in other cases the better enforcement of by-laws under the Employment of Children Act; occasionally street-trading licenses are issued only through the committee, who thereby are enabled to use their influence to dissuade parents from allowing children to take up this work. In some cases committees have induced employers to adopt a plan, which is rapidly growing in favor, of appointing in their works officers whose special duty it is to concern themselves with the welfare of the juvenile employees. The influence of many committees has been successful in inducing employers to encourage the attendance of their boy and girl workers at continuation classes, especially by allowing time off with pay during working hours, and by offering prizes or special prospects of promotion to those employees who do well at the classes.

A particularly promising avenue in which the activities of juvenile employment committees have recently been directed is that of convening conferences of employers and workpeople in various trades with a view to discussing the conditions and prospects of juvenile employment. It is satisfactory to note that a marked improvement in the arrangements for training boys and girls in the local trades has frequently resulted from such conferences.

Committees have naturally been concerned with the abnormal labor conditions arising as a result of the war. In present circumstances boys and girls are in great demand for occupations providing no training for future employment. The high wages in these occupations, the consequent slackening of parental control—frequently accentuated by the absence from home of fathers in the Army—the lengthened hours of labor, the general speeding up of industry—all have been blamed for an adverse influence resulting in less satisfactory educational and industrial training, in some injury to health, and in a marked deterioration of character. Juvenile employment committees have shown themselves fully alive to these difficulties, on which they were invited to report by the departmental committee referred to above.

The shortage of boys has resulted in numbers of occupations being entered for the first time by girls. In arranging this substitution the

assistance of juvenile employment committees has been of much value.

Further, it has, to a limited extent, been found desirable to draft boys and girls from areas where their services are not much in demand to districts where there is a scanty supply of labor for essential industries, or where opportunities for training in skilled employment are available. Where such migration has been carried out through the exchanges, special arrangements have been made to secure the welfare of the boys and girls in their new spheres.

Finally, it is certain that very important work lies before these committees during the period of industrial resettlement after the war. Difficulties may be anticipated—they are, indeed, already noticeable—as a result of the increasing employment of female labor in industry leading to considerable displacement of boys. By means of conferences of the kind already mentioned, information is being collected with regard to the probable openings for boy and girl labor in the altered conditions of industry. Committees have shown themselves eager to support proposals for the extension of the normal school life and the establishment of some system of compulsory day or evening continuation classes. They hope, when peace is in sight, to get into personal touch with those boys and girls who are likely to be discharged from highly paid occupations, and persuade them, where possible, to accept employment promising some future, though offering smaller initial wages.

The war has naturally made many special demands upon voluntary social workers, but committees are endeavoring to keep their organization in being in the confident hope that their knowledge and experience of the question of juvenile employment may contribute to the solution of the many difficulties attending social reconstruction which are certain to arise in the future.

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#### MINIMUM WAGE IN MASSACHUSETTS.

Two pamphlets recently issued by the Minimum Wage Commission of Massachusetts are its annual report for the year ending December 31, 1916,<sup>1</sup> and a report on the wages of women in men's clothing and raincoat factories.<sup>2</sup> During the year, according to the annual report, the commission completed the investigation, begun in 1915, of wages of women employed in the manufacture of men's ready-made clothing, and began and completed investigations of the

<sup>1</sup> Fourth annual report of the Minimum Wage Commission of Massachusetts for the year ending Dec. 31, 1916. Public Document No. 102. Boston, 1917. 55 pp.

<sup>2</sup> Wages of Women in Men's Clothing and Raincoat Factories in Massachusetts. Bulletin No. 13, Minimum Wage Commission, December, 1916. Boston, 1917. 60 pp.

wages of women employed in hotels and restaurants and in the manufacture of raincoats, men's shirts, overalls, neckwear, suspenders and other elastic goods, and women's muslin underwear, petticoats, aprons, kimonos, and neckwear. At the close of the year an investigation was being made of the wages of women engaged in the manufacture and trimming of millinery. The report summarizes the results of investigations in the garment trades, that covering men's clothing and raincoats being noted hereafter, and quotes extensively from the full report of the women's clothing wage board containing its recommendations together with reasons therefor.<sup>1</sup> The commission also made an inquiry into the wages of women in retail stores in order to ascertain the extent to which the minimum rates recommended in 1915 had been accepted and put into operation by the employers, and to discover as far as possible the effect of the minimum wage.<sup>2</sup>

In its investigations of the garment trades and hotels and restaurants during 1916 the commission secured records relating to the wages paid 17,952 women in 453 establishments, and in its second investigation of retail stores it secured wage records of 17,500 women in 970 establishments, making a total of 35,452 wage records for women in 1,423 establishments. For sufficient reasons a number of records obtained for women in the garment-making trades were eliminated, leaving 13,148 records relating to women in 304 establishments which were tabulated. The report gives no detailed information concerning the whole 35,452 records, but it does give the tabulated wages of women in the men's clothing and furnishing trades and in women's muslin underwear, petticoat, apron, kimono, and neckware factories.<sup>3</sup> It is stated that the total number of women employed in the men's clothing and furnishing trades is approximately 6,500, but no data is available as to the total number employed in the other group.

<sup>1</sup> This report was briefly noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW for September, 1916, p. 66.

<sup>2</sup> A digest of this report, Bulletin No. 12, of the Minimum Wage Commission appeared in the MONTHLY REVIEW for February, 1917, pp. 251-258.

<sup>3</sup> As indicated in the MONTHLY REVIEW for September, 1916, p. 66, the minimum wage established by the women's clothing wage board was \$8.75, with \$7 as the minimum for inexperienced women and \$6 for girls under 18 years of age.



NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WOMEN RECEIVING EACH SPECIFIED WAGE IN THE VARIOUS BRANCHES OF THE MEN'S CLOTHING AND FURNISHING TRADES, AND IN WOMEN'S MUSLIN UNDERWEAR, PETTICOAT, APRON, KIMONO, AND NECKWEAR FACTORIES.

Industry.	Number and per cent of women with average weekly earnings of—												Total.	
	Under \$5.		Under \$6.		Under \$7.		Under \$8.		Under \$9.		\$9 and over.			
	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.
MEN'S CLOTHING.														
Coats, pants, vests, and overcoats.....	262	23.1	485	42.8	703	62.1	884	78.1	977	86.3	155	13.7	1,132	100
Raincoats.....	118	18.8	229	36.6	328	52.4	407	65.0	500	79.9	126	20.1	626	100
Shirts.....	300	24.2	478	38.5	696	56.0	904	72.8	1,050	84.5	192	15.5	1,242	100
Overalls and duck coats.....	88	21.9	131	32.7	210	52.4	267	66.6	325	81.0	76	19.0	401	100
MEN'S FURNISHINGS.														
Neckwear.....	59	21.4	99	35.9	145	52.5	183	66.3	208	75.4	68	24.6	276	100
Suspenders, garters, etc.....	188	25.4	295	39.9	439	59.4	557	75.4	654	88.5	85	11.5	739	100
WOMEN'S CLOTHING.														
Muslin underwear....	279	29.1	444	46.3	599	62.4	772	80.4	873	90.9	87	9.1	960	100
Petticoats.....	21	7.9	55	20.8	96	36.2	136	51.3	165	62.3	100	37.7	265	100
Aprons and kimonos.	134	35.3	192	50.5	262	68.9	322	84.7	348	91.6	32	8.4	380	100
Neckwear.....	149	28.9	287	55.6	389	75.4	452	87.6	491	95.2	25	4.8	516	100

The report contains several recommendations, the most important, perhaps, being that the commission should have further powers to enforce the determinations of the minimum-wage boards when finally approved after public hearings held in accordance with the law. They ask for such powers only in certain definite cases:

The commission is of the opinion that it is necessary at this time to provide further penalties for the violation of its decrees in certain cases, namely, in cases where the commission's decree is based upon a determination by a wage board in which both a majority of the employers' representatives and a majority of the employees' representatives, respectively, concur. In such cases, as has been pointed out, it is unjust that a selfish minority of employers should be permitted to retain an unfair advantage over their more enlightened competitors, and possibly to deprive all the employees, not merely those in their own employ, of much of the benefit to be expected from the minimum-wage law.

The commission also asks for legislation requiring certain employers to keep records of hours worked by women and minors, legislation enabling the commission to fill vacancies in wage boards, and legislation to insure proper publicity for its orders and recommendations. A larger appropriation for the work of the commission is also requested; the amount appropriated for the year ending June 30, 1916, was \$17,400, of which \$16,416.41 was expended.

## WAGES OF WOMEN IN MEN'S CLOTHING AND RAINCOAT FACTORIES.

The investigation to determine the wages of women in men's clothing and raincoat factories was begun in December, 1915, and completed in June, 1916. The report published by the Minimum Wage Commission, to which reference has been made, outlines briefly the growth of the manufacture of men's clothing (exclusive of shirts) in the United States, noting the fact that Massachusetts ranks sixth among the States, its 206 factories employing in 1913 an average of 5,813 workers (2,634 males and 3,179 females) who were paid \$3,444,863, or an average annual wage of \$592.61, for turning out product valued at \$18,481,899.

Twenty-eight establishments engaged in the manufacture of men's ready-made coats, overcoats, vests, and trousers, and 15 raincoat factories were studied, a transcript of pay-roll records for each female employee being taken covering a 52-week period prior to the initiation of the investigation. In the case of coat, vest, and pants shops the number of hours worked each week was also secured. In tabulating the data, the records of all persons who appeared on the pay roll for less than four weeks were omitted, as were also records for forewomen, fitters, office employees, and those engaged in the manufacture of custom-made garments. Records of payment for home work were also discarded.

It was found that establishments engaged in the manufacture of men's outer clothing fall broadly into four groups: (1) Clothing houses that operate "inside shops"—that is, establishments in which the product is manufactured in shops owned and directly operated by the management; (2) clothing houses in which part of the product is manufactured in inside shops and part contracted; (3) clothing houses that cut out and prepare the garments for manufacture but give them out to contractors to make up; (4) contract shops in which clothing is manufactured on a contract basis from materials furnished and cut out by others. While accurate figures do not appear to be available, it is suggested that the largest number of establishments fall in the first and second groups and the smallest number in the last group. The so-called "inside shops" (groups 1 and 2) are of two types: (1) Large establishments producing a complete line of outer garments, some of which dispose of their product at retail in their own stores, and (2) small establishments which manufacture special lines, principally separate trousers. The contract shops are likewise of two types: (1) Establishments controlled by the large clothing houses which work solely or principally for one concern, and (2) establishments which are independent of any one manufacturer and make up goods for any concern that offers them work. Home work seems to be confined

to the finishing processes on trousers, and exact data as to the number of workers and wages received could not be obtained.

The following table shows the number and per cent of women earning each specified average weekly amount and the number and per cent scheduled at each specified weekly rate of wages in establishments manufacturing men's coats, vests, trousers, and overcoats.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WOMEN IN MEN'S CLOTHING FACTORIES EARNING EACH SPECIFIED AVERAGE WEEKLY AMOUNT AND NUMBER AND PER CENT SCHEDULED AT EACH SPECIFIED WEEKLY RATE.

Wage group.	Women receiving specified average weekly earnings.		Women receiving scheduled weekly rate of wages.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Under \$3.....	43	3.8		
\$3 and under \$4.....	67	5.9	12	1.9
\$4 and under \$5.....	152	13.4	31	5.0
\$5 and under \$6.....	223	19.7	59	9.4
\$6 and under \$7.....	218	19.3	118	18.8
\$7 and under \$8.....	181	16.0	138	22.0
\$8 and under \$9.....	93	8.2	130	20.7
\$9 and over.....	155	13.7	139	22.2
Total.....	1,132	100.0	1,627	100.0

<sup>1</sup> Data concerning rates for 505 workers, the majority of whom were pieceworkers, were not available.

A very striking feature of this table is the wide difference between the proportion scheduled to receive a certain weekly rate, and the proportion actually earning that amount. Only one-sixth had weekly rates of less than \$6, but over two-fifths had average weekly earnings of less than \$6; over one-fifth had weekly rates of \$9 or over, but only about one-eighth received average weekly earnings of \$9 or over. A part of this discrepancy is due to the fact that the amounts paid the women did not always represent a full week's work. "The factory or department may have been running on short time, girls may have entered or left in the middle of a week, or absences may have occurred because of illness or other individual reasons." It is not probable, however, that such part weeks would be sufficiently numerous to account for any large proportion of the discrepancy shown above.

The average weekly earnings seem low. Over three-fourths (78.1 per cent) earned less than \$8 a week, and only 155 or 13.7 per cent earned \$9 or over. Unfortunately the workers did not receive even these earnings for anything like the whole year. The largest single group, 38.1 per cent, had annual earnings of less than \$100; 276 or 24.4 per cent earned annually \$100 but under \$200; 167 or 14.7 per cent earned \$200 but under \$300; 14.4 per cent earned \$300 but under \$400; and only 30 or 2.7 per cent of the total had annual earnings of \$500 or over. This of course implies great irregularity of work.

Less than one-half (45.1 per cent) of the group were employed for 6 months or longer; 16.2 per cent were employed for 4 weeks only, and only 5 per cent had steady work for 12 months. This irregularity appears to have no connection with the skill or lack of skill involved in a given occupation. "Among the occupations affording the least steady work are finishing and buttonhole making, the most poorly and the most highly paid occupations, respectively, for women employed in men's clothing factories." It appears to be a feature of the occupation, found in both "inside" and contract shops and in practically all occupations.

In general, the hours were not as long as permitted by law, but tended to be longer in the contract shops than in the regular factories.

Of the 533 women for whom records of hours were secured only about half (51.2 per cent) were employed for over an average of 42 hours a week. Only one establishment gave employment to any of its workers for more than an average of 50 hours a week, while one establishment had no employees who worked for more than 34 hours a week on the average. The relation between the wage level and hours of labor is clearly shown by the records of \* \* \* two contract shops which made the same line of goods and paid approximately the same rates to week workers. In the former, 10.3 per cent of the employees worked on the average over 50 hours a week and 17.8 per cent earned \$9 or over, while in the latter, where no workers were employed for more than an average week of 34 hours, only 5 per cent earned \$9 or over.

There was a marked variation in the wages paid to the workers in different establishments which can not be explained, as the above difference in earnings is, by a difference in the time worked. Probably here, as in other industries, a difference in the ability of the managers accounts for the ability to pay better wages for the same kind of work. The report suggests no other explanation.

Variations between individual establishments in the same groups were conspicuous, but are difficult to explain either by differences in locality, in the kind and grade of goods made, or the size and type of organization of the shop. The two establishments paying the highest wages, judged from the number of workers earning \$9 or over, were an inside coat shop which employs an unusually large number of women as machine operators and a clothing house which has all its garments made outside by contract and employs women as bushelers only.

The majority of women for whom information was obtained as to age were 25 years old or over, and 18 per cent were at least 40 years old. There was a tendency for earnings to increase with the years up to the age of 60. Experience bore an important relation to wages. Thus, of 228 women employed less than 5 years only 22, or 9.6 per cent, received \$9 or over, while of 166 women employed for more than 5 years 39, or 23.5 per cent, received \$9 or over.

In the raincoat industry practically the same conditions were found to exist, although a larger proportion were in the group with

average weekly earnings of \$8 and under \$9 (14.9 per cent) and in the \$9 and over group (20.1 per cent). The table on page 667 shows the cumulative number and per cent receiving each specified amount. There were in Massachusetts about 30 establishments producing raincoats only and a much smaller number manufacturing raincoats in addition to other lines of rubber goods. The former employed about 300 persons and the latter from 400 to 600 in their raincoat departments. There is practically no contracting in this industry. Here 36.6 per cent earned less than \$6 per week, 65 per cent less than \$8 per week, and 38 per cent less than \$100 per year. The fluctuation of employment was also practically the same as in the other industries studied. Nearly 86 per cent of the workers were living at home.

#### BRIEF OF DEFENDANTS IN THE OREGON MINIMUM WAGE CASE.

On April 9 the Supreme Court of the United States, on a tie vote, handed down a decision sustaining the Supreme Court of Oregon in declaring the minimum-wage law of that State constitutional.<sup>1</sup> This law became effective on June 3, 1913, and is administered by the Industrial Welfare Commission which, in an effort to enforce its provisions, issued an order directing that no manufacturing establishment in the city of Portland should employ "any experienced, adult woman worker, paid by time rates of payment, in said establishment at a weekly wage of less than \$8.64, any lesser amount being hereby declared inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living to such woman factory workers, and to maintain them in health." Shortly thereafter Frank C. Stettler, a paper-box manufacturer in Portland, and Elmira Simpson, in his employ at a weekly wage of \$8, each brought suit to have the order vacated and to enjoin its enforcement. Upon trial the lower court dismissed the suits, this action, subsequently affirmed by the supreme court of the State, in effect sustaining the constitutionality of the act against attacks based upon both the Oregon and the United States constitutions. The cases were then carried to the Supreme Court of the United States in an effort to have the law declared of no effect as violative of the fourteenth amendment.

The argument of defendants in error as presented to the Supreme Court, embracing a mass of evidence covering foreign and American legislation providing for the establishment of a minimum wage for women, the experience upon which such legislation is based, and the citation of a large number of cases bearing upon the subject, is embodied in a volume of 783 pages issued by the National Consumers'

<sup>1</sup> The decision of the Supreme Court of Oregon, which was affirmed by the United State Supreme Court, is reviewed on pages 685 and 686 of this issue.



League of New York City.<sup>1</sup> At the outset it is explained that the plaintiffs contended that Oregon was prohibited from enacting this legislation by the equal-protection clause, the privileges and immunities clause, and the due-process clause of the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution. The defendants dismiss the first two propositions and proceed with their argument to show that the plaintiffs have not, as claimed, been deprived of liberty or property without due process of law. It is maintained that the cases reduce themselves to an application of Marshall's canon, as follows:

Let the end be legitimate, let it be within the scope of the Constitution, and all means which are appropriate, which are plainly adapted to that end, which are not prohibited, but consist with the letter and spirit of the Constitution, are constitutional.

The defendants then go on to show that (1) Oregon by this legislation aimed at "ends" that are "legitimate and within the scope of the Constitution," that (2) the "means" selected by Oregon are "appropriate and plainly adapted" to accomplish these ends, and that (3) no right of the plaintiffs secured under the Constitution of the United States "prohibits" the use of these appropriate means so adopted by the State of Oregon to accomplish these legitimate public ends.

In the first place, it is pointed out that an investigation showed that women were receiving wages inadequate to meet their living expenses; and in order to provide for this "deficit between the cost of woman's labor—that is, the means necessary to keep labor going—and any rate of women's pay below the minimum level for living and so to eliminate all the evils attendant upon such deficits on a large scale," the statute was enacted and in pursuance thereof the order was issued by the commission. "The ends toward which this legislation was directed were the ends that are the very life of the State, namely, the health and civilized maintenance of this generation, and the healthy and civilized continuance of generations to follow," and as such were "legitimate" and "within the scope of the Constitution."

In the second place the defendants show that means other than the minimum-wage law might have been adopted to accomplish the same end, but maintain that the means adopted were "appropriate" and "plainly adapted" to accomplish the legitimate end, and that Oregon was supported in this stand by the "persuasive volume of accredited opinion and the experience of other countries vindicating

<sup>1</sup> Oregon Minimum Wage Cases. Supreme Court of the United States, October Term, 1916. Nos. 25 and 26. Frank C. Stettler, plaintiff in error, *v.* Edwin O'Hara et al., constituting the Industrial Welfare Commission. Elmira Simpson, plaintiff in error, *v.* Edwin O'Hara et al., constituting the Industrial Welfare Commission. Brief for defendants in error upon reargument. Felix Frankfurter, counsel for the Industrial Welfare Commission, assisted by Josephine Goldmark. Reprinted by National Consumers' League, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York City. [1917.] 783 pp.

the reasonableness \* \* \* of Oregon's legislation." Therefore it was open to the State to try the method adopted unless it was affirmatively prohibited by the Constitution.

The third argument is developed at some length and centers around the proposition whether the plaintiffs are, in fact, by the Oregon minimum-wage law, deprived of their rights of liberty or property guaranteed them by the Constitution, and if so, what is the justification, that is, the "due process" of the deprivation. It is argued that "the liberty which Stettler really is seeking is the liberty to pay an unfair wage," that Simpson's "liberty" consists in her right to employment with Stettler rather than with other employers at a higher pay, and that these "liberties" are "merely nominal and theoretical and not asserted bona fide."

Therefore it was not "arbitrary," "wanton," or a "spoliation" for Oregon to allow great public interests to prevail over them.

As to "property"<sup>1</sup> Stettler claims that he can not continue in business if he is required to pay his employees \$8.64 per week, but this alleged "deprivation of property" is disposed of by the defendants in the statement that the statute itself provides him a means of avoiding any property loss by its provision in respect of special licenses. The act puts no compulsion upon him to increase the wages of any of his employees; it forbids their employment at less than the minimum wage without the leave of the commission. Therefore it would appear that "the alleged deprivations of property are either merely nominal and not bona fide, like the so-called 'liberties,' or hypothetical and unsubstantiated, and therefore were not dealt with arbitrarily or wantonly or as a spoliation."

Again, the defendants argue that it is not "arbitrary," "wanton," or a "spoliation" for the State to require Stettler to pay the cost of Simpson's labor if he chooses to use it. He is not required to employ Simpson, but if he does he alone has the use of her working energy to maintain which a cost of not less than \$8.64 per week was determined upon as essential. Then the matter of the State's interest in a contract of employment in which a "mere living wage" is at stake must be considered as giving it special justification for controlling such contracts; it is a different matter from a case where an ordinary wage bargain is involved.

The defendants justify the right of the State to require Stettler to obtain a license from the commission before he can buy labor at less than cost and to require the consent of the commission before allowing an employee to sell labor below cost, because that right is

<sup>1</sup> The brief disposes of the Simpson case in the following words: "As to 'property,' Simpson shows no deprivation whatever that can be separated from her claim in regard to 'liberty,' and so no further special consideration of her case is necessary at this point."

a reasonable means for preventing unfair competition between manufacturers.

Since liberty of action implies choice, and therefore substantial freedom of contract presupposes equality of bargaining power, it is held that the State is justified in requiring the consent of the commission before allowing a wage contract at below cost, because of the actual inherent inequality of bargaining power between parties.

The "liberty of contract" which the present legislation would destroy is only the "liberty" of an employer to abuse and the "liberty" of an employee to be abused. True freedom of contract is established, rather than impaired, by such restrictions. Their very purpose is to assure the parties an equal basis for bargaining, so that they may be free to bargain on the merits and not under the compulsion of a crippling necessity.

Furthermore, this right of the State to require the consent of the commission before allowing a wage contract at below cost is not, it is argued, "arbitrary, wanton, or a spoliation," because that is a reasonable exercise of the State power to minimize danger of unfair and oppressive contracts and to foster the productivity of industry. In the case at bar it is argued that Stettler's interest centers in his desire to get the labor at less than the cost of the human energy which produces the product—an unfair practice which the State may rightfully prevent. Again, since the strength and safety of the State and its citizens depend upon the efficiency of its industries, which in turn are maintained by the competence and physical vigor of the workers, it becomes the right and duty of the State to encourage and stimulate productivity by the conservation of the human resources. This involves protective legislation, such as is embodied in the Oregon minimum-wage law.

To-day the center of gravity of the State is industry, just as in feudal days it was land. The common law met the demands of the feudal period by working out the incidence of feudal tenure as a body of reciprocal liabilities between lord and man flowing from the relationship of tenure. \* \* \* No one could have thought that such changes were arbitrary, wanton, or spoliative—that is, other than due process of law. On the contrary, the scope of such judicial and legislative power as part of the whole scheme of Anglo-American law inheres in that legislative power which underlies the fourteenth amendment, and was not intended to be restricted by it. In other words, it is of the very essence of the common-law system—including the minor judicial and the major legislative modifications—to regard the lawmaking energies of the State as progressive activities to meet needed changes.

We are here dealing with an exercise of the same public power as that of the common law regarding land tenure. With its exercise in the past we are familiar; its unsettled application to the needs of a changing present gives an illusion of novelty to the new exercise of an old power. This novelty must not be allowed to deceive; the unfamiliar must not now, any more than in the past, be denied as "unconstitutional." New circumstances call for new effort, and the fourteenth amendment has left unimpeded the power of conscientious statemanship to grapple with new difficulties.

As already suggested, the major portion of the volume is devoted to State and foreign minimum-wage legislation, and the recital of the experience upon which such legislation is based. Under this latter head is included evidence tending to show the evils of low wages, including their bad effect on the public health, on morals, and on the public welfare; the economic aspect of low wages; and the financial burden imposed upon the State. The benefits of increased wages—the relation to cost of production, their stimulus to industrial efficiency, and their benefits to the general standard of living—are also set forth, followed by an outline taken from official and other sources, of the benefits of the legal minimum wage. Here are shown its relation to profits and commercial prosperity; its effect upon prices; how it stimulates industrial efficiency; its bearing on wages; its effect on employment and displacement of workers; its benefits to industrial peace and to competing employers; and the increasing scope and success of the various minimum-wage acts. A comparison with other labor legislation closes the volume.

#### RECENT SUPREME COURT DECISIONS AND THE LABOR CONTRACT.

BY LINDLEY D. CLARK.

On March 19 and April 9 the Supreme Court of the United States rendered decisions of unusual interest in their interpretation of the law governing the contract of the employment of labor. On the earlier date the Adamson eight-hour law for employees of carriers engaged in interstate commerce, approved September 3, 5, 1916 (39 Stat., 721), was sustained as constitutional (*Wilson v. New*, 37 Sup. Ct., 298); while on the latter date two laws of the State of Oregon were likewise upheld against attacks on their constitutionality. In one case (*Bunting v. Oregon*, 37 Sup. Ct., —), an act (Acts of 1913, ch. 102), establishing a 10-hour day for factory employees in the State, without regard to sex, and permitting not to exceed three hours' overtime on the payment of one and one-half times the regular wage, was sustained; while in the second two suits were involved (*Stettler v. O'Hara* and *Simpson v. O'Hara*, 37 Sup. Ct., —), the statute under consideration being one providing for the establishment of minimum wages for women and children by the Industrial Welfare Commission of Oregon (Acts of 1913, ch. 62).

It is of interest to note that in every instance the decision sustaining the law was by a divided court, the Adamson law being sustained by a vote of 5 to 4, five opinions being written, three of them in dissent. The court was evenly divided as to the minimum-wage law, Mr. Justice Brandeis taking no part, a tie leaving the State decision sustaining the law undisturbed; while in the case of the 10-hour law three justices dissented, Mr. Justice Brandeis taking no part. The

nonparticipation of Mr. Justice Brandeis in these two decisions is due to the fact that prior to his appointment to the bench he had assisted in the preparation of the briefs upholding the laws, and as this service was voluntarily rendered on account of his interest in such legislation, it is a fair assumption that if cases of this nature should again come before the court he would be found on the side of their constitutionality.

These decisions are so far-reaching in their effects and implications that it has seemed worth while not only to set forth a summary of the points actually under consideration but also to present something of a review of the development of the ideas that have here found their most complete and advanced expression. Inasmuch as the decision in the Adamson case involved questions of both hours and wages, it will be considered first. The other cases will fall into their places in the discussion of the different elements involved in this case. (See pp. 682 and 685.)

#### THE DECISION AS TO THE ADAMSON EIGHT-HOUR LAW—WILSON v. NEW.

The act in question was to become effective on January 1, 1917, but prior to that date the employers, not accepting the act as constitutional, brought suit to obtain an injunction against its enforcement. The act was held unconstitutional by a district court judge, and an appeal to the Supreme Court was taken directly, all parties cooperating to facilitate early action. Mr. Chief Justice White delivered the majority opinion of the court, prefacing his discussion of the law by some account of the circumstances of its enactment. These were, in brief, that in March, 1916, there were two methods of determining wages of railroad employees, one an eight-hour standard of work and wages with additional pay for overtime, in use on about 15 per cent of the roads, while the other was a stated mileage task of 100 miles, to be performed during 10 hours, with extra pay for excess service. In that month the trainmen's brotherhoods made a demand that for all but passenger trains the time of the 100-mile task be reduced to eight hours without any reduction of wages, overtime to be paid for at one and one-half times the regular rates, excess time to be counted by minutes. Other details were set forth as to the demands, the attitude of the employers, the efforts of the President to secure arbitration (which was rejected by the employees), his proposal that the employers accept the eight-hour standard of work and wages (which was rejected by them), and the ultimate action of the President in asking Congress to pass a law establishing such a standard. As a part of the President's proposition there was to be an official body appointed to observe during a reasonable time the effects of the proposed legislation and an explicit assurance given the employers that increased costs of operation due to the law should be



referred to the Interstate Commerce Commission with authority to increase transportation rates if found necessary.

The statute enacted embodied the provision of eight hours as "a day's work and the measure or standard of a day's work for the purpose of reckoning the compensation" of the employees involved, in all contracts for labor and service, with certain exceptions as to short roads and electric lines. The appointment of a commission to observe operations was provided for, report to be made to the President and Congress after not less than six nor more than nine months; pending such report and for 30 days thereafter the existing standard wage was not to be reduced.

Discussion immediately arose as to the nature of the act, i. e., whether an hours-of-labor act or a wages act, there being an evident conviction that it could be much more easily sustained as a regulation of hours of labor than of the rates of wages. According to the decision of the court, the act is one establishing an eight-hour day as the measure or standard of a day's work as a permanent rule, the majority holding that it was so obviously within the power of Congress to enact such a rule as to render the subject not disputable. There was also a fixing of wages, resulting from the prohibition against reducing existing wages, but expressly limited as to time, so that it was not permanent but temporary, leaving the matter to subsequent agreement when the time fixed should elapse. This fixing of wages was held by the majority to be within the power of Congress in view of the "dispute between employers and employees as to a standard of wages, their failure to agree, the resulting absence of such standard, the entire interruption of interstate commerce which was threatened, and the inevitable injury to the public interest which was imminent." The power to act was held to be conferred by the constitutional authority of Congress to regulate interstate commerce, and the contention that an emergency could not create a power was met by the statement that no such claim was made, but only that the situation presented a condition in which an existing power, hitherto unused, might be properly exercised.

The concurring opinion of one justice was devoted to the proposition that it was the intent of Congress "to proclaim a substantial eight-hour day," and while admitting Congress has the power to enact a wages law, that such was not the intention of the present statute. On the other hand, three of the dissenting justices declared that there was no attempt by Congress to enact an eight-hour statute, since there was no repeal of the 16-hour law, and no penalty for work in excess of eight hours, the law providing only for pro rata pay for labor performed after the expiration of the eight-hour period. One of these three justices admitted that Congress might fix rates of wages, but held that in doing so it must observe due process of law,

which was not done in the present case. Three of the dissenting justices held that it was not within the power of Congress to determine rates of wages.

It is obvious that the majority opinion, in taking the ground that the circumstances furnished a warrant or at least an occasion for the exercise of a hitherto unused power, gave to the statute the force and effect of a compulsory arbitration award, and they were explicit in asserting the power of Congress so to act, either by direct legislation or "by the enactment of other and appropriate means providing for the bringing about of such result," since if there were no such power to remove the situation created by the dispute, the public would be left helpless, the people ruined, and the power of the Government to enforce the duty of operation reduced to derision. In the concurring opinion of Mr. Justice McKenna the power to arbitrate was said to be in the hands of Congress, but he maintained that it had not been used in the present instance—this on the ground that the act is simply an hours-of-labor law. Mr. Justice McReynolds, on the other hand, devoted his dissent to the declaration that Congress had not the power to fix wages until the majority opinion of the court in the present case affirmed the contrary; but considering that the power to fix wages was now established by such ruling, the power of compulsory arbitration "follows as of course." Justices Day, Pitney, and Van Devanter denied the right of Congress compulsorily to arbitrate, Mr. Justice Day saying: "I am not prepared to admit that Congress may, when deemed necessary for the public interest, force employees against their will to continue in service in interstate commerce," though he said he did not regard the question as involved.

The question of classification was raised, but only briefly discussed, since the exemption of short-line and electric railroads was held to be valid on authority, while the charge of inequality, because the statute deals only with specified classes of employees, was met by the statement that "such employees were those concerning whom the dispute as to wages existed, growing out of which the threat of interruption to interstate commerce arose—a consideration which establishes an adequate basis for the statutory classification." Here again the viewpoint of an arbitration award is evident.

Three dissenting judges emphasized the lack of "due process of law," holding that even the powers which Congress might constitutionally exert must be exercised in accordance with the constitutional requirement of the fifth amendment, that "no person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law, nor shall private property be taken for public use without just compensation," which they maintained had not been observed. It was declared by this minority that the act had not the "object, operation, or effect" of a regulation of commerce; that as an effort to prevent a

strike it was intelligible; but that the emergency conferred no power to impose the burden of increased wage payments on the carriers. Further, it was declared that the action taken was taken in the absence of "the information necessary for intelligent and just treatment of the pending controversy," a situation which was said to be confessed by the appointment of an investigating commission to discover the effects of the law subsequent to its enactment instead of determining them by prior inquiry.

The answer to this contention by the majority was that Congress evidently exercised discretion, taking the existing facts into consideration, as shown by its refusal to grant the full demands of the employees, yielding in part to the objections of the employers and establishing only a temporary fixing of wages, with opportunity for the exercise of the private right of agreement at the expiration of the time fixed.

It is not too much to say that the power of Congress to regulate interstate commerce stands disclosed in a different light as a result of this decision. It has long been accepted that railroad service is "affected by public use," but that the effect of such a classification extended to the subjecting of railroad service, regardless of the carrying of the mails, to a power of the Government to enforce the duty of operation seems not to have been hitherto generally accepted. The issue was sharply drawn in the dissenting opinion of Mr. Justice Pitney, in which he said: "I am unable to find in the Constitution any authority on the part of Congress to commandeer the railroads or the services of the trainmen."

Both sides pointed out the extent to which prior regulations had been carried out, but they differed widely in the deductions which should be drawn therefrom. Hours of service, safety appliances, and the liability of the employer were recognized by both sides as being proper subjects for such control as Congress had previously exercised, but the dissenting opinion pointed out that the 16-hour law was sustained because "the length of hours of service has direct relation to the efficiency of the human agencies upon which protection to life and property necessarily depends." (*Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. v. Interstate Commerce Commission* (1911), 221 U. S., 612, 619; 31 Sup. Ct., 621.) Violation of this act subjects the company to penalties enforced by the Government and also to civil liability, where injury to employees is shown to flow therefrom; while the Adamson law contains no provision for punishment for work beyond eight hours and entails no other liability than that of payment of pro rata wages during the time of excess employment, which may be extended up to the 16-hour limit prescribed by the act of 1907.

Safety-appliance acts are, as their name indicates, designed to secure the safety of employees and travelers (*Johnson v. Southern Pac. Co.* (1904), 196 U. S., 1; 25 Sup. Ct., 158); while the liability statute was sustained (*Second Employers' Liability Cases* (1912), 223 U. S., 1; 32 Sup. Ct., 169), because the changes made in the law would have a natural tendency "to impel the carriers to avoid or prevent the negligent acts and means which are made the basis of the rights of recovery which the statute creates and defines." The brief for the Government in the present (*Wilson*) case had urged the value of an adequate wage as being "essential to safe, regular, and efficient service in interstate commerce, and the public, through Congress, has a right to demand its payment." This phase of the question, however, was not dwelt upon by the majority opinions, nor was it suggested that the end in view was the protection of health or the increase of safety.

#### "FREEDOM OF CONTRACT."

On one point, however, all the judges would agree, and that is that the earlier regulations referred to and regarded as constitutional and desirable by all, no less truly than the act under present consideration, are interferences with what may be called the natural right of employers and employees to make contracts to receive and to render service on conditions agreed to by them. This is true even though a dissenting opinion described the act as standing "wholly without precedent in either State or National legislation."

Numerous decisions exist defining and upholding freedom of contract, and setting forth the right of the workingman to offer his services on such conditions as his judgment approves, and no others; while the employer may accept or reject any offer of service with reason or without reason, the rights of both parties being secured to them by the Federal Constitution. The exercise of natural rights, however, comes to be subject to limitations as soon as members of society come into contact one with another, and this natural freedom is subjected to restraint and regulation on behalf of the public welfare on the one hand, while, on the other, economic and practical limitations affecting unequally the various social groups so far modify the theoretical freedom that it has been said that the idea of freedom of contract is a legal fiction rather than a reality. The immediate urgency of the conditions affecting a man without capital that he secure an income by his personal skill or strength impels him to make terms on conditions prescribed by the man whose accumulated capital places him somewhat beyond the reach of immediate necessity for additional returns. The disadvantages under which the former class, much the larger numerically, has labored have led to legislative action the object of which is to equalize the bargaining

status, and, in so far, the economic conditions of the two parties. To such an extent has this been recognized that economists and lawmakers alike are practically agreed in discarding the old *laissez faire* doctrine, according to which each one is left to his own resources and the principal of natural right controls, and much has been done by the legislatures to relieve the "inequalities of fortune," with the avowed intention of securing a more practical freedom of contract by equalizing the position of the parties.

Restricting the present research to enactments in the fields touched upon by the decision on the Adamson law, the following discussion will take note of some developments, statutory and judicial, which will be considered as in accord with the present enactment and decision or not, according as one accepts the point of view of the majority that much of the act under discussion was so fully sustained by early decisions "as to render the subject not disputable," or whether the minority position that "the act stands wholly without precedent" is adopted.

#### HOURS OF LABOR.

The subject of the hours of labor of employed persons has been legislated upon for many years and for a variety of reasons. The earliest laws on the subject dealt with the employment of children, later including women in their scope. The basis of such laws was primarily that the individuals affected were wards of society, but later decisions as to women have had regard for the functions of motherhood and the dependence of the Nation for its future welfare upon the conservation of the health of its women (*Muller v. Oregon* (1908), 208 U. S., 412; 28 Sup. Ct., 324).

It is evident that the grounds for laws affecting adult males must differ from those controlling in the foregoing instances, and the movement for general regulations of this nature has been extremely slow. Beginning with mines (Maryland, 1884, Wyoming, 1889), legislation was addressed to an industry in which there were peculiar hazards to life and health which have secured for those employed in it a quite general restriction to an eight-hour day. Such laws are constitutional (*Holden v. Hardy* (1898), 169 U. S., 366; 18 Sup. Ct., 383), not because of their effect on the public welfare in its larger aspect, but because they protect the individual workman from the injurious effects of protracted hours of labor under unhealthful conditions. Such laws are valid, therefore, rather as health than as labor laws.

Railroad employment next came under legislative direction, beginning with Minnesota (1885) and Ohio (1890). The Ohio statute was declared unconstitutional by a subordinate court, no appeal apparently having been taken, on the same grounds that the Supreme



Court of Colorado rejected a law of that State dealing with employees in mines, i. e., that such laws interfere with private business and the rights of individuals to control their own affairs. However, the safety of the public no less than the welfare of the employees is involved in legislation limiting the hours of labor on railroads, and Congress has acted (1907) to restrict the hours of service that may be required or permitted where the movement of trains is involved, this act being held to be within the power of Congress (*Baltimore & Ohio R. Co. v. Interstate Commerce Commission* (1911), 221 U. S., 612; 31 Sup. Ct., 621).

Two States, Mississippi (Acts of 1912, ch. 157) and Oregon (Acts of 1913, ch. 102), have enacted laws of general application to factory labor, establishing a 10-hour day, and these laws have been sustained by the State courts of last resort (*State v. J. J. Newman Lumber Co.* (1912), 59 So. 923; *State v. Bunting* (1914), 139 Pac., 731); as an exercise of the police power in behalf of the public welfare. The Oregon (*Bunting*) case was carried to the Supreme Court on the ground of the unconstitutionality of the statute and, as already stated, was upheld on April 9, 1917, Mr. Justice McKenna writing the opinion; Mr. Chief Justice White and Justices Van Devanter and McReynolds dissented, but without opinion.

#### THE OREGON 10-HOUR LAW—BUNTING v. OREGON.

F. O. Bunting, the plaintiff in error, had employed a workman, neither in an emergency, nor paying him for overtime, and on conviction claimed that the act was a wage law and not a health regulation, taking the property of the plaintiff without due process of law. It was not denied by the plaintiff that the police power of the State extends to health regulations, and the Supreme Court of Oregon had declared the act to be one for the protection of the health, well-being, and general welfare of the public, making no attempt to fix a standard of wages. The United States Supreme Court commented on this conclusion, as well as on the statement of the lower court as to the intention of the law to establish a regular 10-hour day with a mild penalty for overtime employment. The Supreme Court, however, did not feel required to determine the precise reasons for the law or the actual wisdom of its enactment, conceding that it was in the discretion of the legislature to establish new policies, even though tentative and imperfect in their beginnings, provided they did not transcend constitutional limits, which it was held was not the case in the present instance.

The contention having been made that the law is a wage law and not an hours-of-service law, the court pointed out that the mere fact that it was not as rigid in its prohibitions of overtime work as might

be and enforced its penalties by means of an increase in wages paid for overtime did not determine its classification. As to the claim that even as an hours-of-service law it was neither necessary nor useful, the judgment of the legislature and of the State courts was referred to as supporting the opposite contention, which the record contained no facts to overthrow.

The nearest approach to a precedent to the Bunting case, so far as similarity of laws considered is concerned, is that of *Lochner v. New York* (1905, 198 U. S., 45; 25 Sup. Ct., 539), in which a statute of New York fixing a 10-hour day and a 60-hour week for employment in bakeries in the State was under consideration. This act was held unconstitutional, five justices to four, the State court of last resort having maintained its constitutionality, four judges to three. In view of the fact that no reference was made to the *Lochner* case in the opinion in the Bunting case the question arises whether the court intended to distinguish the one from the other or whether the decision in the *Lochner* case must be regarded as overruled. The majority opinion announced by the New York court in the *Lochner* case was that the act was properly a health regulation within the police power of the State and having regard to the public welfare, while the minority maintained that it was a mere regulation of labor not warranted as a health regulation and was an interference with the constitutional right of contract. The Supreme Court adopted the position of the minority in the court below, holding that there was no sufficient evidence that the occupation was so unhealthy as to warrant the interference of the legislature with the liberty of the individual.

"Statutes of the nature of that under review limiting the hours in which grown and intelligent men may labor to earn their living are mere meddlesome interferences with the rights of the individual, and they are not saved from condemnation by the claim that they are passed in the exercise of the police power and upon the subject of the health of the individual whose rights are interfered with, unless there be some fair ground, reasonable in and of itself, to say that there is material danger to the public health or to the health of the employees if the hours of labor are not curtailed."

Justices Holmes and Harlan wrote dissenting opinions, Justices White and Day concurring with the latter. Mr. Justice Holmes expressed the view that the majority had decided the case "upon an economic theory which a large part of the country does not entertain."

Mr. Justice Harlan cited a number of authorities as to the healthfulness of the business of bakers and confectioners and stated that the court had judicial knowledge of the fact that the length of a day's labor had been subject to serious consideration for a long period; he found "many reasons of a weighty, substantial character, based upon

the experience of mankind," in favor of the statute as a health law. He also said that it was the duty of the court to sustain the statute if not shown to be plainly and palpably inconsistent with the Federal Constitution, leaving the State alone in the management of its purely domestic affairs, unless violation plainly appears.

This case thus decided by a narrow margin has been cited in subsequent decisions as to the regulation of private employment, and notably by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in a case (*Commonwealth v. Boston & Maine R. R.* (1915), 110 N. E., 264), in which a Massachusetts statute of 1914, limiting the hours of labor of employees in and about steam railroad stations to nine per day was declared unconstitutional. Obviously, if laws of this type are to be upheld it must be as an exercise of the police power of the State "for the protection of the health, well-being, and general welfare of the public." It is this basis on which the *Bunting* case was decided by both the Oregon court and the Supreme Court, and it would appear that by the latter action the decision in this case must be taken to have displaced that in the *Lochner* case as a guide for subordinate and State courts in the future.

#### WAGES.

In so far as legislatures have undertaken to intervene in the formation of the labor contract by laws affecting wages, attention has been directed chiefly to the time and medium of payment, and only in a slight degree to questions of amount. Laws requiring payment of wages monthly, semimonthly, and weekly have been enacted from time to time in a very considerable number of States of the Union (Missouri, 1877; Indiana, 1885; etc.), and these laws have been upheld, though not uniformly. As ground for holding such laws valid, it has been said that "it is for the interest of the State to see that its citizens are prosperous and comfortable, and no reason appears why the court should interfere with a legislative conclusion that the physical welfare of a large number of citizens would be promoted by the enactment of a law requiring the more frequent (semimonthly) payment of wages" (*New York Central, etc., R. Co. v. Williams* (1909), 118 N. Y. Supp., 785; affirmed 199 N. Y. 108, 92 N. E. 404; see also *Opinion of Justices* (1896), 163 Mass. 589, 40 N. E. 713; *Arkansas Stave Co. v. State* (1910), 94 Ark. 27, 125 S. W. 1001; *Erie R. Co. v. Williams* (1914), 233 U. S. 685, 34 Sup. Ct. 761).

It is said, on the other hand, that such laws restrict the constitutional right of employers and employees to contract freely (*Johnson v. Goodyear Mining Co.* (1900), 127 Cal. 4, 59 Pac. 304; *Republic Iron & Steel Co. v. State* (1903), 160 Ind. 379, 66 N. E. 1005).

Of earlier origin are laws regulating payment in scrip, store orders, or otherwise than in cash, New Jersey apparently taking the lead by

an act of 1864. Such laws exist in a number of States (Ohio, 1878; Missouri and Pennsylvania, 1881; etc.), and are constitutional in principle (*Knoxville Iron Co. v. Harbison* (1902), 183 U. S. 13, 22 Sup. Ct. 1), since, though they "undoubtedly abridge or qualify the right of contract," they are justifiable as tending toward the equality of employers and employees in the making of contracts, and are a wholesome and proper exercise of the police power of the State. These laws have gained a footing, however, only after a struggle against the opinion that they were an infringement upon the natural rights and constitutional grants of liberty.

Laws have also been enacted with the end in view of securing to coal miners the full amounts of their earnings, where the amount of coal mined is the basis of payment (Illinois and Pennsylvania, 1883; and other States subsequently). Early decisions of the State courts were adverse to these laws as unduly affecting the freedom of contract, but the Supreme Court has sustained them as a proper exercise of the legislative judgment in behalf of a large class of laborers, tending to secure to them their just dues and to promote the harmonious relations of capital and labor (*McLean v. State* (1909), 211 U. S. 539, 29 Sup. Ct. 206).

It is only in recent years that the idea has gained a footing that the State might intervene to determine whether or not the earnings of an employee were inadequate for the reasonable maintenance of physical conditions, though this would seem to be not a very wide step from the consideration of the effect of long and exhausting hours of service upon health. However, the general regulation of the wage payment by statute has never been attempted in this country in private employments, in so far as the amounts to be paid to adult males are concerned; while for women and children only a few States have established a minimum wage by law, beginning with Massachusetts in 1912, eight other States following in 1913.

Eleven States now have laws of this type, most of them providing for commissions to inquire into the conditions affecting the industries under consideration, and establishing a suitable minimum wage accordingly. In a few States, however, a rate is fixed by the law itself. Enforcement may be either by publicity, employers not accepting the act being listed and their names published, or there may be prosecutions to enforce compliance.

#### OREGON MINIMUM-WAGE LAW—STETTTLER AND SIMPSON CASES.

The statute of Oregon is of the type last named, i. e., persons not complying with the orders of the commission are punishable as for misdemeanor, penalties of fine and imprisonment being provided. The law (Acts of 1913, p. 92), has as its purpose, as indicated by its

title, "to protect the lives and health and morals of women and minor workers" by the means provided in the act. There is also a preamble setting forth the evils to be remedied as reasons for the enactment of the law. Employment under conditions, sanitary or otherwise, that may be detrimental to health or morals, and for wages inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living and maintain women in health, or that are unreasonably low for minors, is forbidden.

The constitutionality of this law was challenged as being beyond the police power of the State and violating due process of law (*Stettler v. O'Hara* (1914), 139 Pac., 743; *Simpson v. O'Hara* (1914), 141 Pac., 158). The State supreme court pointed out that laws fixing the maximum hours of employment for women and children and for laborers in mines or smelters, and those fixing minimum wages for laborers upon public works, had been held constitutional in the State, in the last instance even where the expense of the public work is borne by individuals.

On the principle that "such legislation must be taken as expressing the belief of the legislature, and through it of the people," the court said in the *Stettler* case:

We think we should be bound by the judgment of the legislature that there is a necessity for this act, that it is within the police power of the State to provide for the protection of the health, morals, and welfare of women and children and that the law should be upheld as constitutional.

An added contention was raised in the *Simpson* case, that the act was an abridgement of the rights guaranteed by the fourteenth amendment. To this the court replied that "the right to labor for such hours or at such wages as would reasonably seem to be detrimental to the health or welfare of the community is not a privilege or immunity of any citizen."

As already stated, this act came before the Supreme Court on appeal from the foregoing decisions, Mr. L. D. Brandeis, now a justice, appearing on the brief in favor of the law. Mr. Justice Brandeis not voting, the eight remaining members of the court divided equally, leaving the decisions of the supreme court of the State as the authoritative ruling.

#### RESTRICTIONS ON LEAVING EMPLOYMENT.

In several States the legislatures have undertaken to restrict the leaving of employment on railroads by forbidding the abandonment of locomotives or trains at other than the scheduled destination. These acts in some cases mention strikes or combinations, while in others they are directed to any unnecessary and unlawful act, in violation of duty or contract, causing delay or stoppage of trains (Connecticut, 1874; Illinois and Pennsylvania, 1877, etc.).



In some instances the prohibition extends to both the abandonment of trains and refusing to move cars of other roads. Laws of Kentucky (Stat., sec. 802), and Mississippi (Code, sec. 1345), forbid the hindering of transportation, but provide that the statute is not to be construed to prevent any person or class of persons from quitting employment at any time.

Of broader scope are laws of Nevada (R. L., sec. 6588), New York (Con. L., ch. 40, sec. 1910), and Washington (C. & S., sec. 3523), which make it a misdemeanor willfully and maliciously, either alone or in combination with others, to break a contract of service or employment, knowing or having reasonable cause to believe that the consequence would be to endanger human life or cause serious injury, or expose valuable property to destruction or serious injury.

The effect of these provisions is clearly to restrict the termination of employment to the extent of requiring trains, etc., to be carried to their destinations and not left on tracks where there is danger of collision, jeopardizing life, or causing damage to property. Judging from the paucity of decisions construing these laws, there has been little attempt or little occasion to enforce them. Interference with interstate commerce by strikers abandoning the employment of a railroad was enjoined in a case (*Farmers' Loan & Trust Co. v. Northern Pacific R. Co.* (1894), 60 Fed., 803), the injunction having been issued against combining and conspiring to quit, with or without notice, "so as to cripple the property or prevent or hinder the operation of the road." This injunction was modified on appeal (*Arthur v. Oakes* (1894), 63 Fed., 310; 11 C. C. A., 209), by striking out the prohibition as to quitting "so as to cripple the property or prevent or hinder the operation of the road," but leaving the injunction against quitting "with the object and intent" of accomplishing these ends. If, however, an employee remains in service, he must handle the cars and freight of all roads properly offering the same for transportation by the road on which he is at work (*In re Lennon* (1897), 166 U. S., 548; 17 Sup. Ct., 658). Railroads are obligated by statute to furnish equal facilities for all connecting roads, and it was held in this case that employees must render the service to which the road was obligated so long as they remained in its employment.

The opinions in this group of cases all emphasized the impropriety of undertaking to retain workmen in employment against their will, the judge in one case saying that "especially is this true in the case of railway engineers, where nothing but the most painstaking and devoted attention on the part of the employee will secure a discharge of his responsible duties." The fact remains that if a man can be compelled to haul an objectionable car or cease work entirely, or if he can be compelled to run his train to a division point after a strike

order has been issued, the question of an extension of such requirements is a matter of degree and not of kind. Compulsion has often been held to affect the companies in the performance of the public service devolving upon them, but no authoritative pronouncement looking toward the rendition of service by the workmen—an obviously essential factor in the accomplishment of the work of the road—seems to have been made prior to the decision in the Wilson case. Indeed, a Georgia statute (Code, sec. 2737), declares that a carrier receiving freight for shipment is bound to forward the same within a reasonable time, “although its employees strike or cease to work”; though the carrier is relieved if there is violence and armed resistance of such character as could not be overcome by the carrier or controlled by the civil authorities when called upon by it—a requirement that seems to ignore the effectiveness of a passive refusal of all available workmen to render service, even though no violence is offered.

#### MEDIATION AND ARBITRATION.

No feature of the Supreme Court decision on the Adamson law attracted more immediate and general attention than the declaration that the act of Congress was of the nature of an arbitration award, and that it lay within the power of Congress to determine conditions as to wages and hours so as to secure a continuance of interstate commerce. It was admitted that this was an unprecedented action on the part of Congress, but it was said that the emergency was merely the occasion of its exercise and had nothing to do with calling the power into being, as it had existed since the adoption of the Constitution.

Mediation and arbitration as means of adjustment of personal or industrial disputes are not dependent upon statute, but the desirability of statutory determination of the status and modes of action of agencies adapted to such industrial ends has led to the establishment by law of mediatorial or arbitral bodies in a majority of the States of the Union (Maryland, 1878; Pennsylvania, 1883; Ohio, 1885, etc.), and by Federal law. Local or State boards may be provided for, or the State commissioner of labor may exercise mediatorial powers. In general, action is to be taken only on request of the parties, though in some instances permanent State agencies may investigate on their own motion and give publicity to their findings.

One of the most ambitious earlier attempts in this field was by the Kansas Legislature in 1898-99, when it sought to establish a body having some of the powers of the present-day railroad commissions, but with authority to issue orders and compel their enforcement in cases of labor disputes. This power was never exercised, the law being held unconstitutional in a case involving other features (*State v. Johnson* (1900), 61 Kans., 83; 60 Pac., 1068).

The most far-reaching measure enacted by any legislature thus far is a Colorado statute (Acts of 1915, ch. 180), which establishes a State industrial commission with a wide range of powers in industrial matters, including power to inquire into "methods of avoiding or adjusting labor disputes through peaceful and conciliatory mediation and negotiations." It must also seek to promote voluntary arbitration, and may resort to compulsory investigation and publish the results. Strikes and lockouts prior to or during an investigation, hearing, or arbitration are unlawful. This statute is patterned after the Canadian Industrial Disputes Act, and has been the subject of considerable discussion in the press, but no decision passing upon its constitutionality has yet been rendered.

The beginnings of Federal legislation in this field were made by an act of October 1, 1888 (25 Stat., 501), providing for boards of arbitration for cases of dispute affecting interstate commerce. A board was to be selected on occasion, one member by each party, the two persons thus selected to choose the third. The act also provided for two commissioners to be selected by the President, one of them to be a resident of the State or Territory in which the controversy arose, for purposes of investigating any existing controversy and discovering means for adjusting it. The United States Commissioner of Labor was to be *ex officio* a member of this commission. Provision was thus made for voluntary arbitration, and also for a compulsory investigation which the President should direct. The results of such investigation as might be made were to be given to the public, but there were no means provided for the enforcement of any conclusion. This law was in existence for a period of 10 years, and during this time no attempt appears to have been made to use the arbitration methods proposed, nor was there ever an investigating commission appointed, except in a single instance, that of the Chicago strike in the summer of 1894.

On this occasion a commission consisting of the Commissioner of Labor, Carroll D. Wright, with whom were associated John D. Kernan, of New York, and Nicholas E. Worthington, of Illinois, was directed by President Cleveland to make inquiry into the causes of any pending dispute or existing controversies and to hear all persons interested therein who might come before it, the law giving the commission power to subpoena witnesses and require testimony under oath. As a matter of fact, the commission did not reach the city of Chicago, where the main part of the investigation was carried on, until after the conclusion of the strike. The investigation was carried through, however, as originally contemplated, and a report published setting forth the testimony, proceedings, and recommendations.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> Report on the Chicago Strike of June-July, 1894, by the United States Strike Commission. LIV, 681 pp. Washington, 1895.

The first recommendation was as to a permanent strike commission, and was in a measure realized by the Erdman Act of 1898 (30 Stat., 424). This act designated the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the United States Commissioner of Labor as a commission of mediation and conciliation, which should, on the request of either party to a controversy, attempt the amicable adjustment of disputes affecting interstate commerce by railroad. Mediation failing, efforts were to be made to bring about arbitration by means of a board of three persons, one to be named by each party, these two to select a third, and if they failed to act, the permanent mediatorial commission should designate the third arbitrator. Submissions were to be in writing, and awards were to be in force for one year after coming into effect, and on being filed in the clerk's office of the circuit court might be enforceable as a judgment of the court. Exceptions and appeals were allowed. No investigation or other action on the motion of the commission itself was provided for. A provision as to representation of organized labor in cases in which it was a party to the dispute was included, and there was a provision against terminating contracts pending an arbitration agreed upon by the parties. Recommendations as to expulsion from membership in incorporated labor organizations of those persons using or instigating force or violence and as to the nonliability of individuals for the acts or obligations of the corporation were also embodied in this act.

These provisions as to labor organizations were an amendment to an act of 1886 (24 Stat., 86), providing for the incorporation of national trade-unions. It may be noted that this act has been practically a dead letter, no important organization having incorporated under it with the exception of the Knights of Labor, which secured a charter in 1901. An association of hotel and restaurant employees was incorporated in 1907, one of musicians in 1909, and perhaps one or two other small associations have availed themselves of the provisions of this act, but none of the large or influential unions of the present has a charter as a national trade-union under this act.

The Erdman Act was made use of but once in more than eight years following its passage in 1898, but within the next five years its provisions were invoked in some 60 instances with a very considerable measure of satisfaction. The desirability of certain modifications in the law was developed by experience, however, and in 1913 a new law was enacted commonly known as the Newlands Act (act of July 15, 1913; 38 Stat., 103). By this an independent commission was established with a commissioner and an assistant commissioner, and "not more than two other officials of the Government who have been appointed by and with the advice and

consent of the Senate," designated by the President to act with the commissioner of mediation and conciliation as a United States board on these subjects. The services of this commission are available on request of either party, or it may extend an offer of its services on its own motion. The first attempts are to be for mediation and conciliation, and in event of their failure, efforts to induce submission to arbitration are to be made. Boards of arbitration may consist of three or six persons at the option of the parties, one or two members to be nominated by each party, their nominees to choose the third member, or the two additional members, according as the board consists of three or six members. The general provisions as to procedure and awards correspond to those of the Erdman Act, and it is this statute that was in force when the difficulties arose which led to the enactment of the Adamson law. During the first three years of the operation of this act its provisions were availed of in practically as many cases as was the Erdman Act during its entire period of existence of about 15 years. The act is still in force, though various amendments or superseding bills were proposed to the last Congress, some of which have been presented at the present session. It is too early to report any action on these bills, however, or to discover to what extent, if any, the principles of compulsory arbitration laid down in the decision sustaining the Adamson law will be incorporated. Whether or not Congress creates a board with compulsory arbitral powers, it is obvious from the decision in the Wilson case that Congress itself constitutes such a board and may, by a legislative decree, establish regulations of a nature and character "essential to protect the public right and safeguard the movement of interstate commerce."

The right thus to interfere in contracts between employers and employees was said to be derived specifically from the power of Congress over interstate commerce, but in general also from the fact that such commerce is affected by a public interest; since, as stated by Mr. Chief Justice White, "the business of common carriers by rail is in a sense a public business because of the interest of society in the continued operation and rightful conduct of such business," a fact which gives rise to "a public right of regulation to the full extent necessary to secure and protect it." It is of interest to note, however, that of the three Federal arbitration laws, only the first contained any provision for compulsory investigation and publicity.

The recognition of organized labor by these various statutes, and specifically the provision of the Erdman Act providing penalties for the discharge or threatened loss of employment of workmen by reason of their membership in labor organizations, calls for a brief



notice of the effect of such a provision. Approximately one-half of the States of the Union have passed laws embodying this provision, the intent being to protect workmen in their membership in labor organizations. In practically every instance, however, in which laws of this character have come before the higher courts they have been declared unconstitutional as interfering with the rights of employers to fix the terms on which they would hire workmen, which is correlative to the rights of workmen to accept or reject the terms offered by employers, either party being free to act as he sees fit "for any reason or no reason."

Because of this restrictive effect upon the freedom of contract the provision in the Erdman Act above cited was held unconstitutional by the Supreme Court (*Adair v. United States* (1908), 208 U. S., 161; 28 Sup. Ct., 277), two justices dissenting and one taking no part in the proceedings. Mr. Justice McKenna in his dissent dwelt at some length on the facts developed in connection with the Chicago strike of 1894 as supplying reasons of fact for the enactment of the law safeguarding workmen in their membership in labor organizations, and urged the validity of such a statute, since the rights dealt with are "exercised in a quasi-public business and therefore subject to control in the interest of the public." Mr. Justice Holmes also dissented, arguing chiefly from the desirability of establishing an equality of position between the two parties in order that there might be an actual liberty of contract.

State courts were uniformly adverse in their rulings on acts of this kind until a favorable determination by the Supreme Court of Kansas in 1912 (*State v. Coppage*, 87 Kans., 752; 125 Pac., 8). This case was appealed to the Supreme Court (*Coppage v. Kansas* (1915), 236 U. S., 1; 35 Sup. Ct., 240), and the act was there declared unconstitutional, three justices dissenting. The majority opinion was said not to intimate anything contrary to the right of individuals to join labor unions, but because the relation of employer and employee is voluntary, no restriction can be constitutionally placed upon either party in making contracts of employment where the public health, safety, morals, or general welfare are not involved. The minority believed the general welfare was involved by reason of unequal conditions of individual employees contracting with employers, and the belief of such employees that by united action better conditions can be obtained. Since this decision the State courts before which questions of this nature have come have rendered opinions in accordance therewith without discussion.

The reasoning of Mr. Justice McKenna in support of this paragraph of the Erdman Act is so similar to that of Mr. Chief Justice White in his opinion sustaining the Adamson law as to attract attention, and it is also worthy of notice that the dissenting opinion of

Mr. Justice Pitney with regard to the Adamson law made frequent reference to the opinions in the Adair and Coppage cases, citing them as authoritative against that law.

#### CONCLUSION.

The foregoing review is for the purpose, as stated in the introduction, of presenting the main points of the three important decisions recently announced by the Supreme Court and of bringing them somewhat into relation with what has gone before in the way of law as expressed by the legislatures and courts. No attempt has been made to be exhaustive in either enumeration or discussion of all points involved, but the idea is rather to illustrate the attitude of those bodies that determine the course and effect of legislation, with regard to historical development. It is impossible to read this account without recognizing that the law "is to some extent a progressive science," and that changes may be expected to continue in it as they have occurred in the past, "and the law be forced to adapt itself to new conditions of society, and particularly to the new relations between employers and employees, as they arise." (*Holden v. Hardy* (1898), 169 U. S., 366; 18 Sup. Ct., 383.) Regarding "the law as a system of rules conformable to the standards of justice and on an enlarged view of the relations of persons and things as they actually exist," it is obvious that room remains for further development, such as appears in moving from the decision in the *Lochner* case, where the 10-hour bakery law of New York was declared unconstitutional, to that in the *Bunting* case, where a similar law of much broader application was held constitutional. Economic and humanitarian considerations, as well as precedent, have been and are operative—a fact that was clearly expressed by Mr. Justice Holmes in his dissent in the *Lochner* case, in which he declared that the majority had acted upon a largely discarded economic theory.

The Supreme Court has now held that as to railroads, by reason of the public interest involved, there is power to regulate both wages and hours, and to take the necessary steps to procure continuous operation in the interest of the public welfare; that the interests of the public welfare likewise warrant the determination of the number of hours per day during which "grown and intelligent men may labor to earn their living," such laws being no longer regarded as "mere meddlesome interferences with the rights of the individual"; and again that a wage rate that is not adequate for the maintenance of health and of conditions favorable to morals can be raised by State action in behalf of women and minors—the term minor including persons of either sex under the age of 18 years.

It is at least of passing interest to note, too, that the women of Oregon are not wards of the State, but voters and legislators.

The discussion as to what is meant by a public interest or "affected by a public use" has been purposely brief, partly because of the indisputability of the statement that railroads are thus affected, and partly because of the impossibility of establishing any real bounds to the results of such a condition. Certainly, the decision in the Wilson case has enlarged the general understanding as to the extent to which Congress can go in supervising the conduct of railroads, both companies and employees. Bills are before Congress looking toward more thorough provisions for arbitration and providing for the exertion by the Interstate Commerce Commission of the power to determine hours of service and rates of wages.

Attention has also been called to those penal laws which forbid the abandonment of trains between division points, or before the schedule destination has been reached—this in the interest of the immediate safety of persons and property. No doubt exists as to the power of the Government to take over the railroads and operate them as a war measure on the grounds of an urgent national necessity under external pressure. Between these two legislative lines of demarcation lies the field of continued operation, not to avoid a temporary danger of disaster, as in the case of a train left standing on the right of way because of its abandonment by a striking engineer, nor to guard against defeat by a foreign enemy because troops and armaments were not being transported, but to meet the ever-present and ever-increasing necessity of a continuously maintained supply of food and fuel for the dependent populations of congested areas whose life and health require an unbroken flow of materials from points near and far, available only when railroads regularly carry out the functions for which they were created.

What is most nearly novel in these recent developments is the idea of the obligation of the employee as a joint adventurer with the employer in the conduct of this enterprise so affected by a public use that he himself is not at liberty arbitrarily to interrupt its course. The inevitableness of some such development is evident, since trains do not move by the fiat of a board of directors, and it is not sufficient to say that they can procure their moving by conceding whatever terms one of the parties to a mutual undertaking may demand. That the path of the final adjustment is a difficult one, and that obstructions to anything savoring of compulsory service will be interposed, can not be gainsaid; but to say that no adequate and just solution safeguarding the interests of all parties—employers, employees, and the public—can be attained is to place a low estimate on the character and ability of the American people. Rapid as recent developments have been, and much as has been accomplished, the final form of action need not be anticipated at once. As said by Mr. Justice McKenna in the Bunting case, "New policies are usually tentative in their beginnings, advance in firmness as they advance in acceptance.

They do not at a particular moment of time spring full perfect in extent or means from the legislative brain. Time may be necessary to fashion them to precedent customs and conditions, and as they justify themselves or otherwise they pass from militancy to triumph or from question to repeal."

#### CANADIAN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES INVESTIGATION ACT IN OPERATION.<sup>1</sup>

One of the recommendations made by the President at the time of the impending railroad strike last September was that a law be enacted similar to the Canadian Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, the essential purpose of which is to provide machinery for the compulsory investigation of all disagreements between capital and labor, the occurrence of a strike or lockout being postponed in the meantime. Considerable opposition to this recommendation developed, and no legislation resulted. It is claimed by representatives of organized labor that the Canadian act has operated to the disadvantage of the workers in the Dominion, and if enacted in this country would reduce laborers to a condition of compulsory servitude. Believing that it is of greater significance to know what is thought of the act in Canada than what people say about it in the United States, Ben M. Selekman, in the Survey of March 31, 1917, reviews nine years of the Canadian act, in which he gives the experience with compulsory investigation and its application to the United States. There, as in this country, it is stated, public officials and employers are in favor of the act "because it prevents hasty action." Labor, however, while in some instances expressing approval of the principle involved, has, through its Trades and Labor Congress, gone on record as opposed to the act in its entirety, but does not base its objections upon the claims made by organized labor in the United States that compulsory servitude would result.

It is interesting and significant that hardly any of the Canadian trade-unionists advance the argument heard in this country against President Wilson's measure—that such a law means compulsory servitude for the wage earners. On the contrary, most of them approve of the principle of the law and direct their criticisms purely against administration defects. Their objections are chiefly that the minister of labor has refused to appoint a board on one or two occasions upon the application of a local union; that delays have often characterized the appointment and the hearings of the boards; and that it is difficult for them to secure a favorable decision.

In taking up these objections the writer shows that the disputes act has operated there not as a compulsory investigation but as a conciliation measure, and proceeds to point out to what extent

<sup>1</sup> Nine years of the Canadian Act, by Ben M. Selekman, Survey, Mar. 31, 1917, pp. 746-754.

some of these objections may be valid. As to the last objection, it is suggested that the claims of the unions should be revised in view of the following facts:

For the nine-year period ending March 31, 1916, there were altogether 161 fully established boards which conducted hearings. In 92 of these disputes, or over one-half, the reports were unanimous. In only 35 cases did the employees' representative dissent from the majority report, and in 20 the employers' representative dissented. In three cases both dissented from certain features of the reports, and in the remaining 11 either no decision was rendered or the nature of the report is not clearly indicated.

The Canadian disputes investigation act which became effective on March 22, 1907, was the result of a prolonged strike in the western coal fields in 1906, which was settled by Federal intervention. Although the law was devised primarily with reference to strikes in coal mines, it appears from instances cited in the article that the act "has clearly failed to accomplish its purpose of averting strikes."

In all for the six-year period before the act was passed 38 strikes are recorded in coal mines, involving an average loss per year of 121,331 days, or 26.4 per cent of all the working days lost in all strikes. In the nine-year period subsequent to the passing of the act coal miners struck 37 times, involving an average loss per year of 419,223 days, or 46.9 per cent of all the working days lost in all strikes. Thus in the latter period, in spite of the act, the average loss per year of working days in coal-mining strikes is about three and one-half times as great as before the law was passed, and the proportion of that total to all working days lost in all strikes almost doubled.

It is admittedly difficult, however, to state whether this condition would have been altered and to what extent had the disputes act not been in effect. Passing from coal mining to railroads and other public utilities, it is shown that the disputes act has not, in fact, operated to reduce the number of strikes. Of 716 disputes recorded between January 1, 1901, and March 22, 1907, 15.1 per cent occurred in those industries covered by the act, and in the period from March 22, 1907, to March 22, 1916, 16.5 per cent of the total disputes occurring were in such industries. In the first period the average loss of working days per year was 201,502, or 43.9 per cent of the total time lost in all industrial disputes, while for the second period the average loss of working days per year was 581,936, or 65.1 per cent of the total time lost in all disputes.

Perhaps the most serious indictment against the Canadian act, according to the author, is its failure to impose penalties for violations. Approximately 84 strikes on public utilities, mostly in coal mines, have been illegal under the act, and in only eight cases did the Government prosecute. The author of the law, W. L. Mackenzie King, explained to the United States Commission on Industrial Relations in 1914 that—



The Government has never laid particular stress upon the penalty end of it. The penalty part \* \* \* has always been treated in much the same light as penalty for trespass. If the party affected wishes to enter an action to recover damages they may do so. \* \* \*

So far as concerns the failure of the Canadian act as a compulsory investigation measure, a former Canadian official writes:

The alleged failure in compulsion is put down to the nonenforcement of penalties, whereas it was with a view to compelling investigation where labor wished investigation as a means of securing a redress of wrong, and not compelling penalties, that the act was framed. \* \* \* Never from the time the act was passed, when I had to do with it as registrar or as minister, was there a single instance that I can now recall in which when this compulsory investigation feature was invoked on behalf of labor that it was not enforceable and applied. As a compulsory investigation act—that is to say, investigation of a dispute under compulsion at the request of either of the parties, labor or capital—never once during the liberal administration did its provisions in this particular fail, and where investigation took place the results were for the most part not only beneficial to the parties but very greatly so to the public as well.

In drawing from the experience in Canada lessons for the United States the author aims to make it clear that the law in that country has not been rigidly enforced, that its effectiveness has been appraised on incomplete data respecting the prevalence of strikes in Canada, and that the law has not been tested with reference to the particular problem for which it was devised.

The facts on the other hand indicate that the act has operated as a voluntary conciliation measure. If it has prevented the occurrence of strikes it has, therefore, done so not because it restrained workers from striking, but because the machinery afforded by it enabled men with personality and tact to bring employers and their men together and adjust their difficulties. In addition, serious strikes have occurred in public utilities since the act was passed. As to the test of whether it has met the particular situation for which it was intended strikes in coal mines have apparently been more prolonged and more serious in the last nine years than they were in the 16-year period before the act was in operation. \* \* \* As for our editorial writers, public officials, and employers Canadian experience hardly justifies their enthusiasm for the essential feature of the proposed measure—that no strike or lockout shall legally take place before an investigation is completed. In Canada this compulsory feature has been a dead letter so far as the miners and unskilled workers are concerned. As for the railroad brotherhoods, it is very doubtful whether it is necessary to restrain them from striking before the completion of an investigation.

The author, in conclusion, makes a strong plea for a method by which the public may be fully advised as to the merits of controversies between employers and employees, so that an intelligent opinion may be formed and wise influence exerted to bring about an adjustment of differences. These facts—

should be furnished by an impartial Government tribunal on which both employers and workers may have representation. But this does not necessarily mean that we should restrict the railway employees' right to strike. It does

mean, however, that the Government ought to establish the machinery both for the continuous collection of all the facts available on the various aspects of labor controversies and for an inquiry into the merits of particular disputes that arise from time to time. With a background of information previously collected the facts about a particular dispute become more illuminating. Thus a fully enlightened public could exert a more intelligent influence.

Following this brief statement of nine years' experience under the Canadian act, the Survey devotes six pages to a symposium on the merits of the law, brief articles being submitted by John R. Commons, University of Wisconsin; Charles W. Eliot, president emeritus Harvard University; J. E. Williams, chairman Hart, Schaffner & Marx Trade Agreement; William O. Thompson, former counsel of the United States Commission on Industrial Relations; James O'Connell, second vice president American Federation of Labor; James C. Watters, president of the Trades and Labor Congress, Canada; H. R. Towne, Yale & Towne Manufacturing Co.; Harris Weinstock, former member of the United States Commission on Industrial Relations; and Elisha Lee, chairman Conference Committee of Railroad Managers.

Prof. Commons thinks that the present voluntary system has broken down in this country because of a defect in the Newlands law, in that it does not provide a joint board of grievances or adjustment to take up matters of interpretation and enforcement.

Dr. Eliot would amend the Canadian act, if it is to be adopted in this country, by making it apply to trades and employments which are concerned with fuel, food, public lighting systems, telephones, telegraphs, and all transportation, and by providing that penalties for violation "should be imposed on the organizers, heads, or leaders of unions that violate the law, and it should be made the duty of the Government to prosecute such offenders."

J. E. Williams is "of the opinion that enforced delay would greatly diminish the chances of success of a strike for recognition. This obvious disadvantage would probably array the labor bodies of this country solidly against the waiting policy and make it hard to enforce." He thinks that, while it may be desirable to have an investigation, if it can be secured, preceding the declaration of a strike, it should be made optional and not compulsory.

Voluntary collective bargaining is believed by William O. Thompson to be preferred to purely industrial restrictive acts, such as the Canadian act. Any laws which "attempt to lay down arbitrary methods are bound to become obnoxious and in the end either become dead letters or are emasculated by common consent, so that they conform to the general opinion. This is what has occurred in the case of the Canadian act, which has become an act of conciliation."

"Under compulsory investigation," asserts James O'Connell, labor representative, "the employer has all the advantage—unlimited time

to prepare for the strike, right to discharge an employee, right of reducing his force—thus giving him an equal advantage over his workmen.” He emphasizes the fact that the Canadian law has been violated, followed by very few prosecutions, and also that organized labor believes in voluntary conciliation, mediation, and arbitration, and not in compulsion.

James C. Watters expresses the opinion that complete liberty of action should be allowed employers and employees to declare a lockout or call a strike, but thinks provision should be made to establish a board of conciliation and investigation, either before or after a strike or lockout exists.

The mere fact of a means being provided by which settlement of a dispute may be effected without resorting to a strike or lockout would prove a greater factor in maintaining industrial peace and preventing strikes than the act as it now stands, \* \* \*.

The principle involved in the Canadian act, according to C. R. Towne, may be applied to corporations other than those of a public nature, but for the latter he advocates that a person shall be employed with the understanding that he is legally obligated by contract to continue therein for a specified term, during which term he may not lawfully quit that employment nor be lawfully discharged from it, with penalties for violation by either party.

Harris Weinstock takes occasion to discount the argument of labor that compulsory investigation deprives a worker of his personal liberty because it makes him keep on working when he wants to quit, and cites the fact that when a man joins the union he stands obligated, in the event of a strike, to waive his personal liberty and to quit work when he does not want to quit. The loss of personal liberty in each case is equal. In the one he waives it for the good of organized labor and in the other he waives it for the public good.

Labor has contended that under the present system it is difficult to select neutral and unprejudiced arbitrators and also that in the past the awards have been interpreted and applied by the railroads. In a brief statement, Elisha Lee undertakes to refute these objections and emphasizes the position of the railroads, namely, “that they are willing that the merits of the claims of the employees, as well as their own, shall be passed upon by some competent but impartial tribunal appointed by proper Federal authority, and that they will abide by their findings, whatever that may be.”

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#### RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES.

A comparison of prices for February 15 and March 15, 1917, shows that the retail price of the principal articles of all food combined was the same for each specified month. Of the 27 articles included

in the bureau's reports, 19 show an increase, 6 remain the same; eggs decreased 32 per cent, this great decrease neutralizing the increase shown by other articles. Leaving out eggs, a comparison between the two months shows an increase of approximately 3 per cent in March over the price of February. Lard increased 9 per cent, bacon and sugar 8 per cent, pork chops 7 per cent, and ham 6 per cent; bread was but 1 per cent higher on March 15 than on February 15. The 6 articles remaining the same were milk, rice, prunes, raisins, coffee, and tea.

The following table shows the average money prices and the relative prices of the principal articles of food on February 15 and March 15, 1917:

AVERAGE MONEY RETAIL PRICES AND RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD ON FEB. 15 AND MAR. 15, 1917.

[The relative price shows the per cent that the average price on the 15th of each month was of the average price for the year 1916.]

Article.	Unit.	Average money price.		Relative price.	
		Feb. 15, 1917.	Mar. 15, 1917.	Feb. 15, 1917.	Mar. 15, 1917.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	\$0.287	\$0.295	105	108
Round steak.....	do.....	.260	.267	106	109
Rib roast.....	do.....	.225	.233	106	110
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.186	.193	108	112
Plate boiling beef.....	do.....	.141	.146	110	114
Pork chops.....	do.....	.261	.279	115	123
Bacon.....	do.....	.307	.333	107	116
Ham.....	do.....	.318	.338	108	115
Lard.....	do.....	.219	.238	125	136
Hens.....	do.....	.267	.276	113	117
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.216	.222	107	110
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	.506	.349	135	93
Butter, creamery.....	Pound.....	.469	.461	119	117
Cheese.....	do.....	.315	.323	122	125
Milk.....	Quart.....	.100	.100	110	110
Bread.....	16-oz. loaf <sup>1</sup> .....	.071	.072	109	110
Flour.....	5-bbl. bag.....	1.369	1.401	127	130
Corn meal.....	Pound.....	.041	.041	120	122
Rice.....	do.....	.091	.091	100	100
Potatoes.....	Peck.....	.761	.778	188	192
Onions.....	Pound.....	.122	.125	249	255
Beans, navy.....	do.....	.149	.154	135	140
Prunes.....	do.....	.141	.141	105	105
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....	.141	.141	109	109
Sugar.....	do.....	.081	.087	101	109
Coffee.....	do.....	.299	.299	100	100
Tea.....	do.....	.546	.546	100	100
All articles combined.....				117	117

<sup>1</sup> 16 ounces (weight of dough).

From March 15, 1913, to March 15, 1917, the price of all food combined increased 38 per cent, while from March, 1916, to March, 1917, the increase was 24 per cent. The article showing the greatest price variation from March, 1916, to March, 1917, is onions, which show an increase of 180 per cent, while potatoes advanced 113 per cent. Each article, except rice, coffee, and tea, increased in price from March, 1916, to March, 1917, and all articles for which infor-

mation is given for the four-year period advanced, potatoes showing the greatest change in price, or an increase of 237 per cent.

The table following shows in detail the average and relative retail prices for March 15 of each year from 1913 to 1917.

AVERAGE MONEY RETAIL PRICES, AND RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES, ON MAR. 15 OF EACH YEAR, 1913 TO 1917.

[The relative price shows the per cent that the average price on the 15th of March was of the average price for the year 1916.]

Article.	Unit.	Average money price, Mar. 15—					Relative price, Mar. 15—				
		1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917
Sirloin steak.....	Pound...	\$0.246	\$0.254	\$0.246	\$0.262	\$0.295	90	93	90	96	108
Round steak.....	do.....	.213	.230	.221	.233	.267	87	94	90	95	109
Rib roast.....	do.....	.193	.199	.195	.206	.223	91	94	92	97	110
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.169	.160	.165	.193	.....	98	93	96	112	
Plate-boiling beef.....	do.....	.124	.122	.124	.146	.....	97	95	97	114	
Pork chops.....	do.....	.202	.209	.177	.218	.279	89	92	78	96	123
Bacon.....	do.....	.261	.267	.264	.276	.333	91	93	92	96	116
Ham.....	do.....	.262	.265	.256	.303	.338	89	90	87	103	115
Lard.....	do.....	.156	.156	.152	.182	.238	89	89	87	104	136
Hens.....	do.....	.215	.224	.212	.229	.276	91	95	90	97	117
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.....	.....	.198	.200	.222	.....	.....	98	99	110
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	.263	.308	.255	.285	.349	70	82	68	76	93
Butter, creamery.....	Pound.....	.414	.351	.359	.402	.461	105	89	91	102	117
Cheese.....	do.....	.....	.....	.232	.250	.323	.....	.....	90	97	125
Milk.....	Quart.....	.089	.090	.088	.088	.100	98	99	97	97	110
Bread.....	16-oz. loaf.....	.....	.055	.063	.064	.072	.....	85	97	99	110
Flour.....	5-bbl. bag.....	.798	.798	1.089	.959	1.401	74	74	101	89	130
Corn meal.....	Pound.....	.030	.031	.033	.032	.041	87	91	97	95	122
Rice.....	do.....	.....	.....	.091	.091	.091	.....	.....	100	100	100
Potatoes.....	Peck.....	.231	.279	.215	.365	.778	57	69	53	90	192
Onions.....	Pound.....	.....	.....	.033	.045	.125	.....	.....	67	91	255
Beans, navy.....	do.....	.....	.....	.076	.092	.154	.....	.....	69	84	140
Prunes.....	do.....	.....	.....	.137	.133	.141	.....	.....	102	99	105
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....	.....	.....	.125	.126	.141	.....	.....	97	98	109
Sugar.....	do.....	.054	.051	.066	.074	.087	68	64	82	93	109
Coffee.....	do.....	.....	.....	.299	.299	.299	.....	.....	100	100	100
Tea.....	do.....	.....	.....	.546	.546	.546	.....	.....	100	100	100
All articles combined.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	85	87	86	94	117

<sup>1</sup> 16 ounces (weight of dough).

## GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF FOOD SUPPLIES IN GERMANY.<sup>1</sup>

While requisitioning, price fixing, and even rationing of the necessities of life has become the prevailing condition in a large part of Europe because of the present war, it is in Germany that State intervention is carried out in the most extensive and thorough manner.

Current opinion in the United States is apt to judge the food situation of Germany solely from the standpoint of the blockade. This is incorrect. The German regulation for the control of food supplies, the mobilization of the various factors of subsistence, was

<sup>1</sup> In the absence of official sources, the bureau, in order to include Germany in the present discussion of Government control of food supplies in European countries, has made liberal use of an article, "The Control of Food Supplies in Blockaded Germany," by Prof. Alonzo Englebert Taylor, printed in the Saturday Evening Post, Philadelphia (issues of Feb. 17 and 24, and Mar. 3, 1917). Prof. Taylor was in Germany until the end of October, 1916, and at first hand made a study of food-supply conditions in that country.



in reality a war measure. The blockade accelerated the introduction of regulations for the control of food supplies and in part determined the enactments and modified the scale of nutritional units. Although the blockade made the mobilization of foodstuffs more difficult in many ways, it facilitated in some ways the enforcement of measures considered necessary. The mobilization of food supplies in Germany, through governmental control, represents, therefore, a war measure and an antiblockade defense, but primarily and essentially an internal war measure. Entirely apart from external considerations, it was necessary for Germany to enact measures to prevent manipulation and speculation in foodstuffs, to eliminate waste, and to enforce economy.

To understand what Germany has accomplished in food control, it is necessary to have a clear understanding of her agricultural conditions and of the normal German diet.

#### AGRICULTURAL CONDITIONS IN GERMANY.

The soil of Germany is of inferior grade. Prussia, which contains nearly 65 per cent of the area of the Empire and about two-thirds of the arable land, has relatively little first-grade soil, and nearly one-half of the acres are of distinctly low grade. Large areas of Bavaria, Wurttemberg, and Baden are mountainous. Much of the soil of northern Germany is sandy. The soil requires heavy fertilization and demands intensive cultivation, entailing much labor. Rotation of crops in some sections is made unusually difficult by the chemical composition or physical properties of the soils. But while the soil is distinctly inferior to that of Great Britain and France, agriculture is successful in Germany because the cultivation of the soil has been made the subject of intensive scientific study. The area of Germany is about 133,580,000 acres, of which about 85,275,000 acres are under cultivation.

In the 30 years before 1913 the average yield of wheat rose from 19 to 32, barley from 23 to 36, and oats from 25 to 44 bushels per acre, while the yield of potatoes rose from 3.5 to 5.5 tons per acre. Seventy-five persons are now fed with the produce of each 100 acres of cultivated land. This result has been due largely to artificial fertilization and scientific rotation of crops.

Germany possessed large herds of domesticated animals, and since she had only one-third of her agricultural land in grasses and two-thirds under cultivation for crops, this live stock had to be nourished to a large extent upon concentrated feeds. Germany did not produce enough such fodder and imported each year from one-fourth to one-third of the feed required for her livestock. From the military point of view, this was the weakest feature in German agriculture.

## DEFECTS OF THE AGRICULTURAL SYSTEM.

One point of weakness in the agricultural system was the extreme dependence upon hand labor, and the scarcity of machinery for the most efficient handling of crops. Just prior to the war, about 20 laborers were engaged on each 100 acres of cultivated land, of whom one-third were not permanently engaged in farm labor. The predominance of female labor was another weakness. Of the permanent employees, about one-half, and of the transients, two-thirds, were women. Nearly the total working power of the agricultural population was, in time of peace, already engaged in cultivation of the soil. When the men were withdrawn, a tremendous amount of extra work was placed upon the remaining workers, largely women, and their work could not be speeded up as much as that of men.

Finally, a grave defect was the lack of fat-bearing crops. Fat is an especially desirable ingredient in forced feeding of dairy cattle. Concentrated feeding stuffs, rich in fat, had, however, never been developed in Germany, but were imported largely from the United States in the form of oil meal, oil cake, peanut meal, etc.

## DIET OF THE GERMAN PEOPLE.

Before the war the diet of the German people was a composite of food produced within their borders and imported from the outside world. Importation of food was both direct and indirect. Germany imported meat directly, she also imported feeding stuffs from which meat was produced.

Bread was the staple article of diet, particularly in the southern portions of Germany. In Prussia, where potato yields are heavy, the use of the potato was much greater than in south Germany. Sea fish was used to a large extent by the Prussians and in the western sections adjacent to the North Sea. The use of pork had assumed large proportions, while beef was limited largely to the well-to-do classes in the cities. Everywhere dairy products comprised a large fraction of the intake, but particularly in south Germany. The use of sugar had greatly increased, though never to the extent practiced in America.

With the advent of the modern centrifuge, the German peasant was able to sell his cream to the cities or to dairies operating for the urban trade. The result was a lessened consumption of dairy products on the farm, a larger shipment of these products to the cities, and the importation of other food to the farm. The number of cows was yearly increased, and to feed these, concentrated feeding stuffs were imported in increasing amounts, because the development of pasture land had not kept pace with the increase in live stock.

The diet of the people in the cities has developed in the direction of the greater use of meat and dairy products. The per capita meat

consumption of the Germans has doubled within the last three decades, and this increase has largely taken place within the cities. In order to supply the demands of the cities for meat—largely pork—the stock raisers of Germany followed the example of the dairymen; they increased the number of animals and imported the feeding stuffs required.

The peasants of Germany lived largely on the vegetable products of the soil, supplemented by dairy products and a moderate amount of pork and veal. The staples of the industrial classes were rye bread, potatoes and pork; butter, milk, and cheese being consumed in but limited amounts. The diet of the well-to-do classes in the cities was only limited by the offerings of the markets.

#### THE ELTZBACHER COMMISSION.

Shortly after war was declared the German Government appointed a commission of scientists to prepare a report upon which to base defensive food measures. This commission, commonly called the Eltzbacher Commission, devoted several months to the study of the production, distribution, and consumption of food. The statistical data available were very fragmentary; nevertheless, the commission proceeded to make an inventory of the food consumption, food production, and food needs of Germany, in accordance with correct scientific procedure. Classified on the basis of derivation, the peacetime food supplies of Germany were arranged by the commission as follows:

1. Plant food grown from German fertilizer.
  2. Plant food grown from imported fertilizer.
  3. Animal food produced from vegetation not fit for human consumption.
  4. Animal food produced from nutrients fit for human consumption.
  5. Animal food produced from imported feeding stuffs.
  6. Animal food derived from inclosed and adjacent fresh and salt waters.
  7. Plant food grown in surrounding neutral countries from native fertilizer.
  8. Plant food grown in surrounding neutral countries from imported fertilizer.
  9. Animal food produced in surrounding neutral countries from fodder native and not fit for human consumption.
  10. Animal food produced in surrounding neutral countries from domestic nutrients fit for human consumption.
  11. Animal food produced in surrounding neutral countries from imported feeding stuffs.
  12. Animal food from fresh and salt waters of surrounding neutral countries.
  13. Plant food from overseas direct.
  14. Plant food from overseas via neutral surrounding countries.
  15. Animal food from overseas direct.
  16. Animal food from overseas via surrounding neutral countries.
  17. Colonial wares from overseas direct.
  18. Colonial wares from overseas via surrounding neutral countries.
- A complete blockade would obviously exclude all food under Nos. 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18; but the financial interest of the citizens

of the surrounding neutral countries does not coincide with the purpose of the blockade, which can not be made complete under Nos. 7, 8, 9, 10, and 12. It was the purpose of the blockade to place every contiguous neutral country in an inclosed situation, exportation to Germany being made indirectly impossible.

It was clear to the Eltzbacher Commission at the outset that the direct results of the food blockade must result largely from the abolition of importation of fertilizers, feeding stuffs, meats, and fats. An attempt was made to evaluate the foodstuffs produced in surrounding neutral countries independently of their own importations, but the results were very evasive. As a matter of fact it has been the results of the application of the blockade that taught both the Germans and the allies the exact extent to which the surrounding countries were able to contribute foodstuffs to Germany.

The Eltzbacher Commission devoted particular attention to Germany's own production of feeding stuffs. The following data had to be determined:

1. How many domestic animals were produced yearly?
2. How many domestic animals were imported and exported yearly?
3. For the animals produced yearly, whence came the feed?
4. How much roughage and green feed were produced yearly?
5. How much pasture had Germany for the different classes of live stock?
6. How much concentrated feeding stuffs were produced each year?
7. How much concentrated feeding stuffs were imported and exported each year?
8. How much concentrate was produced in the surrounding neutral countries?

As a result of their deliberations the Eltzbacher Commission prepared an elaborate report. In this report were tabulated:

- (a) The amounts of foodstuffs consumed by Germany in a year.
- (b) The proportions that were produced in Germany.
- (c) The proportions of the foodstuffs that were produced in Germany from imported fertilizers and feeding stuffs.

The commission enunciated a standard for the food needs of the people of the Empire, and the differences between the figures for need and the figures for consumption were portrayed as waste, which it was the imperative duty of the Germans to avoid in war time. Recommendations for increased production were also formulated, whereby the restriction due to the blockade could be partly obviated.

A survey of the relations of consumption and production of concentrates and fodders makes it clear that it would not be possible for Germany to maintain, under blockade, the normal number of domesticated animals. In order to reduce the number of animals to the plane of available feeding stuffs the commission recommended, after weighing the relative values of dairy products and pork on the basis of cost of production and availability in consumption, the slaughter of one-third of the swine and 10 per cent of the milch cows, the numbers to be held to that level.

In addition to the work of this commission, independent scientists published the results of original investigations, confirming, in the main, the findings of the commission, though differing in essential features. Investigations were also carried out for the purpose of determining the total feed supply of the Empire, in order that the subsistence of all domesticated animals might be planned out on a ration basis.

Prof. Taylor has made an independent calculation of the food consumption of Germany, based on official data for the years 1912 and 1913. The following table contains the estimates of four different

calculations for protein, fat, carbohydrate, and calories per head per day:

CONSUMPTION OF FOOD UNITS IN GERMANY, 1912-13.

	Total.				Imported.				Domestic.			
	Protein.	Fat.	Carbohydrate.	Calories.	Protein.	Fat.	Carbohydrate.	Calories.	Protein.	Fat.	Carbohydrate.	Calories.
Balloed.....	Oz. 3.10	Oz. 2.15	Oz. 14.5	12,708	Oz. 0.85	Oz. 0.88	Oz. 0.8	1,450	Oz. 2.25	Oz. 1.30	Oz. 13.5	12,480
Eltzbacher.....	3.30	3.75	18.7	3,642	.90	1.60	1.5	715	2.40	2.10	17.2	2,927
Kuczynski and Zuntz.....	3.70	3.11	20.1	3,550	<sup>2</sup> 1.13	<sup>2</sup> 1.06	<sup>2</sup> 1.4	<sup>2</sup> 473	2.57	2.05	18.7	3,077
Taylor.....	3.25	2.33	16.0	2,790	.90	1.06	1.4	550	2.35	1.27	14.6	2,240

<sup>1</sup> Lack of agreement due to fact that Balloed estimated exported sugar as a domestic food.

<sup>2</sup> Direct plus indirect imports calculated by Taylor.

The food need of a people can not be judged by the total or the per capita consumption. The figures for the total consumption are too high, because they include all loss and waste. Those for the per capita consumption are misleading, because they are based on the assumption of equal rations for adults, children, infants, and aged people. Scientists allow for the individual variations in what is known as the man ration. The food-need of the adult male is set at 100, the food-need of the adult female at from 80 to 90, and the food-needs at different ages from infancy on, according to determined standards.

In the Eltzbacher report the German population was taken as 68,000,000. The number of children of each year of age and the number of adult males and females were known. The figure for the number of children of each year of age was multiplied by the figure for the food-need of that year. The number of adult females and the number of adult males were multiplied, respectively, by 85 and 100. The final figure for the needed food units—a compromise between several standards—was 51,822,908.

This figure means that the population of 68,000,000 would be nourished if it received the ration of 51,822,908 adults. Three thousand calories was the figure set for the adult need—100. The caloric needs of the German people were, therefore, determined by the simple multiplication:  $3,000 \times 365 \times 51,822,908 = 56,750,000,000,000$  calories. When this figure for total calories, determined on the basis of man ration, is divided by the figure for the population, the result is 2,280 calories a day; in other words, the per capita ration corresponded to 76 per cent of the man ration.

The protein needs of the people were also calculated. Children under 6 years of age were allotted 1.4 ounces a day; from 6 to 12, about 1.75; from 12 to 18, about 2.3. The adult men were allotted 2.9 ounces; the adult women were vouchsafed 2.4. The total daily protein needs for the population were, therefore, set at 1,605,000 metric tons a year.

The figures for peace time requirements in protein and calories adopted by the German commission are higher than competent investigators in different parts of the world regard as necessary. In particular, what might be termed the American school, led by Chittenden, regards as adequate very much lower intakes of foodstuffs; and these figures are based upon extensive tests with healthy men over long periods of time.



It will make the matter clearer to show these figures here for comparative purposes:

## PROTEIN NEEDS.

	Per capita.	Man ration.
Eltzbacher -----	2.30	2.83
Taylor -----	2.15—war time	2.5
Chittenden -----	1.5	1.8

## CALORIC NEEDS.

	Per capita.	Man ration.
Eltzbacher -----	2380—peace time	3000
Taylor -----	2510—war time	3300
Chittenden -----	2030	2600

From the data collected by the Eltzbacher commission it was clear that the peace-time consumption in calories was from one-third to one-half in excess of physiological requirements, and that the calories of domestic production in peace time were sufficient to cover the needs. The peace-time consumption of protein was 50 per cent in excess of the figure accepted for need; and the domestic production of protein was just large enough to cover the need. It was also apparent from the data that the fat consumption of peace time was so large as to deserve the term luxurious, and the fat of domestic origin was enough to cover the normal requirements.

On paper, therefore, it seemed clear to the German scientists that if the German people would reduce their consumption to the plane of physiological needs, and maintain the domestic production on the peace-time basis, they would be able to sustain a food blockade without injury. It will be of interest to tabulate the recommendations of this commission, not only because they make the whole question clearer, but because they illustrate the systematic scientific consideration given to the questions.

## FOOD RECOMMENDATIONS.

The difference between need and use, the waste of one-third to one-half in protein, fat and carbohydrate must be obliterated, since, if this waste continues under domestic production, want would be inevitable.

All luxurious living to be controlled—especially in public eating places.

The plane of peace-time production must be at least maintained. Necessary to this end is adequate labor on the land, sufficient use of fertilizer, proper rotation of crops, careful gardening and proper storage.

Production to be increased by cultivation of vacant land.

The cultivation of vegetables to be encouraged and the public exhorted to eat more vegetables and cereals and less of animal products.

The use of rye bread to be encouraged; that of wheat reduced.

The raising of hares, goats, and sheep to be encouraged.

Exportation of foodstuffs to be prohibited and the importation of foodstuffs from neighboring states to be encouraged.

The use of grain for the manufacture of starch and alcoholic beverages, and for other industrial purposes, to be reduced.

The use of starch for the manufacture of alcohol for technical use to be reduced to the plane of "important uses of alcohol."

Waste in soap to be reduced.

Domestic animals to be reduced in number by slaughter to that number which can be fed on domestic feeding stuffs, the meat thus secured to be conserved for future use.

The prohibition of feeding bread grains to animals.

Regulation of feeding of potatoes to animals.

Reduction of number of milch cows to plane of necessity; no milk to be fed to swine.

Regulation of use of oats and barley in feeding animals.

Control of use of sugar beets as fodder.

Equal distribution of foodstuffs to all.

#### MEASURES OF FOOD CONSERVATION DURING THE FIRST YEAR OF THE WAR.

Two measures of conservation were enacted during the first year of the war: (a) All grains were declared subject to confiscation; the bread grains were reserved for human consumption; a bread ration established; feeding of bread grains to domestic animals was prohibited. The utilization of bread grains for industrial purposes was restricted; the use of barley for the manufacture of malt was reduced one-third; the oats were confiscated for the use of the army and work horses, and the feeding of barley and maize placed under a general regulation.

This was, in part, a paper regulation only; the grains were subject to confiscation, and such quantities as were needed, weekly and monthly, were taken possession of, but the grains that lay with the producers were not held in reserve in the same manner as though they had been impounded in Government warehouses. The millers were instructed to mill rye flour to 82 per cent of the grain and wheat flour to 80 per cent of the grain. The flours thus obtained were somewhat more nourishing than the finer bolted flours of peace time, and the yield in flour was, of course, materially greater; but the lessened residue in grain offal for feeding purposes was a disadvantage, since the fodder calculations had been based upon the normal production of grain offal.

The peace-time consumption of rye and wheat, in the proportion of about two to one, was about 1 pound a head a day—higher in Bavaria, lower in North Prussia. The bread and flour ration of the Empire, fixed in the winter of 1914-15, was equal to one-half of a pound of flour, which was much less than the flour ration of peace time. Though ostensibly the bread card was imperial and supposed to be uniform in all portions of the Empire, this was not strictly the case; in particular, considerable leeway was allowed in the purchase of flour in different portions of the country.

(b) The recommendations of the Eltzbacher Commission for the reduction of swine and cattle were carried out during the first four months of 1915. Approximately one-third of the swine and 10 per cent of the milch cows—supposedly about a million and a half—were killed. About the time when the killing of the swine was under way, in March, an inventory of the potato stocks led to the official statement that these were low. Since the potato in Germany was one of the staple swine feeds, it was decided to kill rather more than the denominated number of swine in order to meet the loss in potatoes. Two months later another potato inventory was taken, revealing the fact that the previous inventory had been in error and that the killing of the additional swine had been entirely unnecessary, since the potatoes were available; and these potatoes were thrown upon the market at a huge loss in price and to a large extent underwent decomposition.

No oxen were killed, and the killing of calves was not in excess of the usual number; the slaughter did not extend to sheep and goats, which, on the con-

trary, were conserved with foresight. The presence of such huge amounts of meat upon the market unquestionably resulted in increased consumption during the first six months of 1915. According to the plan, by far the largest portion of the meats thus obtained was to be conserved for future use, and should have represented a very large stock of conserved meat. The processes of conservation were, however, carried out very inefficiently, with the result that a large portion of this meat underwent decomposition and became a complete loss.

The crops of the year 1914, though rather low, had been excellently garnered; the sugar crop was in excess of the normal; a great deal of food got in, because of the imperfect blockade; and, all in all, the nutrition of all classes of the German people was practically normal during the first year of the war.

#### FOOD SUPPLY CONDITIONS DURING THE SECOND YEAR OF THE WAR.

There was inadequate preparation of the soil for the crops of 1915 and a definite lack of fertilizer. Because of the unfavorable season, there was a low yield in grains, hay, and sugar beets, but, on the other hand, a record crop of potatoes. The total grain yield of 1914 was nearly 4,000,000 tons lower than in 1913, the yield of 1915 being 5,000,000 tons less than the crop of 1914. Four hundred thousand tons had been set aside as reserve for the army. When the quantities allotted for the flour ration, plus the amounts devoted to industrial purposes and for seed, were subtracted from the known amount of grain available from the crop of 1914 there remained some three and one-half million tons of wheat and rye to extend over into the new year. But when the inventory of 1915 was made this grain had disappeared.

The importation of grain in the two years before the war was between 16 and 20 per cent of the domestic production. The agrarians had less grain of their own raising; they were denied the normal amount of domestic grain offal by the new milling regulations, and the blockade excluded the grain previously imported. This created for the agrarians a dilemma, despite the reduction in cattle and hogs; and this dilemma they solved by the simple procedure of feeding the excess of grains that had been made liable to confiscation, on paper, but had, in fact, been allowed to remain in the possession of the producers.

The low crop in sugar beets brought with it, also, the revelation that the sugar supply of the previous crop was exhausted. At the outbreak of the war Germany had 400,000 tons of crude sugar from the crop of the previous year; the new crop amounted to about 2,600,000 tons, so that 3,000,000 tons was available. To the amazement of the scientists, the Government in October, 1914, gave permission for the exportation of 1,100,000 tons, the explanation being that it complied with the wishes of the powerful syndicate of sugar refiners, gratified the importunities of the surrounding neutral countries, and raised the rate of exchange.

Regulations for the control of the utilization of sugar-beet residue, molasses, crude and refined sugars for food, foddors, and industrial uses were established late in the fall of 1914. These did not include physical confiscation, but authorization of control. In order to provide larger supplies for live stock, recovery of refined sugar from molasses was later prohibited. During the winter of 1914-15 the consumption of sugar was much above normal. Very large amounts were consumed in the army and in hospitals and by the people in general.

In the autumn of 1915, within six months after one-third of the swine and a million and a quarter of milch cows had been killed, two meatless days (Tuesday and Friday) and two fatless days (Monday and Thursday) were introduced by decree. Maximum prices were decreed for retail sales, but without correlation and usually without result.

Gradually the lines became drawn between cities and industrial districts, on the one hand, and the country districts, on the other. To protect themselves the country districts prohibited export. The authorities attempted, in a half-hearted manner, to oppose such regulations and to reestablish the flow of foodstuffs in the channels of trade by increasing the maximum prices. A maximum price, once established, became, of course, the only price. As opposed to the regulations of the cities and of the imperial authorities, the regulations of the smaller districts were naturally more effective. Restrictive regulations spread over the entire land, each community looking out for its own interests, and it was soon apparent that the industrial cities were at a disadvantage.

#### ESTABLISHMENT OF THE WAR NUTRITION OFFICE.

Control over the food supply of the Empire was, up to June, 1916, vested in the imperial department of the interior (*Reichsamt des Innern*), of which von Delbrück was secretary. Dissatisfaction with the measures taken by this department became general during the second year of the war.

The worst mistake of the Delbrück régime was in trying to regulate the sale and use of food without knowing how much food existed. The food-card system in particular evoked the severest criticism, this criticism being caused not so much by the rationing of food as by the long waiting in front of shops for the sale of foodstuffs. The food cards, with the exception of the bread cards, did not carry any guarantee, but merely gave the holder the right to stand in line for hours and take the chances. When the supply for the day was exhausted the remaining shoppers were turned away. Disturbances of the peace were frequent, and it was felt as

a grievous injustice that by this waiting in front of shops the women were withheld from household duties for hours.

When Delbrück resigned a separate department, called the war nutrition office, was created directly under the chancellor. The president of this office was given absolute police powers under martial law, with a standing committee of experts representing the producers, transporters, middlemen, consumers, and the army.

The new system was installed on June 1, 1916, with Adolph von Batocki as president of the war nutrition office. Under the new organization the powers centralized in the war nutrition office authorized the following procedures:

The produce of the soil, plant and animal, may be confiscated in toto.

The amount of his produce that is to belong to the producer for the use of the producer class is determined by the authorities.

The feeding of all livestock is governed by regulation.

The acreage and rotation of crops may be regulated.

The use of fertilizer is under official control.

The use that the grower may make of the crop allotted to him is specified.

The price for produce to the producer is fixed by regulation.

The milling of grain, the composition of flour, the composition of bread, and the disposition of grain offal are determined by regulation.

The amount of grain that may be used in the manufacture of alcoholic beverages is limited by order.

The manufacture of industrial products from produce of the soil, such as starch, alcohol, soap, is limited and regulated.

The disposition of live stock is under regulation; so much and such stock is prepared for market, set apart for the dairy, and so on. The slaughtering of animals for food is under central control.

The uses to which milk is put are determined by regulation. The importation and exportation of all foodstuffs and fodders are under central control.

The number of middlemen that may handle a food is limited by order.

The number of wholesalers and retailers that may engage in the sale of foodstuffs and fodders is limited and specified.

The selection of retailer by consumer is under regulation.

The hours of doing business in sale of foods is under control.

The prices that may be charged by wholesalers and retailers and the numbers of dealers in any line are matters of regulation.

The amount of the several foodstuffs that could legally be in one's possession is limited.

The menus that are to be served in restaurants, eating houses, and hotels are limited by regulations.

The ration of the entire people is subject to limitation and specification; so much of this and that article of diet a day, week, or month for each infant, child, adult, hard-working laborer, for the sick, and so on.

The president of the war nutrition office was also required to see that equality was maintained in the food supplies and fodders allotted to the agricultural classes, waste eliminated, transportation facilitated, prices of all foods kept to the level consistent with the increased cost of production and increased scale of wages, and absolute equality of distribution and consumption maintained.



The following widely differing interests had to be conciliated: The producers, who desired to handle their produce in accordance with their own interests, as in time of peace; the traders, who desired that distribution pass through the ordinary channels of trade, subject to the customary manipulations, and the industrial classes, who demanded that food be furnished in adequate amounts and at commensurate prices.

#### BREAD AND FLOUR REGULATIONS ENACTED IN 1916.

The crop of wheat and rye of 1916 was larger than that of the previous year, equaling that of 1914—over 14,000,000 tons. As soon as this was assured an added ration of 1.8 ounces of flour for children between the ages of 12 and 17 years was announced, an increase in the bread ration to nine-tenths of a pound for all manual laborers, and to one pound and one-tenth for workers in mines and other places requiring unusual exertion. The maintenance of this ration was conditioned on the physical possession of the grain by the war nutrition office.

Not only was the bread ration increased, but the quality of the bread much improved by the withdrawal of the potato. During the first winter of the war, the use of potatoes in bread was made obligatory. Wheat flour had to be used with 10 parts of potatoes, and later contained from 10 to 20 parts of rye flour. The regulation rye bread contained 10 per cent of potato starch. As the grain crop of 1916 was relatively larger than the potato crop, the potato was withdrawn and normal bread restored. The potato bread was unpalatable, indigestible, and less nutritious than normal bread.

#### MEASURES FOR INCREASE OF FODDER SUPPLIES.

The large hay crop of 1916 was, in part, due to measures of the authorities, by whose efforts about 400,000 acres had been added to cultivation. In addition, the investigations of the scientists of the commission for fodder-surrogates have solved in a positive sense the problem of the synthesis of foodstuffs. They found that if yeast be grown in a medium of sugar, ammonia, and the necessary mineral salts, the ammonia and sugar will be converted into protein through multiplication of the yeast cells. When the culture is dried the powder contains over 45 per cent of protein. This yeast powder has been added to the human diet. The powder can, however, be obtained on a larger scale as fodder, and cheaply. The water of pulp mills, containing considerable carbohydrate, is made alkaline by addition of the washwater of gas works, which contains ammonia. The mixture is then inoculated with yeasts; the cells multiply, converting first the carbohydrate into sugar; then with ammonia into

protein of the yeast cell. The cells are washed free of sulphites from the pulping process and dried for stock feed. One part of yeast powder equals four parts of grain as carrier of protein. It has been stated that thousands of tons of such powders are being produced monthly.

Other fodders are being prepared by action of alkali on straw, the cellulose being converted into sugar. A hundred thousand tons of this feed are being made during the present year. This product has the value of crude sugar, and, mixed with yeast powder or protein meal, makes a feed equal to ground oats. The residue can be fermented and alcohol, acetone, and glycerin be recovered, which are very valuable. Meals are also made by grinding up different forest plants, to which protein can be added as concentrate. Mixtures of ground oats, straw, chopped hay, straw sugar, and protein meal have been formed into briquettes for easy shipment.

Kitchen waste and table scraps are collected in cities of over 40,000 inhabitants, are dried and pressed into cakes and then delivered to communal authorities, who allot them as fodder to milch cows. It has been estimated that the milk derived therefrom was equal to a million quarts a day. Animal waste matter has been utilized to the practical exclusion of all loss. Slaughterhouse refuse, bones, bodies of dead animals—including animals killed in the war zone—fish and mussels are dried, pressed, and used as fodder, alone or with carbohydrates. Such materials used to go to the soil as fertilizers. To feed them directly means saving time.

The control of sale and use of feeding stuffs and fodders of all kinds is now under the charge of the Feeding Permission Bureau, which determines how, where, and to what extent live stock shall be fed. Operating in connection with this bureau is the Pig-Fattening Co., a corporation financed by the State and under State control, which, directly or through communes, contracts with swine or cattle owners to send them feeding stuffs in return for a specified number of fattened animals within a stated time.

#### SUGAR REGULATIONS.

The sugar-beet crop of 1915 amounted to only about two-thirds of the crop of 1914. It was announced to be 150,000 tons. There was paper regulation of sugar during the winter of 1915-16, despite which the peasants fed beets freely, and also molasses; and the consumption by distilleries was probably in excess of the normal.

In January, 1916, sugar had become very scarce, and the feeding of beets and molasses to live stock was prohibited, and the recovery of sugar from molasses again permitted. Sugar cards appeared in March as local regulations; the allotment was not guaranteed, and

maximum prices could not be maintained. A survey of household consumption indicated that this had been abnormal. The public, short of fat, consumed so much sugar that by March it became exceedingly scarce and a house-to-house search was ordered for concealed sugar. By April the sugar ration had been reduced to a little over a pound a fortnight. The inventory in May revealed only 600,000 tons to last until October. Allotments were made to marmalade factories, cake bakers, and for household canning of fruit. Finally, the State confiscated the early apples and plums and canned them in order that the sugar and the fruit might be thus conserved for general utilization.

The sugar crop of 1916 is supposed to represent not much under 2,000,000 tons, crude. The president of the war nutrition office apparently has this crop under full control, and it is expected that the sugar ration will be increased over the amount allotted for November—a little less than an ounce a day.

#### CONTROL OF THE POTATO CROP.

The 1915 crop of 55,000,000 tons of sound potatoes seemed so large that the necessity of control was not taken seriously by the authorities. The distilleries made ample use of potatoes, large amounts were fed to swine and cattle, and potatoes were introduced into the regular ration of horses. Utilization of potatoes was, however, prohibited in the manufacture of soap. Maximum prices had been continued from the previous year.

Late in January, 1916, scarcity of potatoes developed in the cities. An inventory showed that only 18,000,000 tons remained, from which the seed had still to be reserved, leaving only 11,000,000 tons to last for six months. Thereupon potato cards were introduced, and the attempt was made to limit the feeding of potatoes to live stock. When the authorities determined to uncover and seize the stocks of stored potatoes unexpected losses by decomposition became apparent.

Von Batocki, on assuming office in June, 1916, promptly prohibited any feeding of potatoes to live stock. The potato cards introduced earlier in the year were not guaranteed, and in the large cities the intake for each person during the spring months was often as low as a quarter of a pound a day. Then the crop of summer potatoes came upon the market with a rush, as the maximum prices were high and scaled downward to increase the offerings. Early in August the cities were flooded with potatoes in carload lots. The poor, however, because of the announcement that prices were scaled to fall, bought only from hand to mouth. As a result thousands of tons decomposed and were lost. Nevertheless, even at this time the potato card and the prohibition of feeding to swine were not suspended. Two weeks later the cities were again empty of potatoes. The grow-

ers had ceased to harvest potatoes when the prices fell; they were engaged in the harvesting of grain, and the urban population had to wait for regular rations of potatoes until the digging of potatoes could again be resumed.

The potato crop of 1916 was small, supposedly as low as 36,000,000 tons, and not of normal grade. Von Batocki has established an efficient system of regulations: All users of potatoes have to hand in their figures for their year's requirements. An inventory of potatoes has been made in every district. The required amounts are subject to revision by the central authorities, and when the total figures for demand have been checked up against the total supplies available, all of which have been requisitioned and seized, the denominated amounts of potatoes belonging to each district, community, household, and factory are to be set aside and delivered.

Unclaimed potatoes can be disposed of by the authorities. Extensive drying of potatoes is to be done under official supervision and every effort directed against waste.

Under the new regulations feeding of potatoes to animals is permitted only to swine and geese.

The imperial potato card was issued in October, a guaranteed card, for which each householder must select a retailer, who could obtain supplies only by presentation of the collected cards. The potato ration per day for grower and industrial classes was fixed at  $1\frac{1}{2}$  pounds for women, children, and light workers;  $2\frac{1}{2}$  pounds for hard workers, the ration per head not to exceed  $1\frac{3}{4}$  pounds, with extra allotments for the army, the sick and wounded, and children whenever necessary. This ration means the use in food of about 19,000,000 tons, so that apparently, when the industrial demands are satisfied, not over 5,000,000 or 6,000,000 tons will be available for animals.

#### MEASURES RELATING TO THE PRODUCTION AND SALE OF VEGETABLES AND FRUIT.

In the spring of 1915 the people were officially urged to plant vegetables, especially to till all the odds and ends of uncultivated ground. The people of the cities were aided by the municipal authorities in the establishment of small gardens, taught how, what, and where to plant, how to cultivate, how to harvest and store. Desiccation establishments were installed in order that waste might be prevented. There was also increased cultivation on a large scale for the markets. The result has been that during the past two years the use of vegetables in the diet has probably been larger than ever before, particularly during the summer of 1916. For many vegetables maximum prices have been established, wholesale and retail.

The commercial manufacture of sauerkraut has been vested in a special corporation, and it is sold at fixed prices. The conservation of vegetables has been encouraged; in some instances these were con-

fiscated and canned in order to solve disputes between canners and growers.

The retail prices for fruit reached unheard-of heights during the summer of 1916. The growers' prices were high, in extenuation of which the high cost of fertilizer, cultivation, picking, and packing was adduced. The maximum prices first set were low. Then the growers refused to pick. The prices were raised, and thereupon green fruit was sent to the market. The people were encouraged to put up fruit by sterilization by heat and with saccharine; but the housewives were not inclined to experimentation. Thereupon the war nutrition office confiscated the entire crop of early apples and plums, supplied the sugar, and had them converted into jams.

#### REGULATION OF THE EGG SUPPLY.

During the first year of the war, when there was little scarcity of food, eggs could be obtained in the city markets at high prices; during the second year the country districts were less inclined to send eggs to the cities, except at very high prices, and in the spring of 1916 the usual spring increase in the supply of eggs did not appear and winter prices were maintained.

The use of eggs had been prohibited in ordinary cakes and limited in the making of tarts. Local regulations appeared in many cities, fixing a maximum price, limiting the number that could be bought, and prohibiting the serving of eggs at breakfast. Finally the egg card appeared. In June, 1916, the number allotted in the cities was two per week per head. In July this was reduced to one per week, which was also the allotment in September and October. The price was 7 cents. In October the food controller enacted regulations of confiscation in order to protect the needs of children, the army, and the sick. The producers were supposed to retain a portion of their product; the remainder was to be turned in to the food controller.

#### REGULATION OF THE COFFEE AND TEA SUPPLY.

During the first year of the war there was no scarcity of coffee, tea, cocoa, or chocolate, the latter two being little used in Germany as beverages. During the last six months of 1916, however, there was scarcity, which was met by regulation of use. The first regulation made obligatory the use of a substitute with coffee, half and half; and all middlemen were wiped out, retailers securing supplies direct from the authorities. Hotels and restaurants were allotted half the amounts of their customary consumption, with an equal amount of substitute.

In October final regulations were issued. Coffee now comes in three grades—10, 25, and 50 per cent coffee. The best grade has the



maximum price of 60 cents a pound. Many substitutes are on the market, composed largely of brown grains, with a certain amount of chicory. The quality of these surrogates finally became so bad that they were placed under the control of a specially created coffee commission.

Supplies of tea were satisfactory until May, 1916, when the tea was confiscated and the retail sale regulated, the limit being set at half an ounce. The use of a substitute was not made obligatory; the prices varied from \$1 to \$2 a pound.

#### MILK AND CHEESE REGULATIONS.

No item of the German food supplies has attracted more attention in Germany and the outside world than the scarcity of milk; and ever since the beginning of the war periodic appeals have been made to the Governments of neutral countries to induce them to exert their influence toward such modification of the blockade as would permit the shipment into Germany of milk for little children. These appeals were based upon a misconception of the amount of Germany's milk supply that naturally went to children. According to the computations of the Eltzbacher Commission it is apparent that the direct childhood need of milk was less than one-third of the normal milk consumption in Germany. Over half of the milk, in terms of units of casein, was fed to live stock.

The milk supply in the first part of the war was not far from normal. This was aided by the continued importation of oil concentrates from the United States, not checked until well into the second year of the war. The low yield of grasses and hay in 1915, together with the small crop of grain and the scarcity of all concentrates, combined in the fall of 1915 to bring about a scarcity of milk that has since constituted one of the most difficult problems in Germany. The problem has concerned only the industrial population. The agricultural population has throughout the war enjoyed practically the normal supply of milk.

The authorities were at the outset loath to interfere, since milk is such a perishable product. Attempts were made to regulate the prices and to fix the volume of trade in different directions in the geographical sense, and thus secure adequate distribution by middlemen. As a matter of fact the distribution remained exceedingly inequitable until the advent of the food controller. Milk cards appeared during the spring and summer of 1916 as local regulations. In September, 1916, the supply of milk was very low—scarcely more than enough to cover the needs of mothers, infants, children, and the sick.

The final system of milk regulation inaugurated in October was founded on four considerations: The milk from peasants and from

dairies was separated in the regulations; the use of milk in the household, guaranteed on the milk cards, was based on the composition of the family; the amounts of milk devoted to the household use and to the manufacture of butter and cheese were regulated at the source; and the feeding of milch cows was effected by rationing. Large dairies are supplied with rations and must return specified amounts of milk. The small producers' milk was not confiscated. They were advised to use the normal amounts and turn the balance over to the authorities. The nonagricultural population has been placed upon a strict milk regulation. During the last three months of gestation, the period of nursing, and the period of recovery therefrom, a woman receives one liter (1.06 quarts) of full milk daily. The bottle-fed child, up to the second year, is to receive daily one liter of full milk; children between 2 and 4 years, three-fourths of a liter; and those between 5 and 6 years, one-half of a liter. After the age of 6 no milk ration is guaranteed, but of skim milk the child may receive as much as the market affords. Full milk is allotted to the sick under the care of a physician. After these allowances the remainder of the full milk goes to the manufacturer of butter and cheese, the skim milk being returned to the market for unrestricted sale.

The manufacture of cheese was regulated and the total cheese production of the Empire, outside household cheese, confiscated. The importation of cheese has suffered little during the war. Up to September, 1916, there was no regulation controlling the purchase of cheese. In that month all imported cheeses were withdrawn from the market and allotted to the army, hospitals, and prison-of-war camps. The domestic cheese is being distributed through control bureaus established in different cities. There was, up to November, no cheese card and no limit to individual purchase.

#### BUTTER AND FAT REGULATIONS.

Prior to the war butter was the fat of the rich, lard and margarine of the poor. According to the Eltzbacher Commission the per capita consumption of butter was about 3.5 ounces a day, of which nearly one-half was obtained by importation. In peace time Germany imported hundreds of thousands of tons of both animal and vegetable fats for direct consumption, for the manufacture of margarine in concentrates, and for industrial purposes, such as the manufacture of soap. While in the polar and tropical zones fat is produced in excess, in the temperate zone fat must be cultivated. This cultivation Germany had neglected, and it has proved the weakest spot in her system of food supply.

During the first year of the war there was little scarcity of fat and butter and there were no regulations concerning their uses. The

second year brought scarcity and regulations. Butter, margarine, and other fats became so scarce in December, 1915, that regulations were enacted compelling the large dairies to turn over to the central buying bureau portions of their output for distribution to the cities. Cities, towns, and communes then introduced butter cards and fat cards. Two fatless days were prescribed—Mondays and Thursdays; on these days the use of fat on the table and in the preparation of food was prohibited. The butter cards' allotments were unequal, allowing from 5 to 10 ounces a week. In some places maximum prices were set, in others not. The retail prices in the shops rose gradually, until the best grades of butter sold as high as \$1 or even \$2 a pound. The authorities attempted to have the card follow the supply, and gradually the ration fell until in May in the cities the weekly allotment was rarely above 4 ounces and the ration of children had been reduced to one-half.

During the summer of 1916 there was considerable importation of butter from the surrounding neutral countries. All manner of butter substitutes were placed upon the market and there was widespread manipulation. The standards of manufacture were slowly reduced, and each day butter and margarine became more watery.

With the advent of the food controller, all fats were confiscated. The outputs of dairies were exacted on the basis of their milk supplies. The killing of milch cows was made illegal. The butter cards became obligatory for the Empire, and the selection of dealers was made compulsory. During June, July, August, and September, 1916, rations in cities varied from 3.2 ounces to 4.6 ounces a week. The prices averaged from 12 to 15 cents for 3 ounces. Communal authorities seized all butter produced by dairies of over 50 quarts capacity a day and determined how much should be distributed locally and how much should be sent to the imperial bureau for fat for the use of the cities. Peasants were not allowed to sell butter except to the communal authorities and the peasant's butter and milk were both liable to requisition.

Margarine and fats are now distributed by the same organization. The results of the new system have been a marked reduction in prices, but no increase in quantities. During October the usual ration in cities was 3.2 ounces in table fat a week; butter, two-thirds, and margarine, one-third. The prices were from 6 to 8 cents for 2.1 ounces of butter; for margarine, 3 cents for 1.1 ounces.

#### MEAT REGULATIONS.

During the winter of 1915-16 a great deal of meat was requisitioned for the army. The peasants killed many animals in domestic slaughtering, consuming the meat without control and dispensing large amounts to people living in small towns and in the

large cities. The stock in the best condition was killed and there was not enough feed to maintain all the animals in good condition. When the cities sought to buy live stock, they could secure only cattle and swine of low grade. Such animals yielded little meat and did not supply the demands. Thus, with each month following October, 1915, the scarcity in meats became more pronounced. There was little or no meat procurable by importation during the winter of 1915-16, as meat was scarce both in Holland and in Scandinavia.

Local meat cards appeared in various portions of the Empire late in 1915 and became universal in the cities in 1916. Two meatless days were established—Tuesday and Friday. Maximum prices were placed on pork, which had the effect of driving it from the market and making other meat appear at higher prices. In the cities there were fine distinctions as to when meat was meat, and when it was not meat. Thus, loin of meat was meat; but tongue and liver and tail were not meat.

In March, 1916, the open market for cattle was practically empty and the provisioning of the cities with live stock was placed under regulations. The cities contracted with live-stock associations to furnish so many head a week. Thus, Berlin, in peace time consumed 100,000 swine a month. In April, 1916, 14,000 were ordered to be purchased for the city markets; only 2,300 were secured, the swine not being fit for slaughter. Meanwhile, in south Germany, the meat cards provided for  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 2 pounds of meat a week. The cities attempted to buy their stock directly. Failing to obtain stock fit for slaughter, they began to buy lean stock, and securing supplies of feeding stuffs proceeded to prepare the animals for the markets. These meats went largely to the poorer classes.

In May conditions became so bad that uniform-card regulation was attempted, and this was elaborated when the newly-appointed food controller took charge of the situation. Each householder had to select a meat dealer. The central slaughter houses and the wholesale buyers were eliminated. The cities sublet contracts for slaughter and delivered the meat directly to retailers, who obtained meat in return for retail cards turned in by them. The amount stated on the cards was reduced to 9 ounces a week. At this time the meat ration in the army was reduced to three-quarters of a pound a day, with two meatless days a week for soldiers not on active duty. The card system at this time was necessarily a failure because the amount of meat available was so much smaller than the amounts called for by the cards.

In June a survey of the live-stock situation convinced the authorities that it was useless to attempt to increase the ration. The plan was then formulated to keep the ration low and feed up the younger stock, with the intention of increasing the meat ration in the autumn.

Conditions in the summer months remained unsatisfactory from every point of view until the imperial meat card was issued in July. This accomplished more equitable distribution of meat; but the ration remained very low. In August pork was practically withdrawn from sale. A survey of the rations of the different cities of Germany during the summer months indicated that the individual allotment secured each week was not over one-third of a pound. In September the final system of the war nutrition department was put into effect. The essential feature of this system was the confiscation of the live stock and the control of the feeding of this stock and its delivery to the market, a system very similar to that described for the dairies.

A census of swine and of milch cows in November, 1916, indicated that the number had risen practically to the number before the great slaughter. On the other hand, a review of the nine months preceding the introduction of the imperial meat card, in September, 1916, shows that the agrarians took food from the people of Germany and utilized it, with their feeding stuffs, in order to carry along a number of animals so large that the total available feed for them was not enough to produce comparable amounts of market meat or dairy products, the nutrients being largely utilized by the animals for mere maintenance.

If Germany, in December, 1914, did not have the feeding stuffs to maintain the animals, then she certainly did not have them in November, 1916; and all the work of the Eltzbacher Commission to regulate the relative consumption of food units by domesticated animals and by man has been in vain. Germany during the winter of 1916-17 is consuming, according to the card, a little over half a pound of meat a week from the same number of animals that in time of peace yielded over 2 pounds a week, of which one-fourth of a pound came from imported feeding stuffs. The experience of the past year has been an experiment to determine how many head of stock and of human beings could be maintained on a minimum of food and feeding stuffs; but this has not redounded to the credit of the agrarians or to the nutrition of the industrial classes.

#### POULTRY AND FISH SUPPLY.

The use of poultry in Germany was restricted practically to the well-to-do classes, and its scarcity, with the higher prices, concerned them alone; but the reduction in the supplies of fish affected the common people. From one-half to two-thirds of the supply of sea fish in peace time was drawn from waters now more or less closed to German fishing. Importation of fish from Holland and the Scandinavian countries was extensive until the blockade forced these countries to reduce the scope of their fishing operations and to prohibit the sending of fish to Germany.

Accordingly, the sea-fish supply was much reduced during the summer of 1916. The German catches of Baltic and sweet-water fish



were increased. The higher grades of fish were consumed by the well-to-do in peace time, but the cheaper grades formed a staple in the diet of the working people. These cheaper grades, both fresh and smoked, are now expensive. Herring, formerly used as fertilizer, are now from 10 to 20 cents a pound.

A survey of the fish markets and of the reports in the trade papers confirms the opinion that the total fish consumption during the past summer was probably not much lower than in peace time, but that the distribution was different, since fish went to replace meat in the households of the well-to-do and middle classes.

#### REGULATION OF ALCOHOLIC BEVERAGES.

Reduction of consumption of alcoholic beverages was determined upon early in the war, but was not carried into effect until after the low harvest of 1915. Restriction in manufacture was necessary to minimize loss in grain and to reduce the labor required in the processes of manufacture.

The amount of barley that could be devoted to the manufacture of malt was reduced to 60 per cent; grain devoted to distilled liquors was reduced to 50 per cent. More recently the making of grain whiskies has been interdicted. The hours of sale and the amounts allotted for daily sale were fixed differently in different parts of the Empire. In Berlin limitation was by hour; in Munich, by quantity. In the summer of 1916 sophistication of the beer by addition of saccharine was first permitted; later it became compulsory. This adulteration has been resented by the people, as saccharine almost ruins a good beer.

#### CIVIC KITCHENS.

From the beginning of the war up to the winter of 1916 Berlin dispensed for its poorer citizens, in foodstuffs, over \$40,000,000. Early in the spring of 1916, when the scarcity of food supplies first became acute, field kitchens were sent into the streets to offer cooked supplies to the poor. This measure caused miniature riots, and it was soon seen that this method was impracticable.

Then began the expansion of the civic kitchens and eating rooms. The value of the civic kitchens lies in three considerations: They can buy and prepare food much cheaper, and often much better, than can be done in the houses of the poor; they operate without detriment by fluctuation in wages or food supplies; they save labor, and thus permit the women in the poorer classes to engage in remunerative work. In all the large cities needy school children of the poor are given the noonday meal at a cost of from 20 to 30 pfennigs (4.8 to 7.1 cents), as against 18 pfennigs (4.3 cents) in peace time.

Three classes of civic kitchens are now maintained in practically all cities: For the very poor; for the lower middle class; and for

the class of petty officials. The food is clean, well selected, prepared in accordance with the tastes of the class to which it is served, and also, of course, in accordance with the state of the markets. Very few places serve more than the midday meal. The unit value of these meals varies from 900 to 1,300 calories. The patrons of civic kitchens must hand in portions of their meat and potato cards; in some cities cards for pulses and cereals also.

The attendance of these civic kitchens and eating houses has fluctuated with the stringency in food supplies. The different cities in the Empire have now capacities for feeding some 6,000,000 daily. That these places fill a niche between the problems of production and consumption can not be doubted, as they remove the difficulties of distribution from a class that has little stability in the market.

#### ABOLISHMENT OF THE MIDDLEMEN.

One of the first problems in the food control of Germany was the multiplicity of middlemen, and the desire of each to continue in wartime to handle foodstuffs as he had done in time of peace.

Definite regulations were enacted in August, 1916. All dealers in foodstuffs had to secure licenses to engage in business. This did not apply to producers, holders of war concessions, municipalities, or communities. The central buying bureau grants, limits, or refuses permission to dealers to sell foodstuffs, in accordance with its interpretation of the needs of the market and of the interests of the consumer. Commission agents are abolished; from the wholesaler to the retailer there must be no middleman. The number of wholesalers was limited by the volume of the business. The number of retailers was limited by the interests of the consumers; and for most foodstuffs the consumers were placed on retailers' lists, and the business of the retailer is thus directly known and controlled. All increase of price by indirection or chain trading was made a penal offense. Advertisements seeking purchase of foodstuffs must pass inspection of the authorities before being permitted, also such dealing with offers of sale or with any subject bearing on the question of the supply or prices of foods.

The authorities now practically dictate the way that business in foodstuffs is done; and the result has been to place the consumer closer to the producer and to eliminate a considerable number of large and small middlemen and buying and sales agents. The theory is not that such intermediary dealing between the producer and consumer is indispensable or wrong, but that the State will do for nothing what private interests previously did at a large profit to themselves.

**MACHINERY FOR THE REGULATION OF PRODUCTION, DISTRIBUTION, AND CONSUMPTION OF FOOD.**

The machinery through which the regulation of production, distribution, and consumption of food and feeding stuffs was accomplished was elaborated for the exigencies of the situation of war. The workings occur largely through operating companies. These companies were organized for particular tasks, as corporations with limited liability. Once the articles they were to handle had been obtained by confiscation they were turned over to the particular company. The company had a capital stock, derived from the State. It had the right of contract, could buy and sell, and, in fact, enjoyed all the rights of trade, plus monopoly. The transactions were supposed to return a nominal profit.

The press of the opposition frequently made complaints against the management of these companies. Prof. Taylor states, however, that the allegations of the press seemed to have little basis. On the whole, these companies seem to have carried out their allotted task with dispatch and effectiveness. There was sometimes overlapping, with resulting confusion and failure. The companies did not always succeed in accomplishing what they were organized to do, but that lay in the difficulties of the situation rather than in the working operations.

The following incomplete list of these companies will suffice to indicate the scope and character of the organizations, 33 in all:

Imperial grain department, central bureau for maintenance of military supplies, barley utilization bureau, imperial society for milk concentrates, imperial bureau for food fats, commission for fodder surrogates, distribution bureau for crude sugar, association of German landlords, central buying department, dried potato utilization company, war company for sauerkraut, war company for fruit canning and marmalades, pig-fattening corporation, war commission for vegetal oils and animal fats—these operate now under the food controller by authorization of the chancellor.

**ESTIMATE AND PRODUCTION.**

Prof. Taylor summarizes the achievements of the agricultural classes in comparison with the estimates of the scientists in the following statement:

When one compares what has been achieved in production with what the commission of German scientists believed could be attained, the results are not creditable to the agricultural classes, even when the influences of unfavorable weather are fully allowed for. The Eltzbacher Commission estimated the peacetime use as: Protein, 2,261,000 tons; calories, 88,694,000,000,000.

Of domestic origin: Protein, 1,650,000 tons; calories 71,282,000,000,000.

Physiological need: Protein, 1,605,000 tons; calories, 56,750,000,000,000.

Attainable production under blockade: Protein, 2,022,000 tons; calories, 81,250,000,000,000.

Actual production in 1914-15 was, in foodstuffs: Protein, 1,510,000 tons; calories, 63,410,000,000,000.

Actual production in 1915-16 was, in foodstuffs: Protein, 1,100,000 tons; calories, 57,000,000,000,000.

The production for 1916-17 can not be stated, but is in all probability not larger than for 1915-16. It is clear that the production during the past two seasons was not over one-half the protein and two-thirds the calories that were estimated as possible by the scientists. All that has been accomplished has been in the direction of distribution and economy, not in production.

## GOVERNMENT CONTROL OF FOOD SUPPLIES IN ITALY.

### PRODUCTION OF FOODSTUFFS BEFORE THE WAR.

Italy has never been self-sustaining with respect to its food production. Large quantities of grain, cattle, frozen meats, dried and salted fish, fats, cheese, etc., must each year be imported to provide sufficient food for the population. This deficiency in agricultural products is largely due to defective cultivation, such as insufficient use of fertilizers, shallow plowing, preference for extensive in place of intensive cultivation, neglect of intermediate cultures, and other more or less important defects. Of late the Government has tried to lessen and correct these defects. It has instituted extension lecture courses on systematic cultivation of the soil and granted premiums and subsidies to agriculturists willing to adopt scientific methods of cultivation. A brief summary of production and importation of the principal foodstuffs is given below for the better understanding of the food-supply measures taken by the Italian Government during the war:<sup>1</sup>

During the five-year period 1909-1913 the average wheat production of Italy was 49,896,000 quintals<sup>2</sup> (5,500,086 tons). The imports of wheat during the four-year period 1910-1913 varied between 13,911,300 quintals (1,533,443 tons) for 1911 and 18,107,330 quintals (1,995,971 tons) for 1913. The total value of the wheat imported in 1913 was 399,546,798 lire (\$77,112,532). As to yield per hectare (2.471 acres) Italy is outclassed by most European countries, the average yield being less than half of that of England and Germany.

Corn takes second place among the cereals cultivated by Italy, but plays an important part in the diet of the population of upper and central Italy. The average annual production during the five-year period 1909-1913 was 25,486,000 quintals (2,809,322 tons). The imports of corn during the four-year period 1910-1913 varied from

<sup>1</sup> The statistical data are taken from two sources: *Annuario statistico italiano*, 1914. Series 2, vol. 4. Rome, 1915, pp. 157 to 164 and 227 to 232, and "Guerra ed agricoltura," by Senator Giulio Vigone, in *Nuova Antologia*, vol. 52, No. 1079. Rome, 1916, pp. 100 to 111.

<sup>2</sup> One quintal=100 kilograms=220.46 pounds. Equivalents are given in tons of 2,000 pounds.

3,517,400 quintals (387,723 tons) in 1913 to 5,407,740 quintals (596,095 tons) in 1912. The total value of the corn imports in these two years was 54,519,700 and 89,227,810 lire (\$10,522,302 and \$17,220,967), respectively.

Other cereals imported in a considerable measure, but not in as large quantities as wheat and corn, are rye, oats, and barley. Oil-producing seeds, such as linseed, rapeseed, sesame, ricinus, etc., are annually imported to the extent of about 1,000,000 quintals (110,230 tons).

In 1913 the production of sugar beets amounted to 27,300,000 quintals (3,009,279 tons). Generous subsidies by the Government are chiefly responsible for rapid growth of the sugar industry, but have had the effect of excessively increasing the cost of sugar.

Olive oil, which is consumed in large quantities in Italy in place of animal fats, is another important product of Italian agriculture. The production of olive oil exceeds Italy's home consumption in such a measure that it is able to export large quantities. In 1913 its exports of olive oil represented a value of 42,314,348 lire (\$8,166,669).

Wine, although it can not be strictly classed as a food product, must also be considered because its consumption is very considerable in Italy, rich and poor alike being used to consume wine with their principal meals. Like the olive crop, the vintage is largely dependent on weather conditions and varies greatly. However, even in years with unfavorable weather the vintage far exceeds the home consumption and leaves a large surplus for exportation. In 1913 the exports of wine amounted to 1,787,265 hectoliters (47,214,180 gallons), valued at 82,524,528 lire (\$15,927,234).

For coffee, the consumption of which is increasing from year to year, Italy is entirely dependent on importation. In 1913 it imported 286,647 quintals (31,597 tons) of a total value of 44,432,445 lire (\$8,575,462).

In close connection with the deficiency of Italian agriculture is the absence of large establishments for the manufacture of agricultural machinery.

Notwithstanding the above-mentioned deficiencies of Italian agriculture, live-stock raising has made progress in Italy in recent years. The live-stock census of 1914 showed the existence in Italy of 2,335,000 horses, asses, and mules, 6,646,000 head of cattle, 2,722,222 hogs, and 13,824,000 sheep and goats. Nevertheless, the domestic meat supply can not keep stemp with the steadily increasing consumption of meat. In recent years the number of imported cattle decreased from 40,491 head in 1910 to 15,023 head in 1913, but, on the other hand, import statistics show a large increase in the importation of frozen meats.



The consumption of fish is very large in Italy, and an average of about 700,000 quintals (77,161 tons) of dried and salted fish, worth about 60,000,000 lire (\$11,580,000), are imported each year.

Italian food production also shows a shortage in fats. In 1913 293,738 quintals (32,379 tons) of fats were imported, of a total value of 26,092,916 lire (\$5,035,932).

On the other hand, there is a number of food products of which Italy has an excess production and is able to export considerable quantities. In addition to olive oil and wine, for which export data have been given above, these commodities include the following: Rice, potatoes, wheat, flour, and semolina, macaroni, spaghetti, noodles, etc., legumes (fresh), vegetables, citrous fruit, fresh fruit (inclusive of grapes and tomatoes), dried fruit, preserved fruit, legumes, and vegetables, canned tomatoes, poultry, eggs, butter, butterine, etc., cheese.

#### EMBARGOES ON FOODSTUFFS.

Although Italy did not become a belligerent in the European war until May, 1915, its Government took measures immediately after the outbreak of this war to secure the conservation of the supply of foodstuffs and industrial raw materials. Among the first of these measures were decrees of embargo on the exportation of various commodities.

A royal decree of August 1, 1914,<sup>1</sup> prohibited the exportation of wheat, rye, oats, barley, rice, corn, flour, semolina, bran, ship's biscuits, hay, straw, carob beans, coffee, sugar, cattle, fresh meat, live doves, and various industrial raw materials. A decree of August 6, 1914, added to these articles sheep, dried legumes, macaroni, spaghetti, and other similar pastry goods, and hard cheese. Subsequent decrees of October 28, 1914, and of January 31, February 7, and May 6, 1915, prohibited the exportation of preserved meats, potatoes, eggs, cocoa, hogs, salted and otherwise preserved meats, food preserves made of foodstuffs on the embargo lists, chestnuts, poultry, fish oil and fat, vegetable and animal fats, fresh, salted, and preserved fish, fresh vegetables, oil seeds, acorns, and all products required for the feeding of animals, inclusive of milling offal and vegetable oil.

In order to coordinate the activities of the various Government departments charged with the enforcement of the embargo measures, a royal decree of November 24, 1914, established an advisory committee on embargoes in the ministry of finance. The committee is presided over by the undersecretary of the ministry of finance, and

<sup>1</sup> Unless otherwise indicated all legislation quoted in the present article was obtained from the following source: Italy, Ministero di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio. Direzione Generale del Credito e della Previdenza. *Annali del credito e della previdenza*. Series 2, vol. 10, parts 1, 2, and 3. Rome, 1915 and 1916.

is composed of delegates (chiefs of divisions or bureaus) of the ministries of foreign affairs, finance, war, the navy, agriculture, industry, and commerce. Its duties are (1) to render opinions on all requests for exceptional permits for the exportation of commodities subject to embargo, (2) to propose exceptional abrogations of embargoes or the addition of new commodities to the embargo list, (3) to render opinions on all contests arising from the application of provisions regulating the transit of all commodities subject to embargoes, and (4) to render opinions on request of the ministry of finance on all questions relating to the exportation or transit of such commodities.

#### REDUCTION OF IMPORT DUTIES ON GRAIN, CEREALS, AND THEIR PRODUCTS.

In order to encourage and facilitate the purchase of large stocks of grain a royal decree of October 14, 1914, reduced the import duties on all kinds of grain, flour, semolina, bran, and ship's biscuits, effective October 20, 1914, and to apply until March 31, 1915. A subsequent decree of December 1, 1914, extended the time limit to June 30, 1915. Long before the latter time limit had expired, however, a royal decree of January 31, 1915, abolished temporarily all import duties on grain and flour and authorized the ministry of public works to adopt measures for the facilitation of railroad transportation of grain and flour in the interior and to reduce the freight rates on these commodities to a minimum of 50 per cent. Like authority was granted to the ministry of the navy with respect to freight rate reductions on grain and flour transported on subsidized steamer lines. The ministry of the navy was also empowered to order these lines to have their vessels make additional voyages out of schedule in case they are needed for the transport of grain to Italy.

#### ESTABLISHMENT OF PROVINCIAL GRAIN PURCHASING ASSOCIATIONS.

The Government being of the opinion that the provisioning of the country with grain and flour could be materially aided by cooperation of the local authorities in the purchase and distribution of these commodities, on December 20, 1914, issued a decree authorizing chambers of commerce, Provinces, and municipalities which are the seat of the district authorities, to combine into voluntary associations for the purchase and distribution of grain and flour within the individual provincial territory. Individual communes with a population of 10,000 or more inhabitants were also authorized to become members of such associations.

The decree provided that each provincial association shall be governed by a commission formed of two commissioners elected by each local authority which is a member of the association.

The purchase and sale of grain and flour must be effected by the association without any profit whatever. Only actual expenditures for storage, transportation, and distribution may be added to the cost price. Gratuitous distribution of grain and flour is prohibited. Communes and authorities purchasing grain or flour from the association, although members of the latter, must pay cash for all purchases. The associations are authorized to fix the prices to be charged to the public by millers, bakers, manufacturers of macaroni, etc., and retail dealers who have purchased their supplies of grain or flour from associations formed under the present decree. These prices become obligatory and must be upheld by the local authorities. The decree granted to these associations exemption from all stamp and registry taxes. A special decree issued January 31, 1915, regulates the method in which loans shall be made by banks of issue and their branches to grain purchasing associations and fixes the rate of interest on such loans at  $4\frac{1}{2}$  per cent.

#### STANDARDIZATION OF BREAD AND MILLING REGULATIONS.

As a precautionary measure to assure a sufficient supply of grain to the country until the new harvest, a ministerial decree of February 12, 1915, appointed a commission charged with making proposals as to the establishment of a uniform type of bread which, although corresponding to the requirements of alimentary hygiene, would involve a considerable saving in grain.

Based on the report of this commission, a ministerial decree of March 7, 1915, provided that beginning with March 22, 1915, the only kind of bread which may be baked in Italy shall be a loaf made from wheat flour milled to 80 per cent, not to weigh more than 500 grams (about  $17\frac{1}{2}$  ounces), nor to contain more than 35 per cent of water, to be measured within 12 hours after being withdrawn from the oven. Prefects of Provinces are authorized, however, to permit certain specified bakeries to produce bread from flour of a superior quality for use in hospitals and for sick persons in their homes for whom medical certificates have been issued. The maximum daily allowance in such cases may not exceed 200 grams (about 7 ounces) per sick person.

It has hitherto been the custom in Italy to use in the manufacture of white bread, flour milled to 74 or (at the most) 75 per cent, the offal of 25 to 26 per cent being used as feed for horses and other animals. The gain on every quintal (220.46 pounds) of dry meal will, therefore, be from 5 to 6 kilograms (11 to 13 pounds) representing about 10 kilograms (22.05 pounds) in actual bread. In other words, the gain to Italy's grain supplies in respect of all the white bread baked may be taken as about 10 per cent.

The supervision of the application of the decree was placed in the hands of provincial health officers, factory inspectors, food inspectors, and police officers. The decree provides that they shall have free access to rooms used for the manufacture, storage, and sale of bread, and shall be authorized to take, free of cost, sample loaves for the purpose of analysis.

A decree issued under date of August 23, 1915, prohibits the production of wheat flour milled to less than 80 per cent and the withdrawal from wheat flour of natural elements and the substitution of other elements of inferior commercial and alimentary value.

#### MEASURES TO ASSURE TIMELY HARVESTS.

In view of the scarcity of agricultural labor, a viceregal decree of June 3, 1915, authorized all prefects of the kingdom to issue orders making it obligatory during harvest time for hereditary lessees of land, share farmers, and other agriculturists to loan for proper compensation their farm laborers, machinery, and the men and animals required for the operation of this machinery to farmers in the same or adjoining communes for the cutting and thrashing of grain. Only during the period required for the harvesting of their own product are they exempt from this obligation. Requests for such loans of labor and machinery are to be made to the mayors of the individual communes. These decide whether these requests shall be granted and who shall furnish the required labor and machinery; they also fix the period for such loans of farm labor and machinery and the compensation. The decision of the mayor is mandatory and final, except with respect to the fixing of the compensation. An appeal within two days from the determination of the compensation is permissible and must be made to a commission presided over by the judge of the court of arbitration and composed of two agricultural experts selected by the two parties to the dispute.

A viceregal decree of June 6, 1915, had the same object of relieving the present scarcity of agricultural labor by authorizing the ministry of agriculture to purchase according to existing needs agricultural machinery, to put it at the disposal of agriculturists and to grant premiums and subsidies to societies, associations, and private concerns which with their own machinery and implements undertake the systematic execution of farm labor in the general interest of a specified territory.

One year later, on May 30, 1916, a viceregal decree combined and amended the provisions of the two decrees quoted above, the provisions of the new decree to be effective until the conclusion of peace. The amended decree changed the composition of the arbitral commissions by providing that they should be presided over by a

pretor (judge of a district court) and be composed of four members appointed by the pretor, after consultation with existing agricultural associations, in equal numbers from among agricultural employers and laborers. The decree also established provincial agricultural commissions at the seat of each provincial prefect. The prefect is ex officio president of the commission, which is composed of a representative of the military authorities, the director of the agricultural extension courses or his representative, three representatives of agricultural employers, and three representatives of agricultural labor. The duties of these provincial agricultural commissions are: (1) To ascertain the supply of the available agricultural labor in the various districts of the Province and to estimate the deficiency or excess of this supply; (2) to promote and organize the shifting of labor from one district to another according to requirements; (3) to ascertain the supply of available agricultural machinery in the province and to aid in its best utilization; (4) to promote and encourage by means of instruction and propaganda the greater utilization of female labor; and (5) to keep in contact with like commissions in adjoining Provinces in order to aid the movement of agricultural labor from Province to Province, according to the excess or deficiency of the supply of agricultural labor in the individual provinces.

#### COMPULSORY REPORTING OF GRAIN SUPPLIES.

In connection with numerous decrees relating to seizure and requisitioning of foodstuffs by the military authorities and because the importation of grain became more and more difficult, the Government decided to ascertain the available supply of grain. A viceregal decree of January 8, 1916, made it obligatory for all holders of supplies of wheat and corn in excess of 5 quintals (1,102 pounds) to present on January 25, 1916, to the communal authorities a schedule showing the quantity, quality, and place of storage of these supplies, and also what quantities of wheat and corn the holder of the supplies requires until the next harvest for the use of his family, tenants, and other dependents. These requirements are to be computed on the basis of an allowance of 3 quintals (661 pounds) per person per year. The schedule must further indicate the requirements for seeding and stock feeding purposes.

Holders of supplies who are millers must schedule the quantity needed by them for milling for a period of two months. Communes, other public authorities, and public welfare or charitable institutions must schedule the quantities required for their own service branches or for the attaining of their objects. The decree authorizes the local authorities to institute a search of the premises of the holder whenever a holder of wheat or corn supplies is suspected of



having furnished incorrect schedules. The communal secretary must be notified of all withdrawals of supplies in excess of 5 quintals (1,102 pounds) effected by the holder of the supplies after January 25, 1916. The decree provides that the communal authorities shall forward the schedules, together with a summary of them, to specially established provincial commissions (decree, Jan. 8, 1916, No. 5) for the requisition of cereals.

A viceregal decree of February 20, 1916, made obligatory the filing of schedules of supplies of oats and barley. Holders of any quantity of oats or barley were ordered by the decree to file such schedules with the local communal secretary on March 5, 1916. All stocks without exception are subject to requisition and seizure. The decree states, however, that in case of requisition the authorities will consider the needs of the holder for seeding and stock feeding purposes.

#### MAXIMUM PRICES FOR DOMESTIC WHEAT, CORN, AND FLOUR.

To prevent corners in grain the Government by ministerial decree of January 11, 1916, had fixed maximum prices for domestic wheat and corn requisitioned by the military authorities. These maximum prices per quintal (220.46 pounds) were the following: Soft and semihard wheat, 40 lire (\$7.72); hard wheat, 42 lire (\$8.11); and corn, 29 lire (\$5.60). For imported wheat and corn the requisition price was fixed by the decree to be the cost price f. o. b. elevator plus 1 lire (19.3 cents) per quintal net.

Two months later a viceregal decree of March 11, 1916, made the above maximum prices for domestic wheat and corn also applicable to all private sales. All contracts for the delivery of such grain concluded at higher than the maximum prices are declared void by the decree unless delivery or transfer of title to the grain has been made on or before March 11, 1916. The seller of the grain may, however, insist on delivery and acceptance of the grain contracted for if he reduces the price to the maximum price established by the decree.

The same decree gives to the prefects authority to determine maximum prices for the sale of wheat and corn flour to the public and for that of macaroni, spaghetti, etc., manufactured in establishments situated in their Provinces. These prices shall be fixed for delivery f. o. b. station of origin and on the basis of the maximum price for the grain and of other factors entering into the cost of production. The decree further provides that the price of bread and the forms in which it may be baked shall be determined by the communal council of every community. The prefect is given authority to prohibit exportation of grain from his Province whenever serious reasons require such a measure in the interest of the public.

## NEW MILLING AND BREAD REGULATIONS.

New milling and bread regulations were introduced by a ministerial decree of March 11, 1916. This decree prohibits the milling of any other type of wheat flour than one obtained by milling normal wheat (weighing 77 kilograms [169.75 pounds] per hectoliter and not containing more than 2 per cent impurities) to 85 per cent. This provision is not applicable to hard wheat. Flour designed for the manufacture of bread may not be deprived of other alimentary elements than bran. The manufacture, sale, offering for sale, and furnishing as compensation to dependents of bread manufactured from wheat flour milled to a lesser percentage than that prescribed by the decree is prohibited. The decree permits admixtures of rice and corn flour to wheat flour of the standard type, but provides that such admixtures must be announced by notices posted in the salesroom of the seller. Flour intended for the manufacture of bread, macaroni, spaghetti, etc., may only be stored, sold, or consigned if contained in sealed sacks showing the name of the mill, quality, and destination of the flour, and percentage of milling. Millers and flour dealers must keep a record of all shipments.

## MAXIMUM PRICES FOR SUGAR.

On February 16, 1916, a viceregal decree had reduced the import duty on imported raw and refined sugar and fixed maximum prices for their sale. In correlation with this measure a viceregal decree of March 12, 1916, determined maximum wholesale and retail prices for the sale of sugar manufactured in Italy. The decree made it obligatory for national sugar factories and refineries to sell centrifugal (*pilé*) sugar at not more than 148 lire (\$28.56) per quintal (220.46 pounds) f. o. b. car at shipping point. The decree further provides that within two weeks of its promulgation all communes must fix wholesale and retail prices for sugar as follows: For all sales in quantities in excess of 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds), with the exception of sales by factories and refineries, the maximum price shall be determined by adding to the basic price (factory price) the amount of the local excise tax, the costs of transportation, and 2 lire (36.8 cents) per 100 kilograms. For retail sales in quantities less than 100 kilograms the maximum price shall be determined by adding 7 lire (\$1.35) in place of 2 lire (38.6 cents). The prices for qualities other than centrifugal (*pilé*) shall be determined in relation to the basic price established for the latter.

## MAXIMUM PRICES FOR ALL ARTICLES IN COMMON USE.

The establishment of maximum prices for grain, flour, and sugar was soon followed by establishment of the principle of maximum prices for all necessities. A viceregal decree of April 27, 1916,

effective on the date of its promulgation, authorizes the fixing of maximum prices for articles in common or large use or which are required for agricultural or industrial production. The list of such articles and the maximum prices which may be charged by producers are to be determined from time to time by joint decrees of the ministries of agriculture, industry and commerce, and the interior. The same ministries are to establish norms for the determination of wholesale and retail prices. Any person selling goods for prices higher than the maximum fixed in pursuance of the decree may be fined from two to three times the price received by him. For any repeated contravention of the decree, imprisonment from one month to one year may be added to the fine.\*

If a producer or dealer without good cause refuses to sell his stock of goods at the maximum prices determined by the decree, the prefect or the mayor may seize the stock and sell it at the owner's expense, the quantity required for the owner's personal consumption being, however, reserved for him.

The decree does not affect existing regulations as to military requisition and as to the maximum prices of grain, flour, and sugar. Appeals to the courts or administrative authorities as to prices fixed by joint ministerial decree are not permissible.

#### GENERAL CONTROL OF SUPPLIES BY THE MINISTER OF AGRICULTURE.

The Bulletin of the Italian Labor Office<sup>1</sup> publishes in its semi-monthly issue of August 16, 1916, the text of a viceregal decree dated August 2, 1916, which confers upon the minister of agriculture approximately the same powers which the food controllers were given in Germany, Great Britain, and France in order to facilitate the supply of foodstuffs and other articles of ordinary consumption. Briefly summarized, the provisions of this decree are as follows:

For so long as the war may last the minister of agriculture is empowered, (1) to purchase supplies of which there may be scarcity in the country; (2) to requisition goods for the needs of the public administrations and the civil population, and (if necessary) productive establishments, and to fix prices and compensation for the requisitioned goods; (3) to fix maximum prices for sales to the public in pursuance of the viceregal decree of April 27, 1916 (see p. 733), and to supervise their enforcement; (4) to supply for sale to the public through the local and administrative authorities the goods imported and requisitioned as per 1, 2, and 3; (5) to authorize the establishment of autonomous authorities for the distribution of supplies; (6) to regulate the sale and consumption of goods of which a

<sup>1</sup> Ministero per l'Industria, il Commercio e il Lavoro. Bollettino dell' Ufficio del Lavoro (semimonthly). Rome, Aug. 16, 1916. New series, vol. 4, No. 16, p. 126.

shortage exists; and (7) in general to adopt all necessary steps toward the attainment of the purposes indicated.

The decree provides that the minister of agriculture shall exercise the above powers (1) through the central supply commission and (2) through a temporary department for supplies. The central supply commission shall consist of officials representative of the various Government departments, the director of the temporary department for supplies, commercial experts, and representatives of consumers' organizations, the undersecretary of agriculture to be the president of the commission. The members are appointed by royal decree.

The functions of the central supply commission are (1) the decision of questions relating to the importation and requisitioning of produce and merchandise for the civilian population and the determination of their prices and conditions of sale; (2) the determination of the articles to be subjected to maximum-price regulations, in accordance with the viceregal decree of April 27, 1916, and the scales of such maximum prices; (3) the study and proposal of measures for the facilitation of the provisioning of the country and the prevention of price increases; and (4) the exercise of the functions of the central supply commission created in pursuance of the viceregal decree of January 8, 1916, which is dissolved by the present decree. The central supply commission submits its decisions to the minister of agriculture, who shall take suitable measures.

A "temporary department for supplies" is provided for, to be established in the ministry of agriculture, its personnel to be composed of active and retired Government officials, military officers, and soldiers declared unfit for service at the front, officers of noncombatant corps, and civilian experts, the latter to be appointed for the duration of the war and assume the character, duties, and responsibility of Government officials. This department will take over the functions of the existing temporary grain supply office.

The minister of agriculture may delegate some of the functions conferred upon him by the present decree to provincial prefects, who are authorized to appoint advisory committees composed of four members selected among economic and commercial experts and representatives of consumers, the committee to be presided over by the prefect himself, or the vice prefect.

Subsidiary to the central supply commission two committees are provided for, the first to deal with the acquisition, sale, and transportation of supplies and to decide all questions of administration. Decisions of this committee may within three days of their communication to the minister of agriculture be suspended or annulled by him. The second committee is charged with the settlement of disputes arising from supply measures.

A committee of supervision, composed of three members to be nominated by the ministers of finance and agriculture, acting jointly, is to control finance and account keeping of the "temporary department for supplies," all expenses incurred by the supply service to be charged to the appropriation for the ministry of agriculture.

All purchases of supplies from abroad, such as grain, flour, frozen meat, cattle, sugar, coffee, and in general all foodstuffs and products which are of importance for both the military administration and the civil population, shall be made in pursuance of the provisions of the present decree. The requisition of cereals within the kingdom for the civil population will be effected by the minister of agriculture through the existing provincial commissions in pursuance of the decree of January 8, 1916.

The ministers interested are to adopt measures to coordinate the work of the "temporary department for supplies" with services established for special supplies, the commission for maritime transportation, and the export commission.

The decree authorizes communes to establish autonomous purchasing and distributing organizations conjointly with public-welfare institutions, cooperative associations, and citizens for the purpose of lowering the prices of articles of general consumption. The liability of founders of such organizations is limited to the capital stock subscribed by them. The organizations have the character of legal persons and are subject to the supervision of the prefect who shall examine their financial reports. In case of disputes among the administration of such an organization the prefect may dissolve the administration and appoint a special commission to direct its affairs or dissolve the organization. All autonomous organizations of the character here described shall cease their functions six months after conclusion of peace.

Persons who withhold foodstuffs and other articles from consumption for the purpose of artificially raising prices are made liable to the penalties prescribed by article 293 of the Criminal Code.

The foregoing decree does not apply to purchases of coal in foreign countries, which will be regulated by other provisions.

#### ESTABLISHMENT OF A FOOD SUPPLY COMMISSION AND APPOINTMENT OF A FOOD COMMISSIONER.

A viceregal decree of January 16, 1917, provided that for so long as the war lasts the functions of the Government with respect to the enactment of measures for the regulation of the food supply shall be exercised by a commission composed of the ministers of agriculture, of the interior, and of maritime and railroad transportation, with a commissioner general for food supplies, under this commission.



With respect to food supplies the commissioner general exercises all the functions conferred upon the minister of agriculture by the viceregal decree of August 2, 1916, with the exception of the purchase of supplies, which continues to be the function of the temporary department for supplies. He is directly responsible to the food commission and has authority to issue ordinances for the execution of measures relating to food supplies and to delegate some of his functions to provincial prefects. In cases of urgent necessity he may requisition railroad cars for food transportation.

#### RECENT REGULATIONS FOR THE MANUFACTURE AND SALE OF BREAD.

The most recent regulations for the manufacture and sale of bread issued through the viceregal decree of February 18, 1917, provide that all bread must be baked in smooth, round loaves weighing at least 700 grams (1.543 pounds). This provision is also applicable to homemade bread. The decree prohibits the sale or furnishing of stale bread, i. e., bread older than one day, and the conservation of it by special processes tending to keep it fresh.

The working hours in bakeries are restricted to the hours between 10 a. m., and 9 p. m. The decree permits, however, that one workman in each bakery may work two hours between 6 and 10 a. m. in the preparation of the yeast.

#### FOOD SUPPLY MEASURES OF THE MUNICIPALITIES OF GENOA, MILAN, AND ROME.<sup>1</sup>

##### Genoa.

During the present war the municipality of Genoa, to lower the cost of living and to meet the difficulties caused by the scarcity of foodstuffs, has adopted measures of cooperation with the Government on the basis of authority granted to the city by viceregal decrees, such as establishment of maximum prices for all articles of prime necessity, and measures of a competitive character to curb speculation, by purchasing on its own account certain foodstuffs, such as flour, rice, beans, milk, butter, etc., and selling them directly to the public at moderate prices in the sales places scattered all over the city.

During 1915 the city bought flour from private mills and baked a special type of bread weighing 500 grams (1.102 pounds) which it sold for 50 centesimi (9.6 cents) per kilogram (2.205 pounds). After the beginning of 1916 the city adopted more practical means to supply its population with bread. It contracted with the grain purchasing and milling associations for the delivery of grain and flour and furnished the flour to bakeries at prices lower than the current

<sup>1</sup> "La lotta contro il caro viveri nei comuni di Genova, di Milano e di Roma" in Nuova Antologia, vol. 51, No. 1075. Rome, November, 1916, pp. 97-110.

local market prices, provided that the bakeries agreed to bake from each 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds) of flour, 116 kilograms (355.73 pounds) of bread of good quality in loaves weighing 300 grams (0.671 pound) and to sell it for 53 centesimi (10.2 cents) per kilogram to dealers, and for 56 centesimi (10.8 cents) to consumers. When these contracts expired on June 1, conditions of the flour market had considerably improved and the city therefore discontinued purchases of flour for its own account, but fixed maximum prices for the sale of bread by bakeries to dealers and consumers.

With respect to milk the communal council, up to the end of 1915, had only fixed maximum prices for skim milk, establishing 25 centesimi per liter (4.6 cents per quart) as the price to be paid by the consumer and 20 centesimi per liter (3.7 cents per quart) as that to be charged to retailers. In 1916 the city contracted with the dairy of Locate Triulzi for the daily delivery of at least 60 hectoliters (1,585 gallons) of whole (unskimmed) milk at the price of 25 centesimi per liter (4.6 cents per quart), which price, inclusive of the municipal excise tax of 4 centesimi per liter (0.7 cent per quart), made it possible for the city to sell such milk to consumers for 35 centesimi per liter (6.4 cents per quart). The consumers were greatly satisfied with the quality of the milk furnished by the city and the limited quantity on sale in the city's sales places was every day exhausted at an early hour. The city contracted with the same dairy for the delivery of pure butter of first quality which was sold to consumers in small packages of 100 and 200 grams (0.220 and 0.441 pound).

Other foodstuffs such as rice, flour, beans, sugar, and eggs the city purchased wholesale from producers or jobbers making the most favorable offer, and to facilitate their sale at retail packed them (with the exception of eggs) in small bags holding 1 kilogram (about 2½ pounds). In addition, the city tried to promote the sale of frozen meat. It made arrangements with the ministries of war and agriculture for the direct purchase of frozen meats and sold them to a private market which contracted to sell them in its four sales places at a price specified by the city. The experiment, however, had no success because the taste of the population did not adapt itself to the consumption of frozen meats.

When the viceregal decree of August 2, 1916, had authorized communes to establish autonomous organizations for the purchase and sale of foodstuffs, the city of Genoa established such an organization with the cooperation of the savings bank, the chamber of commerce, and a charitable society. The organization began its activities with a capital stock of 300,000 lire (\$57,900) and took over all the sales places and storage houses of the city together with the fixtures and employees.

## Milan.

The administration which assumed the government of the city of Milan in July, 1914, had inserted in its platform: "Vigorous intervention of the municipal administration with respect to the problems of housing and high cost of living either directly or through strong organizations of a public character. \* \* \*" In accordance with this program the city council, on the very day of its installation, created a new communal department for the supervision of the food supply of the city. As next step, the council, invoking the authority of ancient urban police regulations, fixed a maximum price for the sale of bread, namely, 43 centesimi (8.3 cents) per kilogram (2.2 pounds), representing a reduction of 2 centesimi (0.386 cent) from the prevailing price.

After the outbreak of the European war the municipal administration on August 5, 1914, issued a manifesto informing the citizens of the general scarcity of food supplies and the impending dangers from unscrupulous speculation in foodstuffs, and on the subsequent day the city council proclaimed maximum prices for a number of food articles. At the same time, in cooperation with the National Federation of Cooperative Societies and the Municipal League, it brought pressure to bear upon the National Government with respect to enactment of general measures for food control.

On August 13, 1914, the council voted 800,000 lire (\$154,500) for the immediate purchase of grain by the city. This was the first of a number of large purchases of grain which up to August 31, 1916, totaled 512,233 quintals (56,463 tons) of a value of 20,297,690 lire (\$3,897,454). In addition the city purchased during 1915 flour of a total value of 1,480,519 lire (\$285,740). The flour milled from the grain purchased by the city was sold to cooperative societies and for a certain period also to private bakeries and the bread baked by them was always sold at lower than the maximum price fixed by the city, the difference in price per kilogram being 2 centesimi (0.386 cent) in the case of bread baked by private bakeries and 4 centesimi (0.772 cent) in the case of that baked by cooperative societies. The city could have made a considerable profit because grain prices continued in their upward trend, but it preferred to let its citizens enjoy the full advantage of its purchases. Up to the time of the proclamation of maximum prices by the National Government, prices of grain and flour were in this manner kept at from 4 to 10 centesimi (0.772 to 1.93 cents) lower per kilogram in Milan than in other Italian cities. The total economic gain to the population of Milan up to the end of May, 1916, from the reduced price of bread was estimated at 1,800,000 lire (\$374,400).

Purchase and distribution by the city of lard, rice, macaroni, codfish, potatoes, legumes, oil, cheese, candles, soap, etc., began in 1915, during which year the purchases amounted to 1,665,519 lire (\$321,445). Purchases on a larger scale were made in 1916. Up to the end of August they represented an outlay of 3,881,324 lire (\$749,096), or combined with those of 1915 of 5,546,844 lire (\$1,070,541). These purchases were not made directly by the municipality. The municipal administration, without renouncing the management of these purchases, charged the Cooperative Union with the making of purchases of such articles which from time to time it seemed desirable to put on the market, and the storage of the purchased articles and their consignment to cooperative societies on presentation of municipal vouchers, these societies effecting the sale at retail to the consumer. For these services the Cooperative Union receives a modest commission. By means of this system the municipality had at its service experienced buyers for the purchase of the various articles and suitable organs for their sale. The cooperative stores effected the sale of these articles at prices  $6\frac{1}{2}$  per cent below the maximum prices established by municipal ordinance. In this manner consumers patronizing these stores made a saving of about 300,000 lire (\$57,900) above and beyond the saving caused by the establishment of maximum prices.

After protracted negotiations and careful preparation of a contract the city on July 16, 1916, contracted with a firm of meat importers for the delivery in five shipments—the first shipment to serve as trial—of 6,000 metric tons (6,613.8 tons) of Brazilian frozen meat from best grade steers 3 to 5 years old. When the first shipment arrived the city had in readiness 22 shops for the sale of the frozen meat to the public. The prices at which the meat was sold to the public were considerably lower than the maximum prices established by the city for fresh meats, and notwithstanding great agitation by local butchers against the purchase of frozen meats, these meats soon found favor with the public and the municipal shops did a thriving business. The local market for fresh meats reacted vigorously, partly because of the competition of frozen meats and partly because there was a larger offer of live stock on account of lack of fodder. As a consequence the prices of fresh meat soon fell 0.50 to 1.20 lire per kilogram (4.4 to 10.6 cents per pound), according to quality.

In agreement with the municipal administration the military administration established in Milan by way of an experiment a refrigerator plant for beef, the frozen meat being shipped to the war zone. From 100 to 200 head of cattle were daily slaughtered in the local abattoir to supply this plant with beef. All by-products from the slaughter of these cattle, with the exception of lard and hides, i. e., the head with tongue and brain, the tripe, lungs, liver, heart,

legs, etc., were for proper compensation delivered to the city, which sold them at very low prices in the municipal shops.

In order to supply its population with fish at moderate prices the municipality concluded with the National Labor Committee, which had fitted out a large fishing fleet in the Mediterranean Sea, a contract for the delivery of about 6,000 kilograms (13,228 pounds) of fish per week. The prices agreed upon permitted the municipality to sell the fish at the following prices: 3.50 to 4.50 lire per kilogram (30.7 to 39.4 cents per pound) for first quality, 1.50 to 2.50 lire (13.2 to 21.9 cents per pound) for second quality, and 0.90 to 1.20 lire (7.9 to 10.6 cents per pound) for third quality. In addition the municipality sold live carps from near-by lakes at from 1.60 to 1.70 lire per kilogram (14 to 14.9 cents per pound). Three fish markets had been opened by the city up to November, 1916, and in case of good public patronage it was proposed to open additional markets and to sell also various sea foods and varieties of fresh-water fish.

#### Rome.

Establishment of maximum prices for articles of general consumption was not deemed suitable by the municipal administration of Rome as a means for lowering the high cost of living. The administration contended that maximum prices are either evaded by subterfuges of the interested parties or, if they are observed, they generally cause a decrease in the offerings in urban markets. Guided by this view the administration decided to handle the problems of food supply and high cost of living by entering the market in competition with private dealers and throwing on the market a larger quantity of the principal foodstuffs in a ratio of about one-third of the general consumption.

Even before the outbreak of the European war the municipal administration of Rome intervened in the sale of flour in order to maintain low prices for this important foodstuff. The administration was convinced that low prices for flour and bread are in themselves important factors in keeping the prices of all other foodstuffs at a low level. The administration began its activities in this respect by buying large quantities of flour from private mills. Later on it established municipal mills and bakeries, which were operated profitably and turned out a better product than private mills. At present the city operates 160 municipal bakeries. For an entire year the bread produced by these bakeries was sold at 42 centesimi per kilogram (3.7 cents per pound), during the subsequent six months at from 42 to 45 centesimi (3.7 to 3.9 cents per pound), and at present at from 40 to 45 centesimi per kilogram (3.5 to 3.9 cents per pound), according to the weight of the loaves.



The city has also put on sale large quantities of macaroni, spaghetti, noodles, rice, beans, etc., by selling them either directly to the consumer or by selling them to dealers obligated to maintain the prices fixed by the city. Potatoes were stored by the city in large quantities and sold either in municipal shops or offered in the public retail and wholesale markets whenever these markets showed a tendency to increase the price of potatoes. This policy caused the city a loss of about 4,000 lire (\$772), but, on the other hand, had the desired effect of limiting the profits of dealers. To quote only one example, several months ago two carloads of potatoes sold by the city in the central market caused the wholesale price to drop from 21 lire to 14 lire per 100 kilograms. The retail price has always been maintained at 15 centesimi per kilogram (1.32 cents per pound).

The city has made several experiments to popularize the consumption of frozen meats, but has met with small success. This is in part due to the present high prices of frozen meats and partly to the fact that the public taste has not yet adapted itself to their consumption. So far the city is operating 14 meat markets, in which meat is sold at 2.10, 2.70, and 3.60 lire per kilogram (18.4, 23.6, and 31.6 cents per pound), according to cut.

Confronted with higher prices and a deficiency in the supply of milk, the city is now daily importing 12,000 liters (12,680 quarts) from Lombardy. This milk is pasteurized in a municipal plant and sold to the public through pushcarts. Large purchases of eggs enabled the city to sell as many as 80,000 eggs per day in the municipal shops at a price considerably lower than that charged in the markets by private dealers.

As a result of all these economic measures by the city since the outbreak of the war the average cost of foodstuffs has only increased 18 per cent. According to the bulletin of the Italian labor office this increase is smaller than in any other large city of Italy.

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#### WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LEGISLATION OF 1917: NEW MEXICO.

Although one-third of the States of the Union remained without compensation legislation at the beginning of this year, it was not to be expected that the number of new laws would come up to the activities of other years when, as at this time, the great majority of the legislatures of the States are in session, since the active interest in the subject in the remaining States has not been the same as in the more largely industrial States of the North and in those Western States which, though largely agricultural, have shown greater readiness in adopting new legislative methods and ideas. Ten States enacted original laws in 1911, 7 in 1913, and 9 in 1915. In 1917, with but slight possibility of additions, new laws have been enacted in five

States not heretofore having laws, while the Texas Legislature is reported to have provided a substitute for the former law of that State. The States for which reports, for the most part unofficial, have been received, indicating that laws have been signed by their governors, are Delaware, Idaho, New Mexico, South Dakota, and Utah. Various amendatory and supplemental laws are also known to have been passed, but the nature of these amendments is only partially known.

The only new law yet received is that of New Mexico, chapter 83, Acts of 1917, approved March 13, and to take effect 90 days after the adjournment of the legislature. Compensation is elective for a group of extra hazardous industries, the list given being rather inclusive, with a restriction to establishments in which four or more persons are employed. However, if a person is injured while at work on a derrick, scaffold, or the like 10 or more feet above ground the act applies without regard to the number of employees. Employers and workmen in other occupations than those classed as extra hazardous may come under the act by a joint written agreement filed with the district court of the county. No mention is made of public employment. The election of the act by employers and employees in extra hazardous occupations is presumed in the absence of a written notice from either party to the other. Elections may be changed on 30 days' notice. Employers rejecting the act lose the defenses of contributory negligence, fellow service, and assumed risks.

The entire burden of payment falls on the employer, and all employees in the included industries are benefited except those purely casual and not for the purpose of the employer's trade or business. The injury must be accidental, must arise out of and in the course of employment, and must cause death or disability for more than three weeks. No benefits are payable if the injury is due to the intoxication of the injured man or willfully suffered by him or intentionally inflicted by himself or another.

Insurance is obligatory unless other guaranties are given or the judge of the district court of the county exempts an employer on a showing of his financial responsibility. Insurance policies must be directly available for the benefit of the employee.

Benefits include funeral expenses in case of death, the amount being limited to \$50, and medical and hospital expenses during the first three weeks limited to a like sum.

Total disability is compensated on a basis of 50 per cent of the injured person's earnings, weekly payments not to exceed \$10 nor to be less than \$5 per week unless the earnings are less than \$5, when the full amount shall be paid. The term of payment shall not exceed 520 weeks. A schedule for permanent partial disabilities is enacted

giving 50 per cent of the wages for various periods ranging from 3 weeks to 150 weeks for specific injuries. Special rules are given as to hernia and infection not due to the neglect or misconduct of the injured person. Persistence in insanitary or injurious practices likely to impair or retard recovery or refusal to submit to reasonably essential medical or surgical treatment gives ground for reduction or suspension of compensation.

Death benefits are available for the widow, dependent widower, children, dependent parents, and dependent brothers and sisters under the age of 18. The surviving spouse alone receives 40 per cent of the earnings, not over \$10 a week, with 5 per cent additional for each child, the total not to exceed 60 per cent. For one or two orphan children 25 per cent is allowed, with 10 per cent for each additional child above two, the total not to exceed 60 per cent. The earnings upon which payments are based are not to be taken as above \$30 per week. Death benefits are limited to 300 weeks, and terminate on the remarriage of a widow or widower, upon a minor dependent becoming 18 years of age (unless physically or mentally incapacitated), upon the death or adoption of any dependent, or upon a dependent child becoming self-supporting before reaching the age of 18. Children reaching the age of 18 who are incompetent to earn a livelihood may continue to receive payments for the statutory period. Nonresident alien beneficiaries are excluded.

The act is to be administered entirely by the district courts of the counties, with whom notices and claims are to be filed, as well as proper guaranties for the security of benefits. Appeals lie to the supreme court.

Medical examination of persons in receipt of benefits may be had at any time at the instance of the employer, and the court may revise awards according to the results. The statute also provides for medical examinations to determine the physical condition of employees either on their engagement for service or at any time thereafter, and further that the employee must on request furnish a list of his relations and dependents.

#### SOME ASPECTS OF HEALTH INSURANCE.

The March, 1917, issue of the American Labor Legislation Review is devoted almost entirely to health insurance.<sup>1</sup> It includes articles on The Need for Health Insurance, by Irving Fisher, of Yale University, and president of the American Association for Labor Legislation; Public Protection of Maternity, by Julia C. Lathrop, Chief

<sup>1</sup> The American Labor Legislation Review, March, 1917, published by the American Association for Labor Legislation, 131 East Twenty-third Street, New York City. Price, \$1. Pp. 9-135.

of the United States Children's Bureau; Medical Organization Under Health Insurance, by Dr. Alexander Lambert, chairman of the social insurance committee of the American Medical Association; Health Insurance Through Local Mutual Funds, by I. M. Rubinow, secretary of the social insurance committee of the American Medical Association; Fraternal Societies Under Universal Health Insurance, by John J. Lentz, president of the American Insurance Union; Establishment Funds and Universal Health Insurance, by Edmund N. Huyck, of F. C. Huyck & Sons, Albany, N. Y.; Trade-Union Sick Funds and Compulsory Health Insurance, by William Green, secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America; and Principles of Health Insurance, by Miles M. Dawson, consulting actuary. The volume also includes the minutes of the tenth annual session of the American Association for Labor Legislation, held at Columbus, Ohio, in December last, at which the addresses above cited were given, and also a record of indorsements of health insurance by the California and Massachusetts commissions appointed to investigate the subject and by governors of five States in messages to their respective legislatures.

Two of these papers, the one on *The Need for Health Insurance*, which recites briefly the arguments in favor of such legislation, and the one by Edmund N. Huyck, were noted in the *MONTHLY REVIEW* for April (pp. 513 and 518, respectively), but it may not be amiss to quote the concluding paragraph of Prof. Fisher's paper, since it states in concise form what health-insurance legislation proposes to accomplish:

We conclude that health insurance is needed in the United States in order to tide the workers over the grave emergencies incident to illness as well as in order to reduce illness itself, lengthen life, abate poverty, improve working power, raise the wage level, and diminish the causes of industrial discontent. It is not a panacea. It will not bring the millenium. But there is no other measure now before the public which equals the power of health insurance toward social regeneration.

One of the features of the standard bill for health insurance drafted by the American Association for Labor Legislation is a provision for the protection of maternity and the consequent reduction of mortality from childbirth and the assurance of healthy infancy and childhood. This phase of health insurance was discussed by Julia C. Lathrop, Chief of the United States Children's Bureau, who pointed out the fact that large numbers of women die from conditions caused by childbirth, many of which are preventable if proper care is taken, but which can not be avoided because of insufficient income. Such cases the maternity benefit, which it is proposed to make available only to those with incomes of not exceeding \$100 per month, would materially assist and operate to save the lives of thousands of mothers and children.

The protection of maternity is a public question which can not longer be evaded. \* \* \* No system of health insurance is complete which ignores maternity insurance, yet apparently no system of health insurance can independently furnish adequate funds and equipment. Study and experiment should begin at once.

An argument advanced in favor of health insurance is that it will provide medical attendance for those now unable to obtain it—for the 50 per cent among the middle class and the 68 per cent in the poorer class of people who now receive inadequate care in times of illness.<sup>1</sup> Dr. Lambert, in a paper on medical organization under health insurance, stated that the service rendered by the medical profession in this connection must be on a business and not on a charitable basis; that health insurance contemplates the concentration of authority and the distribution of funds in local control; that under the provisions of the proposed law special medical referees shall be appointed for each fund whose duty it shall be to supervise the sick and to decide when the insured shall receive sick benefits and when the sick are well enough to go back to work; that patients shall be given the right to choice of physician; that all possible disputes between panel physicians and the funds or between patients and the funds shall be safeguarded by arbitration committees; that a State medical advisory board shall pass upon all regulations relating to medical benefits and the relations of physicians and surgeons to the insured; that the field of preventive medicine and sanitation will be broadened; and that there shall be a central State health-insurance commission as the ultimate authority. As to the remuneration of physicians under the law, four plans are noted, namely, by capitation, the doctor being paid so much per patient per year; by visitation, the regular charge for visits to patients being made and paid for by the fund; by a variation or combination of these two; and by fixed salaries. Objections to the first three were cited and some advantages stated, but none was specifically recommended.

The discussion which followed these papers developed considerable sentiment in favor of more general publicity and education of the people, of employers, and of physicians along the lines proposed before any definite legislative action should be taken. Some favored the appointment of a commission to study the matter thoroughly for a year or more, while others thought that further investigation is unnecessary, since "the point has already been reached beyond which mere investigation will reveal nothing new."

Important as a problem in health insurance is that of insurance organizations, and one phase of this subject—local mutual funds—was discussed by I. M. Rubinow, who favored this form because the mutual principle has the advantage of precedent, of economy, and

<sup>1</sup> Based on an investigation made in Rochester, N. Y., by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.



of making risk selection unnecessary; its local feature has the advantage of economy of administration, of effective democracy instead of a purely formal one, and in organization of medical aid and influences upon sanitation and public health; and because it recognizes the principle of democratic self-government. It was made clear, however, that by favoring local mutual funds it was not the intention to disparage the fraternal or trade-union funds or the establishment fund, each of which was considered in subsequent papers.

John J. Lentz, president of the American Insurance Union, spoke on behalf of funds operated by fraternal societies, and said that such organizations will "gladly assist in providing a system wherein the State will look upon its citizens as a universal brotherhood. On the side of economy as well as on the side of humanity no fraternalist can afford to place any obstruction under the wheels of this car of progress."

Attempts to provide forms of health insurance have been made by trade-unions, but, according to William Green, secretary-treasurer of the United Mine Workers of America, the burden put upon these voluntary organizations of taking care of workers has proved so great and the expense incident thereto so nearly prohibitive, that trade-unions stand ready to accept health insurance as a welcome measure of relief.

There is no good reason why the care of the sick, the aged, and the disabled among the working classes should be borne by the working people alone. Industry and society at large should both be required to bear their share of this burden.

Health insurance accomplishes this result. Men prominent in trade-unionism have objected to the principle on the ground that compulsory health insurance interferes with the freedom of the worker and curtails his normal activities, but when analyzed in the light of what the proposed health insurance law contemplates this objection does not appear to be well founded. Mr. Green strongly emphasized the undesirability of allowing liability insurance companies to participate in the operation of health insurance. "The commercial element should in no way whatsoever enter into the consideration or administration of such humane laws."

The concluding paper on the principles of health insurance reviewed briefly what the standard bill proposes to accomplish for the benefit of employers and workingmen. One question discussed in this paper was the compulsory feature of the bill, the following reasons for which were given:

1. Because it is essentially a public matter. \* \* \*
2. Because by no other means can more than a small number be reached.  
\* \* \*
3. Because those who are not reached by voluntary insurance—the careless, the indifferent, the impoverished—are precisely those who need the protection

most and whose care is the most important for all of us, to prevent the spread of disease and to improve the longevity and the efficiency of workmen.

4. Because by this means only can a coherent, consistent, fairly administered system be operated, surely bringing the benefits, both cash and medical, to all who should have them.

5. Because it is enormously more economical, as well as efficient in operation, and gives maximum benefits at minimum cost.

6. Because if not compulsory the workmen's insurance binds him to his job while the unenlightened employer who refuses to contribute seems to have an advantage; that is not well for employer or the employee. The insurance should follow the employee as long as he keeps within the domicile, and all employers should contribute ratably.

7. Because upon no basis other than compulsion can the general social purposes be served or the State's contribution be justified. \* \* \*

#### IS COMPULSORY HEALTH INSURANCE NECESSARY?

The preceding consideration of health insurance is based upon the assumption that such a policy, under the stimulus of legislative enactment, is absolutely necessary to the well-being of workers, and that the proposed bills now pending in several State legislatures should be placed on the statute books without delay. But is compulsory health insurance necessary? Mr. Magnus W. Alexander, General Electric Co., West Lynn, Mass., in a pamphlet giving some facts and considerations touching on this subject, aims to show that it is not essential in our present social scheme.<sup>1</sup> He states at the outset that these measures center around the claim that high sickness and high death rates prevail among American wage earners; that the average wage earner, when sick, is unable to meet the expense of proper medical care and the needs of his dependents; and that existing agencies can not provide adequate relief. While admitting the need for the conservation of the health of our people, he is not willing to concede that the proposed legislation will adequately or economically meet the situation.

If it is true that health conditions in the United States are excessively bad, that the death rate is abnormally high, that a large proportion of our people have not resources wherewith to conserve their health or, when sick, to secure adequate medical service; and if it is further found that care of the sick by legislative compulsion is conducive to the public good, then—but not until then—does the proposed health-insurance legislation merit serious consideration.

The author then undertakes to show by statistical data that health conditions among all classes of people in the United States, and in other countries which have no compulsory health-insurance laws, are superior to the health conditions in those countries where compulsory health-insurance laws are most in evidence; that health con-

<sup>1</sup> Some vital facts and considerations in respect to compulsory health insurance, March, 1917, by Magnus W. Alexander, West Lynn, Mass., substantially as presented at legislative hearings in New York State and in Massachusetts on Mar. 7, and Mar. 13, 1917, respectively. 15 pp.

ditions among wage earners in this country are practically on a par with health conditions among our people generally; that American wage earners in general are not only able to save money for sickness and other emergencies but to deposit it at interest or to invest it for home building and other good purposes; that comparatively few wage earners, because of the help of relatives and friends, coupled with their own habits of thrift, are without aid in time of sickness; and that health-insurance laws will not only not increase the efficiency of our people and strengthen the resources of the country, but will, as seems to be the case in foreign countries, develop in the people a "tendency to play sick" and "develop in thousands of workers a very prominent wishbone to the detriment of their backbone." The cost of the compulsory health-insurance plan, varying from 4 per cent to over 6 per cent of the pay roll of insured employees, is noted. It is questioned whether it is advisable to place on wage earners and the industries in which they are employed this enormous burden, since there is some doubt as to whether the "promised alluring social advantages of the proposed law [are] commensurate with the vast expenditure of money involved, a considerable part of which would flow into unproductive channels of governmental machinery for maintenance of a complicated system, apt to be rendered especially inefficient in our country through political influence and interference."

But before legislative efforts along this line are matured, it seems wise to take effective measures to find out how much preventable disease exists, what its character is, where it flourishes, what causes it, and how it can be prevented. If this is done thoroughly, the foundation will be provided "on which health-betterment measures could be based with a satisfactory degree of accuracy."

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#### OPPOSITION TO HEALTH INSURANCE.

Opposition to so-called "class legislation" by wage earners and employers was voiced in four addresses and in the general discussion following, at the social insurance department session of the seventeenth annual meeting of the National Civic Federation, held in New York City on January 22, 1917.<sup>1</sup> Compulsory health insurance was the matter under consideration. The opening paper was submitted by President Samuel Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, who declared that the organized-labor movement provides greater

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<sup>1</sup> Compulsory Health Insurance. Annual meeting addresses, the National Civic Federation, under auspices social insurance department, Hotel Astor, New York City, Jan. 22, 1917. Opposition to "class legislation" by elements principally concerned—wage earners and employers. 74 pp. Headquarters, thirty-third floor Metropolitan Tower, New York City.

and more lasting benefits for the workingman than social insurance, including compulsory health insurance, which "only provides the means for tiding over an emergency," and which, in his opinion, is undemocratic, weakens independence of spirit, delegates to outside authorities some of the powers and opportunities that rightfully belong to wage earners, and breaks down industrial freedom by exercising control over workers through a central bureaucracy.

Warren S. Stone, grand chief of the International Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, opposed compulsory health insurance on the ground partly that voluntary forms of insurance furnish adequate protection to wage earners and that laborers are not looking for paternalism but for a living wage which it is hoped will enable them to protect themselves against sickness and disease. One strong objection to social insurance, in Mr. Stone's opinion, is that it would, by Government regulation, cause a division of the workers into two groups—those eligible for benefits and those considered capable of caring for themselves according to their wage-earning capacity. He emphasized the well-known arguments against health insurance, that the law could not be enforced without the aid of police power, that it would interfere with the economic freedom of workers, that the burden of cost would fall upon labor irrespective of the tax upon industry, that labor does not want health insurance, that it is not necessary as a means of stimulating preventive measures, that it has not decreased poverty where tried and would not in this country, and that the eradication of the agencies which cause industrial diseases would eliminate the need for health insurance. He cited instances to show that trade-unions have met the situation adequately, reducing disease and sickness by causing improvements in sanitation and by better hours, and that voluntary agencies providing sickness insurance funds have achieved more good for the workers than would be effected by any other form of insurance.

While not defining the official attitude of the National Association of Manufacturers, A. Parker Nevin, general counsel for the association, personally took the position that health insurance is un-American and that "democracy, even with less efficiency [is to be] preferred to foreign bureaucracy."

In the general discussion which followed a paper by Dr. Frederick L. Hoffman<sup>1</sup> on "Some facts and fallacies of social insurance," the experiences of labor organizations which have maintained sickness insurance and of executives of employers' sickness insurance funds were outlined. Hugh Frayne, organizer for the American Federation of Labor, spoke of the effectiveness of trade-union funds and

<sup>1</sup> An extended review of this address is given in this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW, p. 754.

protested against health insurance legislation, stating that "the root of the evil is in the industrial conditions."

Charles G. Du Bois, comptroller of the American Telephone & Telegraph Co., described the sickness-insurance experience of the Bell Telephone System, where the funds are contributed entirely by the companies. Benefits begin seven days after illness commences, and the period for which they are paid depends upon the length of service with the company. No death benefit can exceed \$2,000. In 1915 there were about 15,000 cases of sickness among 80,000 eligible employees, and 162 deaths among 40,000 eligible to death benefits. The total benefits paid in all cases amounted to \$840,000. In these companies the position is taken that the cost of sickness insurance is a legitimate tax on the industry.

In the Celluloid Co. (Newark, N. J.) health insurance has been in operation for 15 years and is based upon a contributory plan, according to S. T. Simmonds, welfare manager. Employees under 50 years of age may insure upon passing a physical examination, and they contribute 2 cents weekly on each dollar of weekly benefits desired, 2 cents weekly on \$50 and 4 cents weekly on \$100 death benefit, and 2 cents weekly for the services of a visiting physician. Insurance is not compulsory, but it is believed should be made so, since "it is those whose dependents stand most in need of financial aid who will not provide against emergencies."

Health and unemployment insurance and old-age pensions, as provided by the photo-engravers and other unions were discussed by Peter J. Brady, president of the New York State Allied Printing Trades Council. He vigorously opposed health insurance legislation and suggested instead that children of wage earners be given better opportunity for helping themselves.

The General Electric Co. maintains a voluntary mutual benefit association, the functions and administrative features of which were described by M. W. Alexander. Membership dues, after an initial payment of 50 cents, are 10 cents per week, which entitle the beneficiary to—

(a) Weekly disability benefits of \$6 for men and \$5 for women, payable for the second and subsequent weeks of disability but limited to 14 weekly benefits in any 12 months; yet payable again in the second and following years in case of continued disability;

(b) Life insurance of \$200, of which half is paid by the association and half by the company;

(c) Emergency benefits in addition to regular benefits, payable in such amount and manner as the emergency fund committee may decide; and

(d) Temporary loans at no interest charge or other extra cost.

The sickness-insurance plan of the Consolidated Gas Co. of New York City, as outlined by W. D. Kelley, is voluntary, the employees being grouped on the basis of their weekly wages and receiving



approximately 80 per cent of their regular pay for 26 weeks in any 52 consecutive weeks. The weekly dues are on a sliding scale, based on the wages received, and range from 1 cent to 20 cents. During 1916, cash benefits were paid to 988, or 38.2 per cent, of the employees in the fund, 10,123 visits were made upon members by the company's doctors, and the amount of benefits paid was \$36,371.55, or an average of \$36.81 each.

The secretary of the employees' benefit fund committee of the Western Union Telegraph Co., F. T. Albert, stated that their plan is essentially the same as that of the American Telephone & Telegraph Co., and that it "has proved of great benefit not only to the employees but to the company." During four years about 5,000 employees have participated in the sickness disability benefits, the aggregate amount of which was \$429,000, or about \$86 per employee. In 287 death claims \$208,000 has been paid.

Timothy Healey, international president of the Stationary Firemen's Union, stated emphatically that organized labor in general opposes compulsory health insurance, and offered a resolution putting the National Civic Federation, "composed of representatives of organized labor, organized industry, and the interests of the general public," on record as "opposed to the contemplated legislation with reference to compulsory health insurance as inimical to the best interests, present and future, of the workers of the Nation."<sup>1</sup>

The general economic and social phases of social insurance were taken up briefly by John Franklin Crowell, executive officer of the Chamber of Commerce of New York State, who indorsed the principle of social insurance but objected strongly to permitting the Government to have any part in it, declaring that the benefits of social insurance are being secured by the activities of employers themselves.

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#### FACTS AND FALLACIES OF COMPULSORY HEALTH INSURANCE.

Characterizing compulsory health insurance as a propaganda for State socialism and class legislation, representing the plans and purposes of the international social movement rather than the aims and ideals of the overwhelming majority of American wage earners, whether organized or unorganized, and asserting that it is inimical to labor welfare and the best interests of the people at large, since it "is not in fact a plan or system of insurance but it is essentially a measure of arbitrary taxation," Frederick L. Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Co. of America, and a strong opponent of what he calls "conditional poor relief," gives in a pamphlet en-

<sup>1</sup> There appears to be no record that the resolution was adopted or even voted upon.

titled "Facts and Fallacies of Compulsory Health Insurance" some reasons why he believes the movement is "artificial, ill-advised, and un-American."<sup>1</sup> In vigorous language he maintains that those who are seeking this legislation, particularly the American Association for Labor Legislation, the provisions of whose standard bill was noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW for October, 1916 (pp. 472-475), are disseminating arguments of an "untrustworthy character" and statements which are "untimely and misleading." Taking up specifically some of the claims that are made, he proceeds to point out wherein they are a "persistent reiteration of socialistic fallacies in plain and emphatic contradiction to the facts of actual and extended experience." Some stress is laid upon the study made by the Fabian Research Department in England, which, in its interim report, "proves conclusively that while, as a relief measure, national health insurance may have been of value to the poor, the anticipated medical and public health benefits have not been realized."

An exceedingly suggestive conclusion, arrived at early in the inquiry, was "the astounding fact that in spite of the provisions of the statute and notwithstanding the unexpectedly large sum which is being spent, it is, on the whole, for only the minor ailments of the insured person that medical treatment is being provided under the act."

Having outlined briefly the general considerations entering into his opposition to compulsory health insurance, the writer gives detailed attention to its relation to medical practice, to public health,<sup>2</sup> and to labor and voluntary thrift. Apparently authoritative sources are quoted to show "that the establishment of compulsory sickness insurance in Germany, or of national health insurance in Great Britain has not improved the status of the medical profession; but, quite the contrary, it has thoroughly demoralized medical practice," and it is believed that the administrative features of the proposed plan contemplate the "establishment and organization of what would be the equivalent of a medical bureaucracy." Inadequate facilities for medical treatment, overworked doctors, delays in payment for services of panel physicians, burdening the doctor with clerical duties, and the encouragement of fraudulent practices and pecuniary inducements to malingering would seem, from statements made by the author, to be logical results of compulsory health insurance in operation in this country.

<sup>1</sup> Facts and Fallacies of Compulsory Health Insurance, by Frederick L. Hoffman. An address read in part before the section on social and economic science of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Dec. 28, 1916, and the National Civic Federation, Jan. 22, 1917. Prudential Press, Newark, N. J., 1917. 101 pp.

<sup>2</sup> This phase of the subject is also discussed by the author in an article entitled "Public Health Progress under Social Insurance," appearing in the February, 1917, issue of the Insurance and Commercial Magazine, 153 East Eighteenth Street, New York City.

It has been asserted by the champions of compulsory health insurance that "high sickness and death rates are prevalent among American wage earners"; that "deaths from degenerative diseases are rapidly increasing"; and that "progress in the crusade against tuberculosis is attributed by German authorities more to the industrial-insurance laws than to any other cause." Health-insurance laws in this country would, it is claimed, lower the death rates for these diseases and prove an effective measure against tuberculosis, as appears to have been the case in Germany. These statements, however, are regarded as misleading and incorrect.

During the year 1915 the death rate of the United States registration area was the lowest on record, and this record may safely be assumed as evidence of a relatively small amount of serious illness.

As to degenerative diseases, it is stated that the mortality rate in 1910 to 1914 among people of all ages in the 10 original registration States increased over the period 1900 to 1904 from 46.35 to 49.42 per 10,000 of population, indicating to the author that deaths from these diseases are not "rapidly increasing."

Taking up the argument that compulsory health insurance would act to prevent tuberculosis, it is stated that the death rate for this disease in Massachusetts has been reduced from 43.1 per 10,000 of population in 1865 to 37.7 in 1885, to 21.4 in 1905, and to 13.9 in 1914, while during 1913 the tuberculosis death rate of Prussia was 13.7 per 10,000, "notwithstanding nearly 30 years of compulsory social insurance." It appears that the mortality was reduced in Prussia, 1913 as compared with 1890, 51 per cent, while the per cent of reduction in Massachusetts covering the same period was 57.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup> The article by the same author, referred to in footnote on p. 753, presents three tables showing for the years 1890 to 1894 and 1908 to 1912, for selected places in the United States and Germany, the comparative mortality from all causes, from tuberculosis, and from typhoid fever. The first table indicates a higher death rate in Prussia than in Massachusetts and in Baden than in New Jersey, but a slightly lower death rate in Berlin than in New York City and in Leipzig than in Newark.

"Considering the enormous influx of foreign population into the eastern portion of the United States during the last 20 years, these results are gratifying evidence of perhaps the most remarkable achievements in the history of sanitary reform."

The showing as to pulmonary tuberculosis for the two 5-year periods is not quite so favorable to the United States, but attention is called to the fact that considering the excessive death rates prevailing in this country 25 years ago the relative reduction in the rates has been more pronounced in the United States than in Germany.

"For illustration, the tuberculosis death rate of Massachusetts, without social insurance, was reduced 13.8 per 10,000 during the period under consideration, against a corresponding reduction of only 10.4 per 10,000 for the Kingdom of Prussia. The tuberculosis mortality of New York City was reduced 9 per 10,000 against 8.8 for the city of Berlin. The tuberculosis mortality rate of Newark was reduced 13.5 per 10,000 against 10.2 for the city of Leipzig, notwithstanding the fact that Leipzig is generally referred to as the city in which, on account of the long-continued operations of the Leipzig central sick fund, the effects on public health are alleged to have been prodigious."

The figures as to typhoid fever indicate conditions even more unfavorable to the United States, and would seem to strengthen the argument that under social insurance Germany has succeeded in reducing the mortality from typhoid fever. But, explains the writer, "during the last 20 years a truly enormous reduction has been achieved as the result of far-reaching sanitary efforts without any reference whatever to social insurance."

The matter of the cost of compulsory health insurance is touched upon, the belief being that it would be so enormous that the American people would not "tolerate the establishment of such an elaborate bureaucratic machine as is proposed under the standard health insurance bill."

One of the declared purposes of health insurance is to place adequate medical relief within the reach of even the lowest wageworker and provide for him and his family during sickness, but according to the writer of this pamphlet this has not resulted either in England or in Germany.

The tragedy of the national health insurance act of England is that it has not improved the condition of the poor, but that the benefits have accrued to those least urgently in need of pecuniary assistance and free medical treatment; for, as well said in the report of the Fabian research department, the vast multitude brought within the operations of the national health insurance act "were already providing what was requisite for themselves."

The principle of voluntary thrift is commended and figures are given showing the extent to which it has been developed in this country. Similarly the progress of voluntary agencies serving social insurance purposes is suggested, special reference being made to the trade-union sickness funds and to the success of establishment funds, which it has been claimed can not meet the needs or purposes which the proposed system of compulsory health insurance is intended to serve. All through this portion of the pamphlet the purpose is to show that compulsory health insurance would discourage thrift, interfere with the independence of workers, and that it is not needed or desired by them.

The conclusions reached by the writer are summarized in several pages, which set forth also some "practical suggestions" to be borne in mind in considering the entire compulsory health insurance problem. The following excerpts from the concluding chapter summarize the more important findings of the author:

A critical and partial analysis of the most forcible arguments which have been advanced in favor of compulsory health insurance completely disproves all the essential assertions and allegations concerning the urgency, practical necessity, and political expediency of such legislation at the present time.

The propaganda throughout rests upon seriously misleading assertions and allegations concerning the economic condition of American labor, the insufficiency of average incomes for such medical requirements as may arise, the inadequacy of existing facilities for medical aid, and the prevailing rate of sickness in industry, all of which are contrary to common knowledge and the statistical facts which are a matter of official record.

Compulsory health insurance is strongly opposed by organized labor as represented by the American Federation of Labor, by many State labor organizations, and other important labor interests, whether organized or not.

Compulsory health insurance is strongly opposed by business interests as visionary, dangerous, and unnecessary class legislation unquestionably inimical

to the future of American industry and the general welfare of the wage earners employed therein.

Compulsory health insurance has not been officially approved or indorsed by either the American Medical Association or the American Public Health Association \* \* \*.

Compulsory health insurance is generally approved of by those who are chiefly concerned with the problems and needs of the poor in large cities, but who are more or less out of touch with the social and economic problems of labor and industry.

The alarming assertions regarding the alleged physical deterioration of the American people are grossly misleading and contrary to the facts, which prove that in the registration area of the United States there has been no very marked increase in the mortality from preventable degenerative diseases during the working period of adult life.

To the extent that industries or occupations predispose to physical infirmity and premature death, the solution of the problem lies largely in the direction of adequate compensation for such diseases in conformity to well-considered modern workmen's compensation laws.

The assertions and allegations regarding the remarkable health progress of Germany, attributable to social insurance, are contradicted by the fact that the sanitary advancement of the United States had been fully as satisfactory and possibly even more so as regards tuberculosis and infant mortality.

The assertions and allegations regarding the extraordinary social progress of German wage earners under social insurance, and in consequence thereof, are contradicted by the extremely suggestive fact that the adult death rate of Berlin during the last 30 years has remained practically stationary, and that during the last 15 years there has been a decided increase in the Berlin suicide rate, in contrast to a marked decline in the suicide rate of the city of New York.

It is \* \* \* seriously misleading to assert that compulsory health insurance is primarily a health measure, since, as a matter of fact and record, it is essentially a method of providing pecuniary relief during sickness, which in the large majority of cases is entirely unnecessary and a hindrance rather than a help.

Favorable conclusions regarding the alleged beneficial effects of social insurance on poor relief in Germany are contradicted by the official evidence, which indicates no very material improvement in the social condition of the lowest labor element previous to the outbreak of the war.

The plan proposed is not primarily one of insurance in the technical sense of the term but rather one of arbitrary taxation and a skillfully disguised form of poor relief.

The argument advanced that the fundamental purpose of all insurance is prevention is absolutely misleading and quite contrary to accepted insurance theories, methods, and results.

\* \* \* The evidence presented in \* \* \* British medical publications proves conclusively that there has been a marked degree of disorganization and deterioration in medical practice, with serious results to physicians, pharmacists, and the general public. Equally conclusive of unfavorable results is the German evidence.

To burden the public health administration with additional and conflicting medical duties, as proposed under compulsory health insurance, would unquestionably result in a lesser degree of efficiency in the enforcement of public-health laws and the further improvement in the death rate.



The medical and sanitary progress of the United States without social insurance has been as satisfactory, if not more so, as the corresponding progress of Germany and other European countries.

It is seriously misleading to assert that a more effective and far-reaching public-health education can only be secured through compulsory health insurance, when, as a matter of fact, in no country in the world has more been done in this direction than in the United States.

It, however, is conclusive evidence of the voluntary thrift development that trade-unions, fraternal societies, establishment benefit funds, and life insurance companies should each and all have made the most remarkable progress in the history of insurance during the last quarter century. \* \* \* Voluntary insurance rests upon sound actuarial and financial principles and generations of experience. Compulsory health insurance in any and all of its forms rests largely upon actuarial guesswork and reckless theories of public taxation.

In its final analysis the problem for compulsory health insurance resolves itself into fundamental questions of taxation and Government control of individual medical treatment and sickness relief. The administrative expenses would be enormous; the political complications would be most serious; drastic interference with personal rights and liberties would be inevitable; and the aggregate direct cost for medical attendance and relief to wage earners and their dependents, employers, and the general public would not fall below three-fourths of a billion dollars a year!

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#### PROPOSED OLD-AGE PENSION AND HEALTH INSURANCE LEGISLATION IN MASSACHUSETTS.

The special committee on social insurance of the Boston Chamber of Commerce recently completed a study of noncontributory old-age pensions and compulsory health insurance which has prompted it to oppose the former and favor, under certain conditions, the ultimate enactment of legislation looking to the adoption of a health-insurance plan which "will result in the improved health of the people, be effectively managed, and not prohibitory in cost."<sup>1</sup> In taking this favorable attitude toward compulsory health insurance, however, the committee admits that the subject is not yet ripe for legislation "because of the great uncertainty as to insurance carriers, medical administration, and cost," but suggests that "the situation which this measure attempts to meet is serious, and the State should give the matter thorough consideration, with a view to the adoption of some adequate form of relief, preferably at the outset an experimental measure of limited scope in the least difficult part of the field." So far as the bill now pending in the State legislature is concerned, the committee opposes the provision which assesses the employer 40 per cent, the employee 40 per cent, and the State 20 per cent, and advocates meeting the cost of insurance by assessing

<sup>1</sup> The report of this committee is presented in a pamphlet of 15 pages, entitled "Non-contributory old-age pension and health insurance," issued by the Boston Chamber of Commerce.

the employer and employee equally, the State paying only the administrative expenses. Before effective action is taken on this proposed legislation the committee suggests the appointment of a paid commission "to examine the nature of the special health problems of Massachusetts, to discover the probable cost of alternative plans of insurance, to inquire into the ways and probable cost of a progressive method of sickness prevention, and to draft an act to give effect to its recommendations."

In arriving at these conclusions the committee investigated quite thoroughly the operation of the compulsory, voluntary, and subsidized State health-insurance plans in Europe, where, it is stated, a wide experience in the various forms has led many of the nations to realize that the logical conclusion was compulsory State insurance, to which employers and employees alike should contribute, assisted by the State. The fact that sickness insurance is provided in some form by trade-unions, fraternal societies, lodges, and establishment funds is noted, but "because of the inadequacy of all of these measures the situation remains bad."

None of these plans take into consideration the important occupational factor of varying strength and kind in the causation of disease.

A summary of the needs for some form of relief would, in the opinion of the committee, include the following:

Economic factors which increase the health hazards and induce poverty and disease: (a) Occupational diseases; (b) irregularity of employment; (c) unhealthful conditions of living; (d) employment of married women under modern conditions of work; (e) economic disadvantages of families as a result of low wages and insufficient annual income which deter marriage and prevent childbearing.

The employers, the public, and the employees are in some degree responsible for sickness. The responsibility of the employers is limited to the places of employment, the public is responsible only for community conditions.

The greatest burden falls on the wage earner who can seldom meet the cost of sickness.

The medical profession is handicapped in the relief and prevention of disease because of the low wage of employees.

Cooperation in meeting health problems is a necessity.

It is feasible to distribute the cost and to find a better basis for the prevention of sickness.

The committee devotes several pages to a review of the arguments for and against health insurance, the most important of which have been accorded more or less extended notice from time to time in the *MONTHLY REVIEW*. The report closes with a brief outline of the provisions of the compulsory health insurance bill now pending before the Massachusetts Legislature. This bill follows the German and British plans in certain features. It provides for the compulsory insurance of every person employed in the Commonwealth,

except those receiving regular salaries in excess of \$100 per month. There are certain exemptions. The benefits which, among other things, cover sickness or accident or death or disability resulting therefrom, equal two-thirds of the weekly earnings of the insured member and shall be paid for not longer than 26 weeks in any consecutive 12 months. There are certain restrictions involved which need not be enumerated. It is estimated that the cost of the proposed legislation will be between 3 and 5 per cent of the wages, but the maximum fixed in the bill is 4 per cent. On this basis it has been figured that the cost to contributors will be about \$33,000,000, with an annual expense of administration of about \$3,300,000.

Reverting to the subject of noncontributory old-age pensions the committee is very definite in its opposition to any measure with the noncontributory feature and suggests the following reasons for its attitude:

There is no such need for legislative provision for old age in Massachusetts as there was in any foreign country in which legislation has been enacted. \* \* \* Health insurance and accident compensation lead to preventive measures and increase the earning power of workers, but old-age pensions are remedial, not preventive, and are, therefore, less valuable socially.

Those foreign systems which involve contributions from employers and employees are, however, preferable to the English system of outright payments. In France and Germany the worker gets his pension as a matter of right even when he is not poor. In England and under the proposed plan for Massachusetts only the poor may have pensions—that is, the proposed plan has essentially a poor-law character and is not an industrial measure.

Noncontributory pensions weaken the inducement to thrift.

The inevitable effect of the establishment of a system of noncontributory old-age pensions would be a constant pressure to lower the age limit and increase the amount of the pension.

The proposed Massachusetts law would tend greatly to increase the taxes.

To raise the necessary money large extra taxes would have to be levied on the capital and industries of the Commonwealth. This would result in the first instance in a serious disturbance to present industrial conditions. It might also have a tendency to lower wages.

Owing to the uncertainty of conditions due to the great war, it would be unwise for the Commonwealth to assume a large increase in its liabilities.

The constitutionality of such legislation is extremely doubtful.

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#### MODERN INSURANCE PROBLEMS.

“Modern insurance problems” is the general title of the March, 1917, issue of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, and among the articles treating on this subject are

seven devoted specifically to accident and health and workmen's compensation insurance.<sup>1</sup> These articles, contributed by authorities, discuss the disability insurance policy; methods of insuring workmen's compensation; accident prevention; the calculation of workmen's compensation premium rates; the practice of schedule and experience rating for workmen's compensation risks; compensation administration and adjustments; and the public supervision of workmen's compensation insurance.

A. P. Woodward, secretary accident department, Connecticut General Life Insurance Co., contributes an article on the disability insurance policy in which he explains the method of making application, notes the two features covered by the disability policy—loss due to bodily injuries and loss due to sickness or disease—and outlines the benefits in each form of insurance. Briefly stated, the typical disability insurance policy provides—

for the payment of certain fixed amounts varying from \$5 to \$100 should the injuries or sickness necessitate one of a number of operations enumerated in the schedule of operations contained in the policy; and if the injuries or sickness require hospital treatment, the payment of the expenses incurred, not exceeding \$12.50 a week for 20 weeks. If the injuries do not cause a loss for which indemnity is payable, but do require surgical treatment, provision is made for the payment of the surgeon's bill, not exceeding \$25. Also provision is made to place the insured in the care of relatives or friends, provided such expense does not exceed the sum of \$100, should he by reason of injury or illness be unable to communicate with them and the company be notified of his condition. The policy also set forth the procedure to be followed in giving notice of injury, payment of benefits and changes in the insurance.

David S. Beyer, manager accident-prevention department, Massachusetts Employees' Insurance Association, in a short article on accident prevention, shows how in this country safety education has resulted in the exercise of greater care by workmen and in the realization by employers that such a policy applied to business effects a direct saving in compensation cost and an improvement in labor conditions which so vitally concern output and manufacturing costs. Insurance companies also seem to appreciate the value of an accident-prevention department because of the effect it has upon losses. Accident prevention becomes the basis of rate modification, the rate for each plant being made to reflect its accident hazard.

The five mediums which are to-day recognized for insuring workmen's compensation, as set forth in the order of their relative importance in an article by Harwood E. Ryan, associate actuary, State of New York Insurance Department, are joint-stock companies, State insurance funds, employers' mutual associations, reciprocal exchanges (also called interinsurance exchanges), and self-insurers.

<sup>1</sup> The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, March, 1917, pp. 227-316. Editorial Office, Woodland Avenue and Thirty-sixth Street, Philadelphia, Pa.

The management of stock companies is vested in a board of directors; the acquisition cost is approximately  $17\frac{1}{2}$  per cent of the premium charge; their business is transacted upon the plan of guaranteed rates; that is, they do not share profits with policyholders; and, as a rule, they have the advantage of security. The expense of maintenance is somewhat heavy because of stockholders' profits, agents' commissions, and large operating costs.

Under the mutual system of insurance groups of employers join together and create a fund out of which the losses are met. Such an association is incorporated; the policy contract contemplates a fixed rate of premium, but provision is made for an assessment of members in case the capitalized losses are in excess of the premiums earned; and it offers the prospect of low cost by the elimination of shareholders' profits and part, at least, of the acquisition cost.

The State fund is essentially the same as the mutual except in organization. Its income is derived from premiums paid by employers and from the accretions of interest upon invested assets. The policyholders have no voice in the management. The funds are of two kinds, competitive and monopolistic, the latter probably having the advantage because there is no need to incur any expense to obtain a fair share of the business.

Under self-insurance the employer assumes his own risk and deals direct with his employee or his dependents. Self-insurance is not a complete substitute for regular insurance. The advantages are too largely on the side of the employer.

Reciprocal or interinsurance is operated through a so-called "exchange," the actual management being carried on by an attorney-in-fact, who generally receives for his services and for expenses of administration a percentage of the premiums transacted.

It is thought that self-insurance and interinsurance will not survive, and that "the effect of competition thus far indicates a gradual drift in the direction of the strongest and most efficiently managed stock and mutual companies. The largest question involved in the general problem is whether the insurance of workmen's compensation should be conducted competitively or as a monopoly." If a monopoly, the mutual association and the State fund appear to be the most likely candidates.

Of the two the mutual association should have the greater appeal because of its representative form of government, its consequent responsiveness to the will of its member policyholders, and the divorcement from political interference which its scheme of organization renders possible.

The article on the calculation of workmen's compensation premium rates, by Claude E. Scattergood, assistant secretary, the Fidelity & Casualty Co. of New York, contains the essential facts outlined in his pamphlet entitled "Synthesis of rates for workmen's compensa-



tion," which was noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW for November, 1916, pages 629 to 631.

Schedule rating and experience rating have been developed for the purpose of providing an individual rate for each risk, such rate depending upon the physical and moral conditions in the plant. Leon S. Senior, manager and secretary Compensation Inspection Rating Board of New York, in describing these two methods of merit rating offers the following definitions:

Schedule rating may be defined as a method of rating whereby it is intended to promote greater equity in the distribution of insurance cost by providing an individual rate for each risk based upon the physical character of the risk.

By experience rating we mean a system of merit rating whereby the loss experience for a given risk during a given period is subjected to detailed analysis, and, as a result of appraisal, the class or basic rate is modified in accordance with experience of the individual risk.

Schedule rating contemplates a complete analysis of the average manufacturing plant and the number of items of hazard that contribute to industrial accidents, the establishment of standard methods for safeguarding machinery and equipment, the organization of safety committees, and the improvement of sanitary and hygienic conditions. In making this schedule consideration is given to catastrophe hazard, hazards peculiar to the industry and affecting all employees, and hazards affecting a limited number of employees. Upon this basis the rates for a given classification are made. It is stated that the practice of rating each risk individually upon merit has served to stimulate accident-prevention work among employers.

Experience rating appears to be the subject of controversy and divisions of opinion, some underwriters favoring it and others believing it to be inapplicable to any form of insurance. Those who favor experience rating claim that it is applicable to contracting, public service, and other risks, whereas schedule rating is confined to manufacturing risks, and that it provides a system of appraising the moral conditions of the risk—that is, the attitude of the employer and his foremen and superintendents toward the safety and welfare of the workmen—and should be coupled with schedule rating which considers only the physical conditions.

Those who oppose experience rating contend that the loss on any given risk is due to imperfect physical conditions and to the element of chance, that the general experience has been used to determine the rate for the class, and that the rate thus obtained is an average rate which should apply to all plants without distinction as to the particular experience sustained in a given plant.

It is the fundamental purpose of insurance to cover the risk against the losses due to chance, and it is therefore unsound in theory to penalize an employer

whose experience as a result of chance is bad or to reward another employer whose experience as a result of chance is good. Furthermore, all experience-rating plans which have so far come under observation have not been balanced schemes, and have resulted in decreasing the total volume of premiums.

The methods of administration and adjustment used by the old employers' liability system and the present workmen's compensation system are compared in an article on compensation administration and adjustments by James E. Rhodes, claim examiner, the Travelers' Insurance Co., who, in criticism of the common-law system, points out the uncertainty as to the basis of liability and as to the amount of recovery, the delay incident to legal procedure in enforcing a claim for damages, and the uncertainty as to the payment of the judgment, if secured. In contrast to this is the workmen's compensation principle which seeks to secure the prompt payment of benefits by requiring some sort of insurance to be carried by employers, this element of promptness and regularity being accomplished by fixing the administration of the law in a single official or an official body whose duty it is to see that the law is properly administered. The article in some detail goes into the various phases of the compensation system as now in vogue, touching upon its application, the meaning of the word "accident," relation of disease to compensation, the waiting period, statutory medical aid, the medical element in compensation, disability payments, payments in fatal cases, conservation of compensation payments, and insurance of the compensation obligation.

Since work-accident insurance is "affected with a public interest paramount to every private consideration," public supervision becomes essential, and E. H. Downey, special deputy, Pennsylvania Insurance Department, in an article on this subject, undertakes to define the aims, the instrumentalities, and the limitations of public supervision. The public is interested particularly in the prompt and full payment of accruing compensation benefits, security of deferred payments, equitable rates as among insurants, encouragement of accident prevention, and the furnishing of insurance at a reasonable cost, and it is suggested that these ends may be effectuated through supervision of claim settlements, the licensing of insurance carriers, the supervision of reserves, and rate regulation. Passing the matter of claim settlements and touching briefly upon the matter of the licensing of insurance carriers, which is necessary if their solvency is to be enforced or their practices regulated, the author dwells at length on the subjects of reserve requirements and rate regulation. Reserves are supposed to cover claim losses, unearned premiums, and catastrophes, but "the existing reserve law, designed originally for liability insurance, is notoriously inadequate

for the conditions created by workmen's compensation." A new bill has been prepared, which provides in substance—

That the reserves upon compensation policies issued more than three years prior to the date of valuation shall be the present value of future payments, and the reserves upon policies of later years of issue shall be 65 per cent of earned premium, less losses and loss expenses paid, subject, however, to the further requirement that the reserves on policies issued more than two years before the date of valuation shall be at least equal to the present value of future payments.

The merits of the bill are that it increases the percentage basis of reserve and that it provides for an actual valuation of claims under all but the last two years of account. Its weaknesses are that it prescribes no method of individual claim valuation, that its required percentage of earned premium is insufficient to cover losses and loss expenses under present rates with average losses, that it allows three years to elapse before even this level will be attained, that it makes no provision (except a doubtful administrative discretion) for cut-rate companies or companies with worse than average experience, that it permits the deduction of adjustment expense from compensation reserves, and that it fails to separate compensation from general liability obligations.

The criticisms made upon this bill are developed in the succeeding pages, and the following amendments suggested to perfect it:

1. Reserves of indubitable accuracy to meet all incurred claims should be set aside as a trust fund, invested in designated classes of high-grade securities and held solely for the payment of compensation benefits. Claims arising under all policies save the last year's issue should be valued upon the basis of a standard table to be prescribed by the National Convention of Insurance Commissioners, with the further proviso that reserves for the last three years of issue should at least equal the calculated normal loss ratio for each State,<sup>1</sup> less compensation benefits actually paid. To the reserves so produced should be added at least 10 per cent to cover future adjustment cost. All this in addition to the unearned premium reserve which probably should be maintained at the full amount as a further precaution.

2. Capital or surplus equal to at least 50 per cent of the annual compensation premiums, but in no case less than \$50,000, securely invested and assigned exclusively to compensation liability, should be a condition precedent to the writing of compensation insurance.

3. Sound excess insurance, equal to the maximum catastrophe liability of the carrier involved, should be required of every compensation insurer.

As to rate regulation, which in practice seems to have been mainly directed to the protection of insurers against each other instead of the promotion of fair competition among insurers, the writer notes the fact that both rate making and the detailed application of rates to risks have been removed from the control of the individual insurers and placed in the hands of representative rating bureaus "made up of all compensation insurers operating within the State,

<sup>1</sup> "I. e., from 57½ to 65 per cent of earned premiums, according to the law differential. With respect to current policies, earned premiums should be ascertained by a monthly computation."

and empowered, subject to the approval of the supervising authority, to formulate risk classifications, rules, basis (or class) rates, and merit-rating plans, to assign individual risks to existing or special classifications, to apply merit rating through inspection or otherwise, and to scrutinize the underwriting of all risks by means of a policy 'stamping office.'"<sup>1</sup> Several such bureaus have been established. However, "rate making transcends the limits of any State," and "effective supervision of compensation insurance rates imposes far-reaching restraints upon competition." Under these rating bureaus very little seems to be left to the discretion of individual insurers.

#### LABOR SANITATION CONFERENCE, NEW YORK CITY.

In an effort to bring about cooperation in industrial sanitation and hygiene between organized labor and the division of industrial hygiene of the New York City Department of Health and give the workers a chance to assist in a practical way in improving sanitary conditions in factories and workshops, representatives of about 38 labor unions affiliated with the Central Federated Union met on February 18, 1917, and organized the Labor Sanitation Conference. This action was taken following a meeting held at Stuyvesant High School, which was addressed by the United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics. It was felt that the workers themselves know the sore spots in the city's industries and are able to give such information as will focus attention upon its factories and shops in which supervision may be most needed. Furthermore, the Labor Sanitation Conference, it is expected, will be able to furnish information which will lead to special research work in particularly hazardous trades, as a result of which sanitary standards may be established and public opinion so interested as to make possible the enactment and enforcement of needed regulations. The formulation of rules of conduct in which labor has had a distinct share will add force to instruction and education in industrial sanitation. By giving labor an opportunity to express itself in this way the department of health hopes to be able to become better acquainted with the possibilities for improving safety and sanitary standards and to be the means of communicating information acquired in this way to manufacturers in order to persuade them, if possible, without resort to police power, to adopt the suggestions that may result from these conferences. The following statement addressed to the members of the Labor

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<sup>1</sup> A note at this point in the article states that the "stamping office" receives, examines, and approves or disapproves a duplicate of every policy declaration. This practice was first established by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin under the anti-discrimination law of 1913, and has since been adopted by the rating bureaus of California, Colorado, and Pennsylvania.

Sanitation Conference by the New York City Department of Health indicates how the purposes of the conferences may be worked out:

An experiment which has been carried out with Typographical Union No. 6 gave us the basis for our belief that organized labor could contribute in very large measure by a system of self-inspection and reporting to raise sanitary standards. Typographical Union No. 6 some months ago was prevailed on to appoint a sanitary committee which was instructed to act in close cooperation with the division of industrial hygiene. With the help of this committee, I prepared a questionnaire bearing on the various sanitary features in the work-shops, that affected the health of workers. \* \* \* Each shop chairman in the various composing rooms in the city was informed that he would be held responsible for a truthful and full statement of the sanitary conditions in his shop and he was required to answer the questions asked in the special questionnaire and to submit the same, when complete, to the sanitation committee of the typographical union. This committee, in turn, without revealing the identity of the complainants, gave the substance of the violations found in each shop. These were verified by inspectors of the division of industrial hygiene, thus eliminating a tremendous amount of useless labor in visiting shops that did not require our attention. The sanitary clean-up which has resulted from this cooperative action was cited to the delegates of the various unions assembled to form the Labor Sanitation Conference.

The second meeting of the Labor Sanitation Conference was held on March 4, 1917. Following this meeting the representatives were divided into groups so as to bring together, as far as possible, members of allied trades who shall receive complaints from their respective unions and transmit them to the department of health for investigation, thus becoming the intermediaries between the division of industrial hygiene and the ranks of labor. The following is a list of the organizations which, up to March 8, had appointed representatives to the Labor Sanitation Conference:

*Group 1.—Stone and Granite:*

The Granite Cutters' International Association of America, Brooklyn, N. Y.  
International Association of Marble Workers.  
Operative Plasterers' and Cement Finishers' International Association, Local 60.  
Granite Cutters' International Association of America, Quincy, Mass.

*Group 2.—Metals, Machinery, and Conveyances:*

Furniture Movers 'and Packers' Union, Local Union 273.  
Carriage, Wagon, and Automobile Workers' International Union, Local 49.  
International Union of Steam and Operating Engineers, Local Union No. 20.  
American Association of Masters, Mates, and Pilots, United Harbor No. 1.  
Metal Polishers', Buffers', and Platers' Union, Local No. 34.  
International Compressed Air and Foundation Workers' Union.  
Pattern Makers' Association.  
Plumbers' Union, Local 463.  
International Association of Machinists, "The Loyal" Lodge No. 406.  
Brotherhood of Railway Clerks, New York City Lodge No. 70.

*Group 3.—Wood Manufacturers:*

Brush Makers' International Union, Local No. 8.  
House Wreckers' Union, Local 14949.

*Group 4.—Furs, Leather, and Rubber Goods.*



*Group 5.—Chemicals, Oils, Paints, etc.:*

- Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers of America, Local Union No. 892.
- Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers of America.
- Brotherhood of Painters', Decorators, and Paperhangers of America, Local Union 499.
- New York Photo Engravers' Union No. 1.
- Brotherhood of Painters, Decorators, and Paperhangers.

*Group 6.—Pulp and Paper:*

- New York Job Press Feeders' Union No. 1.
- International Brotherhood of Bookbinders, Local No. 3.

*Group 7.—Printing and Paper Goods:*

- Franklin Union No. 23, Amalgamated Lithographers of America.
- Mailers' Union No. 6.
- New York Typographical Union No. 6.
- Bill Posters' and Distributors' Union No. 1.
- German Typographical No. 7.
- Amalgamated Lithographers of America, Local No. 1.
- Bill Posters' Union No. 2.
- New York Job Press Feeders' Union No. 1.

*Group 8.—Textiles:*

- Cap Cutters' Local No. 2.
- Journeyman Tailors' Union, Local 390.
- Cloth Examiners' & Spongers' Union of Greater New York.
- Ladies Waist and Dressmakers Union, Local 25.

*Group 9.—Clothing and Millinery:*

- United Neckwear Makers' Union.
- United Hatters of North America, Local No. 3.
- Cap Cutters' Union, Local No. 2.
- United Garment Workers.
- Cloak and Suit Tailors, Local 9.

*Group 10.—Food, Liquors, and Tobacco:*

- Bottlers' and Drivers' Union No. 347.
- Butchers' Union No. 174.
- New York Bartenders' Benevolent and Protective Association, Local 3.
- Cigar Makers' International Union of America, Local No. 90.
- Brewers' Union No. 1.
- Cigar Packers' Union No. 251.
- Tobacco Workers' International Union, Local No. 98.
- Cigar Makers International Union of America, Local Union No. 13.
- Beer Drivers' Union No. 23.
- International Union of the United Brewery Workmen, Local Union No. 59.
- Butchers' Union No. 108.
- New York Club Employees' Association.
- United Journeymen Pie Bakers of New York and Vicinity, Local No. 112.

*Group 11.—Water, Light, and Power:*

- Enterprise Association, Steam, Hot water, Hydraulic, Sprinkler, Pneumatic tube, Compressed air, Ice machine, and General Pipe Fitters' of New York City and Vicinity, Local Union 638 of the United Association.
- International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers.

*Group 12.—Miscellaneous:*

- Musical Mutual Protective Union, Local 310.
- Bookkeepers', Stenographers', and Accountants' Union, No. 12646, American Federation of Labor.
- White Rats Actors' Union of America.

## NEW MINISTRIES IN THE BRITISH CABINET.

Five new ministries and their secretaries have been added to the British Cabinet: The ministry of pensions, ministry of labor, ministry of food, ministry of shipping, and the air board, the president of which has the rank of a minister. The ministry of pensions was established by a separate act dated December 22, 1916. "The New Ministries and Secretaries Act," of the same date, created the other departments. Each minister and a secretary has the customary right to a seat in Parliament. The ministries of food and shipping and the air board are temporary, and cease to exist 12 months after the cessation of the present war, their powers reverting to the Government departments from which they were originally transferred. The responsible head of the ministry of food is termed the food controller; that of the ministry of shipping, the shipping controller. The salary of each of the ministers added is fixed at £2,000 (\$9,773) per annum.

## MINISTRY OF LABOR.

There is transferred to the ministry of labor the powers and authority exercised by the Board of Trade under the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1896, the Labor Exchanges Act of 1909, the Trade Boards (minimum wage) Act of 1909, the National Unemployment Insurance Acts of 1911 to 1916, and under that part of the Munitions of War Act, 1915, which relates to the settlement of labor disputes and the prohibition of strikes and lockouts. Furthermore, "the minister of labor shall have such other powers and duties of the Board of Trade or of any other Government department or authority relating to labor or industry, whether conferred by statute or otherwise, as His Majesty may by order in council transfer to him or authorize him to exercise or perform concurrently with or in consultation with the Government department or authority concerned."

What functions of the labor department of the Board of Trade have been transferred to the new ministry is not stated, and the Board of Trade Labor Gazette continues to appear from that department.

## MINISTRY OF FOOD.

"It shall be the duty of the food controller to regulate the supply and consumption of food in such manner as he thinks best for maintaining a proper supply of food, and to take such steps as he thinks best for encouraging the production of food." His authority may be extended by statutory enactment, by orders in council, or by regulations made under the Defense of the Realm Consolidation Act, 1914.

## MINISTRY OF SHIPPING.

"It shall be the duty of the shipping controller to control and regulate any shipping available for the needs of the country in such

manner as to make the best use thereof, having regard to the circumstances of the time, and to take such steps as he thinks best for providing and maintaining an efficient supply of shipping." His further powers may be defined by subsequent legislation, by orders in council, or by regulations under the Defense of the Realm Consolidation Act, 1914.

#### MINISTRY OF PENSIONS.

The powers and duties reposed in the pension ministry are (1) those of the Admiralty "with respect to pensions and grants to persons who have served as officers or men, and to their widows, children, and other dependents, and to persons who have been employed in the nursing service of any of His Majesty's naval forces, other than service pensions, so far as such pensions and grants are payable out of moneys provided by Parliament, and not provided exclusively for the purpose of the Greenwich Hospital"; (2) those duties "of the commissioners of the Royal Hospital for Soldiers at Chelsea with respect to the grant and administration of disability pensions and grants, other than in pensions"; (3) those duties and powers "of the army council and the secretary of state for the war department with respect to pensions and grants to persons who have served as officers or soldiers, and to their widows, children, or other dependents, and to persons who have been employed in the nursing service of any of His Majesty's military forces, other than service pensions"; (4) supervision of the functions of the so-called statutory and local committees created for the administration of the General Military and Naval Pension Act of November 10, 1915, which relates to the administration of pension payments growing out of the present war.

One administrative feature of the Pension Act is noteworthy. On the statutory committees created for the administration of the act, there are to be representatives of labor and some women members. And the functions of these committees are not merely the giving of assistance in paying out pensions and allowances; they take on a constructive character. Both the statutory committee and the local committees are given power "to make provision for the care of disabled officers and men after they have left the service, including provision for their health, training, and employment." Cooperation with local charitable institutions is provided for.

Excluded from the supervision of the ministry of pensions are "service pensions," or pensions in respect of age, length of service, or special service, or pensions attached to any medal or other decoration, not strictly military or war pensions.

The minister of pensions is required to report annually to Parliament.

## TRUANCY AND IRREGULAR SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IN CHICAGO.

In view of the close connection between irregular attendance or nonattendance at school and the retardation, repeating, and final elimination of pupils, there seems a curious lack of widely based and authoritative studies of irregular attendance, its extent, its cause and probable preventives. A volume recently issued by the Chicago University Press,<sup>1</sup> dealing with the general subject in Chicago, by no means meets the need for such a study, but gives an interesting discussion of some social aspects of the problems of truancy and nonattendance, with a consideration of various remedial and preventive measures, some of which are already in force in Chicago, and others of which are recommended for adoption. As a statistical basis for the discussion there are given, first, an analysis of the amount of nonattendance shown by the school records to have occurred among the pupils of nine selected elementary schools of Chicago during one school year, date not given, but appearing from other data in the book to have been 1910-11; second, the results of a follow-up of the children who during this same year were transferred from these nine schools to others, the purpose being to see what amount of nonattendance escaped record because it occurred in the interval between leaving one school and entering another; and, third, the results of an investigation of 1,158 children from two schools who, during a period of three consecutive weeks, were absent from school at least one-half day. The date of this last investigation, again, is not given, but it does not appear to have been much later than the other two. In addition, an investigation was made of 579 boys committed during the year 1910 to the Parental School for truancy.

The registers of the nine schools showed a large amount of nonattendance. Only those children were considered who had been enrolled in these schools for the full 10 months of the school session, these numbering 4,863. Of these practically 4 per cent had a perfect record of attendance,<sup>2</sup> and about one-fourth had missed less than 10 half days. As between boys and girls there was very little difference, 3.89 per cent of the girls and 3.56 per cent of the boys not having missed a single half day. Turning the half-day absences into their equivalent in school weeks, the following table shows the number of children absent each classified number of weeks.

<sup>1</sup> Truancy and Nonattendance in the Chicago Public Schools, Abbott and Breckenridge, Chicago, 1917.

<sup>2</sup> This percentage seems pretty close to that of the city as a whole. The superintendent's report for 1910-11 gives the number of children in the elementary schools who had not missed a single half day as 14,494, which is 5.6 per cent of the enrollment for the year. See 57th Annual Report of the Chicago Board of Education, p. 145.

## NUMBER AND PER CENT OF CHILDREN ABSENT FOR EACH CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF WEEKS.

Time lost.	Number.	Per cent.	Time lost.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 1 week.....	1,108	23	5 weeks and over.....	931	19
1 week and over.....	3,755	77	6 weeks and over.....	659	14
2 weeks and over.....	2,770	57	7 weeks and over.....	497	10
3 weeks and over.....	1,933	40	8 weeks and over.....	359	7
4 weeks and over.....	1,340	28			

In studying this table it should not be forgotten that the 4,863 children whose attendance records are presented here were the most regular in attendance of all the 10,120 children enrolled in these nine schools. There is every reason to believe that attendance records for the remaining 5,257 children who are not enrolled for 10 months would show a greater number of absences, since the cases of failure to enroll or changes in enrollment are very frequently due to the same causes as irregularity of attendance after enrollment.

These nine schools were selected as being as nearly as possible representative of Chicago's mixed school population. There were 257,421 children enrolled that year in the public elementary schools of Chicago. If these percentages hold good throughout, then there were, in round numbers—

Eighteen thousand children who were absent 80 half days or more and who lost therefore the equivalent of two months' schooling during the year; 33,500 who lost six weeks or more; 48,900 who lost five weeks or more; 72,000 who lost a month or more; 103,000 children who were absent the equivalent of three weeks or more; and 146,700 children who lost at least a fortnight's schooling.<sup>1</sup>

What such interruptions mean in regard to a child's ability to complete the work of a given grade within the year allotted for it every teacher knows.

The time lost by children who take transfers from one school and then delay entering the new school to which they are accredited may be quite as serious as that due to irregular attendance. To get some idea of its amount, the investigators secured the names and addresses of 770 children who had transferred from the nine schools under consideration. At the outset a difficulty was encountered.

These 770 slips represent only a small proportion of the total number of transfers issued, since the record books, as has been indicated, were carelessly kept. Moreover, many of the children who were given transfers could not be traced, since several of the schools kept no record either of the new school or of the new address to which the child was going, and merely marked the child "transferred."

Only 574 of the 770 children could be located in other schools,<sup>2</sup> and for 89 of those located the child's record could not be accurately

<sup>1</sup> The "round numbers" given here differ slightly from those in the text.

<sup>2</sup> The authors are careful to state that this does not necessarily mean that the missing children were not in school. "Indeed, some of them may have entered promptly the school to which they were transferred; but if so, there was no record of the fact, nor could the child be found by searching every classroom."



traced. Of the 485 for whom complete data could be obtained, 235, or 48 per cent, lost no time, having gone directly from one school to the other, while the remainder lost from one day to over five weeks, nearly one-fifth (19 per cent) losing over one week. The most striking thing about this particular study is the defectiveness of the system of bookkeeping under which it is possible for scores of children to thus slip out of sight. Presumably the child who failed to enter another school stood a good chance of being discovered by the attendance officers or some other agency, but it would seem a simple matter to arrange for some system of sending the announcement of a transfer to the principal of the school to which the child should go, and for this principal, if the child failed to report promptly, to call on the attendance officers to look him up. In this respect, however, it is possible that the system has been much improved since this study was made. The authors call attention to the fact that of recent years there has been a great increase in the number of cases of transferred children investigated by the department of compulsory education. In 1910-11, the year for which these data were gathered, the department investigated 478 cases of transferred children, and in 1913-14, the last year for which figures are given, 1,325, or nearly three times as many.

The detailed study of nonattendance in two selected schools showed that of 3,192 children enrolled, 1,446, or 45 per cent, had been absent at least one-half day during the three weeks which were taken as a test period. The homes were visited and schedules secured for 1,158 of these children. In the course of these visits information was obtained also concerning earlier absences of the child during the school year, which in many cases had been frequent. In the great majority of cases the absences were irregular, and indicate casual and unnecessary nonattendance.

Before discussing the reasons for absence given by the children or their parents the authors first consider some underlying causes for irregularity. In general they agree with other students of the subject that the character of the home is largely responsible.<sup>1</sup> The two schools are situated in overcrowded city wards, and the majority of the children came from homes of poverty. "Seventy-eight per cent of the families visited were poor or very poor; 21 per cent were in fairly comfortable circumstances, while a very few families (1 per cent) could be called very comfortable." Four per cent of the children were motherless and 6 per cent fatherless. The great ma-

<sup>1</sup> "Most investigators and educators lay the heaviest share of the blame to unfavorable home conditions," says Miss Julia Richman, of the New York schools, and she goes on to divide these unfavorable conditions in four groups: Subnormal physical conditions, inefficient parenthood, degraded parenthood, and vicious associates. See Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1909, p. 223.

jority were of foreign parentage, a fact to which the authors attach much importance.

In both the West Side and the North Side school only 7 per cent of the parents of the nonattending children were born in this country. \* \* \* From whatever country they come the parents of the children do not immediately become Americanized. \* \* \* In the great majority of cases English is not spoken in the home because the parents, especially the mothers, have never learned to speak it with ease, if at all. The importance of this factor in the compulsory education situation can not be overestimated. Coming from the most impoverished countries of Europe, where free education is unknown, the parents do not easily understand that school attendance is not only free but compulsory and that "compulsory attendance" means "regular attendance."

This statement hardly seems justified. To say that only 7 per cent of the parents of the nonattending children were Americans tells nothing as to the relative prevalence of nonattendance unless we know what proportion American parents formed of the parents of all the children in these schools. No information on this point is given beyond the statement that both schools were in immigrant neighborhoods. They appear to have been located one in the nineteenth the other in the sixteenth ward. According to the last census, whites of native parentage formed 6.2 per cent of the population in the nineteenth ward and 4 per cent in the sixteenth.<sup>1</sup> If the racial distribution of those having children of school age is the same as that of the wards generally, then the native-born Americans who formed 4 and 6 per cent of the two populations but in each case furnished 7 per cent of the parents whose children attended irregularly were less alive to their duty in this respect than the foreign-born parents, who form a larger proportion of the general population than of the parents whose children were absent during the period considered. And if so, the argument as to the great importance of foreign parentage as a cause of irregular attendance falls to the ground.<sup>2</sup> It is, of course, by no means certain that the racial composition of the two groups is the same; possibly foreign parents do furnish more than their proportionate share of absentee children; but no data in this volume give color to that theory.

<sup>1</sup> U. S. Census, 1910, Vol. II, Population, p. 512.

<sup>2</sup> The Immigration Commission found in 1908 that there was very little difference as to regularity of attendance between children of native and of foreign-born parents. Considering 16,376 children of native white parents and 25,490 of foreign parents in 10 cities, they found that 78.7 per cent of the children of native parents attended nine-tenths or more of the term, 12.7 per cent three-fourths but less than nine-tenths, and 8.6 per cent less than three-fourths; for the children of foreign parents the corresponding percentages were 77.4 per cent, 12.2 per cent, and 10.4 per cent. Something over three-fourths of the foreign parents belonged to non-English speaking races. See Report of Immigration Commission, vol. 29, p. 105.

Turning to the reasons given at the homes for the absence of the children, the following table shows their relative importance:

REASONS GIVEN FOR THE NONATTENDANCE OF 1,158 BOYS AND GIRLS WHOSE SCHOOL ABSENCES WERE INVESTIGATED.

Reason given.	Boys.		Girls.		Both sexes.	
	Number.	Percent- age.	Number.	Percent- age.	Number.	Percent- age.
Sickness and family emergencies:						
Sickness of child.....	280	46	268	51	548	48
Sickness of others.....	34	6	47	9	81	7
Birth, death, wedding, etc.....	17	3	16	3	33	3
Church attendance.....	13	2	8	2	21	2
Other excuses:						
Work at home.....	56	9	75	14	131	12
Lack of shoes or clothes.....	46	8	34	7	80	7
Errands and interpreting.....	31	5	11	2	42	4
Company or visiting.....	13	2	10	2	23	2
Working or looking for work.....	11	2	1	( <sup>1</sup> )	12	1
"Tardy and so stayed at home".....	23	4	21	4	44	4
Excused by teachers.....	4	( <sup>1</sup> )	2	( <sup>1</sup> )	6	( <sup>1</sup> )
Inclement weather.....	6	1	5	1	11	1
Various trivial excuses.....	29	5	16	3	45	4
Truancy (mother thought child at school).....	44	7	8	2	52	5
Total <sup>2</sup> .....	607	100	522	100	1,129	100

<sup>1</sup> Less than 1 per cent.

<sup>2</sup> In 29 cases, 20 boys and 9 girls, no reason was given for the absence.

It is to be noted here that real truancy, the absence of the child without the knowledge or consent of the parent, plays but a small part in the total. In general, poverty seems to be the real reason underlying the causes given, and the authors feel that a better organization of the social resources of the community would make it possible to meet the situation without depriving the child of his right to regular schooling:

In many cases the child was ill because his physical needs had not been properly looked after, because the mother was overworked or ignorant or perhaps very poor, and the child therefore had not been taken to a dentist or had his tonsils looked after or been given some other necessary preventive treatment. Sometimes the child's undernourished condition or lack of warm clothing and of shoes that would keep the feet dry had made him susceptible to colds and other illnesses. The fact that approximately one-fifth of all the children enrolled should within three weeks be absent because of sickness shows an urgent need for school nurses and medical inspection.

When "sickness of others" was given as a cause it usually meant that the child was kept out of school to look after some invalid for whom a visiting nurse might have been provided or who perhaps should have been taken to a hospital. Work at home and lack of suitable clothing are matters which might be so adjusted, sometimes by advice and encouragement, sometimes by material aid, that the child's schooling should not be sacrificed to the family needs. Children of school age of course should not be either "working or looking for work," and here again the philanthropic resources of the

community should be called upon. The trivial excuses, such as company, inclement weather, and the like, which, after all, account for less than one-eighth of the absences, indicate a failure to appreciate the importance of regular attendance, and supervisory visits could do much to put a stop to absences from such causes. In fact, resourceful and energetic school visitors could probably do away with most of the causes which are now keeping children from school and bring up the regularity of attendance almost indefinitely.

The cases of genuine truancy, which account for only 5 per cent of the absences investigated, present a difficult problem owing partly to a lack of suitable institutions to which the children may be committed when it becomes evident that the truancy is due to the conditions of the home. Usually every means of keeping the child in school is exhausted before he is brought into court on a charge of truancy or of incorrigibility in school, and as a consequence most of those thus brought in are committed to the Parental School. From 1902 to 1915, inclusive, on an average 402 boys were brought into court each year on a charge of truancy, and 300 committed to the Parental School yearly. Chicago has no Parental school for girls, and consequently they are rarely brought into court as truants unless the conditions of the home are such that the child will be better off in the reform school. But commitment to a reform school is an extreme measure, and therefore girls are seldom brought into court on this charge; from 1902 to 1915, inclusive, only 37 were thus dealt with.

The study of the truants committed in 1910 brought out the connection between home conditions and truancy. Of the 368 boys located, 43 per cent came from very poor and 37 per cent from poor homes; 117 of the families were being assisted by different social agencies, chiefly by the United Charities. In poor and well-to-do homes alike the parents were apt to be either inefficient or indifferent; sometimes they were actually demoralizing. "Home conditions are probably the factor of first importance in the problem of truancy," is the authors' conclusion.

In addition to the study of truants and absentees, the volume contains an account of the development of compulsory school attendance and child labor laws in Illinois, several chapters on the agencies for enforcing the attendance laws in Chicago, a discussion of the employment certificate system, and of the desirability of raising the age for beginning work at least to 16. At present while the law requires that the child shall attend school up to 16 unless "lawfully and necessarily employed," it permits him to leave at 14 for the purpose of going to work. In practice this is translated into a general permission to leave school at 14. Many children begin work at this age, although it is not in the least necessary that they should, and

many others spend the two years between 14 and 16 in intermittent idleness or frank unemployment.

An account is also given of the method by which the Immigrants' Protective League, the Chicago school authorities, and the Federal Government cooperate to secure for the immigrant child his share of schooling. In 1911 the league, one of Chicago's private social agencies, undertook to act as a clearing house in the matter by securing from the Federal immigration authorities the names of all children of compulsory school age who arrived at Ellis Island bound for any part of Illinois.

The league then sent the names of these children to the school authorities in the various localities to which the children had gone, and asked in return for a report as to whether or not the children had been placed in school. The reports showed that in a large number of cases the children had not been enrolled until after the notification of the school authorities by this private society. \* \* \* During a period of less than three years 532 children were found in Chicago who were of compulsory school age but who were not enrolled in school until after the notices from the Immigrants' Protective League were received. The percentage of unenrolled children was smaller in Chicago than in the country towns—15 per cent as compared with 21 per cent of all the children between 7 and 14 years of age.

The authors strongly recommended that the immigration authorities at all ports of entry should send the names and addresses of all immigrant minors to the educational authorities of the various cities and towns which the immigrants specify as their destination, and that the local authorities should then look up the children as soon as they arrive and see that they enter school without loss of time. "Only in this way can the compulsory education laws be made of service to the immigrant children who are so sorely in need of their protection."

To meet the present situation the authors recommend various radical changes in both the child labor and the compulsory attendance laws, prominent among which is the creation of a "State board or department of education, which shall have, among other functions, the duty of supervising and standardizing the enforcement of the school attendance laws in all parts of the State." Meanwhile, several changes immediately practicable in Chicago are recommended, such as a reorganization of the system of recording attendance, so that the facts with reference to nonattendance may be ascertained; it is also recommended that a transfer system shall be inaugurated which shall mean the following up of every child to whom a transfer is issued until he is enrolled in the school to which he should go; that causes for which principals and teachers may excuse children from attendance shall be enumerated and defined; that provision for girls shall be made at the Parental School; that a school census shall be taken annually in the early autumn; that a staff of school visitors



be introduced, and the vocational supervision bureau be developed so that children who must go to work shall as far as possible be placed in suitable positions and saved both from periods of idleness and from undirected searching for a job which, when found, may be a mere blind-alley occupation.

### EMPLOYMENT IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN MARCH, 1917.

From data regarding volume of employment received by this bureau from representative manufacturing establishments it is found that 10 of the 13 industries covered by the inquiry show an increase in the number of employees on the pay roll in the month of March, 1917, as compared with the same month in 1916. The iron and steel industry takes the lead, showing an increase of 24 per cent. Three industries—cotton manufacturing, woolen manufacturing, and the silk industry—show a decrease, although by referring to the table given below it will be seen that in two of these the decrease was very slight, much less than 1 per cent.

In each of the 13 industries the total amount of money paid to employees in the month of March, 1917, was greater than in March, 1916, an increase of 50.9 per cent in the iron and steel industry being the largest.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917.

Industry.	Estab- lish- ments to which in- quiries were sent.	Estab- lish- ments re- port- ing for March, both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in March—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	Amount of pay roll in March—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).
				1916	1917		1916	1917	
Boots and shoes.....	85	72	1 week..	62,953	66,007	+ 4.9	\$821,155	\$934,598	+13.8
Cotton manufacturing.....	89	58	...do....	57,691	57,532	- .3	543,218	617,637	+13.7
Cotton finishing.....	19	17	...do....	14,097	14,468	+ 2.6	162,156	199,239	+22.9
Hosiery and underwear.....	82	58	...do....	30,330	31,072	+ 2.4	287,192	331,033	+15.3
Woolen.....	56	47	...do....	46,455	46,394	- .1	511,772	615,637	+20.3
Silk.....	64	43	2 weeks..	17,173	16,669	- 2.9	362,085	389,187	+ 7.5
Men's ready-made clothing.....	87	32	1 week..	14,628	16,016	+ 9.5	189,651	235,908	+24.4
Iron and steel.....	142	101	½ month..	155,352	192,589	+24.0	5,556,713	8,387,193	+50.9
Car building and re- pairing.....	78	32	...do....	41,671	41,940	+ .6	1,345,288	1,440,544	+ 7.1
Cigar manufacturing....	104	64	1 week..	20,584	20,786	+ 1.0	213,314	257,303	+20.6
Automobile manufac- turing.....	69	45	...do....	115,733	137,348	+18.7	2,298,512	3,096,601	+34.7
Leather manufacturing	44	28	...do....	15,687	16,919	+ 7.9	190,676	257,726	+35.2
Paper making.....	67	50	...do....	20,453	23,170	+13.3	266,726	342,205	+28.3

The next table gives in comparable form the number of people actually working on the last full day of the reported pay period in March, 1916, and March, 1917. It will be observed that the number of establishments reporting as to this item for both years is small, and this fact should be taken into consideration in using these figures.

## 780 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON LAST FULL DAY OF REPORTED PAY PERIOD IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917.

Industry.	Estab-lish-ments re- porting for March, both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of re- ported pay pe- riod in March—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).
			1916	1917	
Boots and shoes.....	21	1 week..	13,287	14,465	+ 8.9
Cotton manufacturing.....	24	..do....	16,900	17,991	+ 6.5
Cotton finishing.....	9	..do....	5,204	5,162	- .8
Hosiery and underwear.....	10	..do....	7,308	7,757	+ 6.1
Woolen.....	39	..do....	35,191	34,720	- 1.3
Silk.....	23	2 weeks..	9,833	9,610	- 2.3
Men's ready-made clothing.....	2	1 week..	927	935	+ .9
Iron and steel.....	94	½ month.	128,799	158,152	+22.8
Car building and repairing.....	26	..do....	34,159	32,649	- 4.4
Cigar manufacturing.....	23	1 week..	5,105	5,377	+ 5.3
Automobile manufacturing.....	27	..do....	76,150	91,635	+20.3
Leather manufacturing.....	13	..do....	9,221	10,266	+11.3
Paper making.....	16	..do....	6,158	6,976	+13.3

In 6 of the 13 industries there were more people on the pay roll in March, 1917, than in February, 1917. The greatest increase reported was 3 per cent in the men's ready-made clothing industry. Seven of the industries show a decrease in the number of people employed, the decrease being very small, though, in most cases.

With the exception of two industries, boots and shoes and leather, employees were paid more money in March, 1917, than in February, 1917. An increase of 7.6 per cent, appearing in the men's ready-made clothing industry, was the largest.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN FEBRUARY, 1917, AND MARCH, 1917.

Industry.	Estab-lish-ments to which inquiries were sent.	Estab-lish-ments re- porting for February and March.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in—		Per cent of increase (+) or de- crease (-).	Amount of pay roll in—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).
				Feb- ruary, 1917.	March, 1917.		Feb- ruary, 1917.	March, 1917.	
Boots and shoes.....	85	72	1 week..	69,362	68,883	-0.7	1,003,848	984,694	-1.9
Cotton manufacturing.....	89	56	..do....	58,611	58,449	- .3	619,007	626,520	+1.2
Cotton finishing.....	19	15	..do....	13,696	13,691	( <sup>1</sup> )	186,267	188,924	+1.4
Hosiery and under- wear.....	82	56	..do....	29,960	30,235	+ .9	310,818	322,225	+3.7
Woolen.....	56	47	..do....	45,798	46,394	+1.3	610,496	615,037	+ .7
Silk.....	64	42	2 weeks..	16,694	16,558	- .8	373,911	386,678	+3.4
Men's ready-made clothing.....	87	32	1 week..	15,542	16,016	+3.0	219,321	235,908	+7.6
Iron and steel.....	142	100	½ month.	181,109	183,551	+1.3	7,606,250	8,069,328	+6.1
Car building and re- pairing.....	78	31	..do....	42,070	40,955	-2.7	1,331,447	1,407,876	+5.7
Cigar manufacturing.....	104	62	1 week..	20,401	20,732	+1.6	244,531	253,581	+3.7
Automobile manufact- uring.....	69	43	..do....	141,818	143,155	+ .9	3,023,958	3,214,256	+6.3
Leather manufactur- ing.....	44	28	..do....	17,113	16,919	-1.1	262,990	257,726	-2.0
Paper making.....	67	46	..do....	21,987	21,981	( <sup>1</sup> )	320,872	324,547	+1.1

<sup>1</sup> Decrease of less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

The following table shows the number of people actually working on the last full day of the pay period in March, 1917, as compared with February, 1917. Again it must be noted that although each industry is represented the number of establishments giving this information is comparatively small, and when using these figures this fact should be taken into consideration.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON LAST FULL DAY OF REPORTED PAY PERIOD IN FEBRUARY, 1917, AND MARCH, 1917.

Industry.	Estab- lish- ments reporting for February and March.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of re- ported pay period in—		Per cent of increase (+) or de- crease (—)
			February, 1917.	March, 1917.	
Boots and shoes.....	26	1 week..	17,464	16,379	-6.2
Cotton manufacturing.....	39	..do.....	31,438	31,454	+ .1
Cotton finishing.....	10	..do.....	6,681	6,697	+ .2
Hosiery and underwear.....	14	..do.....	11,042	11,204	+1.5
Woolen.....	39	..do.....	34,325	34,606	+ .8
Silk.....	26	2 weeks..	12,123	11,407	-5.9
Men's ready-made clothing.....	7	1 week..	4,082	4,070	- .3
Iron and steel.....	94	$\frac{1}{2}$ month..	148,707	151,724	+2.0
Car building and repairing.....	30	..do.....	37,448	36,286	-3.1
Cigar manufacturing.....	24	1 week..	5,041	5,319	+5.5
Automobile manufacturing.....	24	..do.....	94,713	93,647	-1.1
Leather manufacturing.....	11	..do.....	9,097	8,489	-6.7
Paper making.....	13	..do.....	7,326	7,116	-2.9

#### CHANGES IN WAGE RATES.

As shown by the returned volume of employment schedules, wage-rate changes occurred in 8 of the 13 industries covered by the inquiry between the period February 15 and March 15, 1917. The industries in which no establishments reported changes were car building and repairing, cigar manufacturing, men's ready-made clothing, cotton finishing, and woolen. Many establishments failed to answer the inquiry as to whether or not any increase or decrease in wage rates was made; however, in most of these cases it is probably safe to assume that no changes were made.

The iron and steel industry shows the largest number of changes. Two establishments reported an increase of 10 per cent to tonnage men, this affecting about 33 $\frac{1}{3}$  per cent of the force in one of them. Another gave an increase of 8 per cent to tonnage men. In one instance a 13 per cent increase was granted to 13 per cent of the force and 10 per cent to the remainder. An increase of 14 per cent was made in one case, affecting about one-third of the employees. One establishment reported an increase of 9.7 per cent and 8.4 per cent to approximately 40 per cent and 20 per cent of its force, respectively. One other granted an increase of 6 per cent.

In the silk industry several establishments reported having made increases. A 10 per cent increase in some departments was given in

one instance. In another an additional dollar per week was granted to weavers and the wages of 37.5 per cent of the force were increased 5.7 per cent. One establishment made an increase of 5 cents per hour to 40 per cent of its employees.

In paper manufacturing one establishment reported an increase of from 8 to 10 per cent, which applies to 75 per cent of the employees, another granted an increase of 20 cents per day to each person, and a third merely states that some increases were made.

In the manufacture of leather three increases were reported. One establishment gave a 10 per cent increase to foremen. A second reports having made an increase of 8 per cent to 25 per cent of the force, while the third says that wages were increased without giving the extent of increase or per cent of force affected.

In the automobile industry one establishment stated that an increase of 2.36 cents in the average hourly rate was made, and another that several rate increases were given, the per cent varying according to the quality of work done by employees.

In the manufacture of boots and shoes two establishments reported increases, one saying a few increases were made and the other that increases were made in some departments.

In cotton manufacturing one establishment reported a 10 per cent general increase. One change was indicated in the hosiery and underwear industry, the establishment reporting an increase of 12.5 per cent to 5 per cent of its force. Also one cigar-making establishment made a change, a 7 per cent increase affecting 5 per cent of the employees.

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## EMPLOYMENT IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK IN MARCH, 1917.

The Bureau of Statistics and Information of the New York State Department of Labor reviews the labor market of that State in March in the following statement:

### MANUFACTURING ACTIVITY IN MARCH.

[As reported by representative firms with over 600,000 employees, or one-third of the factory workers in the State, and a weekly pay roll of over \$9,000,000.]

In March, 1917, more workers were employed and a larger aggregate of wages was paid in New York State factories than in any other month since these returns have been received, beginning in June, 1914. The previous high record was established in December, 1916. As compared with February, there was an increase of more than 1 per cent in employees and of nearly 5 per cent in volume of wages. There were more employees and more wages paid in each of the 11 industrial groups, with the exception of a negligible decrease in wages in the manufacture of paper. The increase in wages exceeded that in number of employees in each group, due to overtime worked as well as increased wage rates. In six of the groups new high records for volume of wages paid were established, and in five of these new high records for number of employees.

As compared with March, one year ago, there was an increase of 9 per cent in number of employees and 23 per cent in the aggregate of wages. As compared with March, two years ago, the increases were 30 and 62 per cent, respectively.

The average earnings for one week of all employees, including both sexes, were, in March, \$15.79, as compared with \$15.31 in the previous month. The average earnings for one week in March, 1916, were \$13.96, and in March, two years ago, \$12.65.

The stone, clay, and glass products group employed in March nearly 3 per cent more workers and paid out 5 per cent more wages than in February. This was a new high record for the group in both respects. Each of the industries in the group reported marked gain over February, except the brick industry, for which the season has not yet fully opened. Even here, however, there was a slight gain. As compared with March of last year, the group as a whole employed 19 per cent more workers and paid out 43 per cent more wages.

The metals, machinery, and conveyances group reported in March not quite 1 per cent increase in number of workers and more than 4 per cent increase in amount of wages paid as compared with February. This group employs many more workers and has a much larger pay roll than either of the other groups. Of the 12 industries in this group, only 2—the fabrication of structural and ornamental ironwork and the manufacture of firearms—reported lessened activity as compared with the previous month. Markedly increased activity in the manufacture of jewelry and silverware, of pig-iron and rolling-mill products, of sheet-metal work and hardware, of cooking, heating, and ventilating apparatus, of machinery, of automobiles and parts, of railroad rolling stock, and of boats and ships was reported. As compared with March, 1916, the group as a whole had 14 per cent more workers and paid out 29 per cent more wages.

The wood-manufactures group reported in March an increase of 1 per cent in employees and of 5 per cent in wages. Each of the industries was more active than in the previous month, the sawing of lumber and the manufacture of musical instruments being most active. As compared with March, one year ago, the group as a whole employed 3 per cent more workers and paid out 17 per cent more wages.

The furs, leather, and rubber goods group in March increased its number of employees by less than 1 per cent and paid out nearly 2 per cent more wages. The boot and shoe industry, which is dominant in this group, reported a slight decrease in activity. The furs and fur goods industry had more employees and a still greater increase in the volume of wages, the latter due to advances in wage rates. Other industries in the group likewise reported an increase in wages greater than that in number of employees. As compared with a year ago, the group employed 6 per cent more workers and paid out 22 per cent more wages.

The chemicals group employed in March 2 per cent more workers and paid out 4 per cent more wages than in the previous month, thereby establishing new high records for this group in both respects. Each of the industries share in the increase, that in wages exceeding that in employees in each instance. The group as a whole employed 11 per cent more workers than in March of last year and paid out 29 per cent more wages.

The paper industry reported almost no change in March as compared with the previous month, there having been an increase of less than 1 per cent in number of employees and a decrease of less than 1 per cent in volume of wages. As compared with March of last year, there were 19 per cent more employees and 28 per cent more wages.



The printing and paper goods group employed in March 1 per cent more workers and paid out 4 per cent more wages than in the previous month. This was a new high record for the group in both respects. As compared with a year ago, the group had 5 per cent more employees and paid out 10 per cent more wages.

The textiles group reported an increase in March of 1 per cent in employees and of 4 per cent in volume of wages as compared with the previous month. This was a new high record in both respects for this group. This rate of increase was shared in by each of the industries, except the manufacture of cotton cloth, which was almost unchanged. As compared with the same month a year ago, the group had 5 per cent more employees and paid out 20 per cent more wages.

The clothing, millinery, and laundering group attained in March a new high level both in number of employees and in amount of wages. The increases over last month were 2 per cent in employees and 7 per cent in wages. Each of the industries shared in the increase. As compared with March of last year, the group employed 3 per cent more workers and paid out 16 per cent more wages.

The food, liquors, and tobacco group reported 4 per cent more employees and 7 per cent greater volume of wages in March than in the previous month. This established a new high record in number of employees for this group. The greatest gain over last month was in miscellaneous groceries, due largely to increased activity in sugar refining, although all industries in the group reported increases over last month. As compared with a year ago, the group had 5 per cent more workers and paid out 17 per cent more wages.

The water, light, and power industry reported in March a gain of nearly 1 per cent in employees and of 2 per cent in wages as compared with last month, and a gain of 5 per cent in employees and of 17 per cent in wages as compared with March of last year.

#### BUILDING ACTIVITY IN PRINCIPAL CITIES.

[As reported by building departments.]

Building activity in New York State, as measured by returns from the building departments of the 10 first and second class cities, was 15 per cent greater in March than in the previous month and 20 per cent less than in March of last year. The value of the permits issued in New York City in March was 87 per cent of the total issued in the entire State. As compared with February, only two of the cities—Albany and Schenectady—failed to report gains. New York City reported a gain, despite a loss in the Borough of Manhattan. As compared with March of last year, four cities—Albany, Buffalo, New York City, and Yonkers—reported losses.

#### WORK OF STATE AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND OF PROVINCIAL EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN CANADA.

In the following table will be found information relative to the operations of public employment offices for March, 1916, and March, 1917. The figures given for the United States are for State employment bureaus in 16 States, municipal employment bureaus in 8 States, State-city employment bureaus in 2 States, and a city-private em-

ployment bureau in 1 State. Information is also given for two Canadian employment bureaus.

## OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917.

## UNITED STATES.

State and city.	Applica- tions from employ- ers.	Persons asked for by employ- ers.	Persons applying for work.		Persons referred to positions.	Positions filled.
			New registra- tions.	Renew- als.		
California (municipal):						
Berkeley—						
March, 1916.....	240	259	104	554	259	259
March, 1917.....	277	319	101	517	318	318
Fresno—						
March, 1916.....	251	251	724	126	286	286
March, 1917.....	448	448	646	271	472	433
Sacramento—						
March, 1916.....	182	(1)	82	(1)	312	312
March, 1917.....	194	275	70	(1)	275	275
California (State-city):						
Los Angeles—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	6,757	1,962	(1)	7,222	6,638
March, 1917.....	3,614	6,320	2,482	(1)	5,737	5,003
California (State):						
Oakland—						
March, 1916.....	385	590	957	121	657	501
March, 1917.....	855	1,047	502	461	1,008	769
Sacramento—						
March, 1916.....	131	234	494	24	192	120
March, 1917.....	309	527	407	158	457	385
San Francisco—						
March, 1916.....	498	1,104	2,110	96	1,070	879
March, 1917.....	1,623	2,917	1,961	991	2,765	1,960
Total:						
March, 1916.....					9,998	8,945
March, 1917.....					11,032	9,143
Colorado:						
Colorado Springs (State):						
March, 1916.....	(1)	552	681	(1)	509	(1)
March, 1917.....	544	544	592	(1)	(1)	503
Denver, No. 1—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	196	214	(1)	146	(1)
March, 1917.....	293	293	354	(1)	(1)	223
Denver, No. 2—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	260	446	(1)	233	(1)
March, 1917.....	367	367	305	(1)	(1)	206
Pueblo—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	243	253	(1)	223	(1)
March, 1917.....	351	351	402	(1)	(1)	343
Total:						
March, 1916.....					1,111	(1)
March, 1917.....					(1)	1,280
Connecticut (State):						
Bridgeport—						
March, 1916.....	541	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	482
March, 1917.....	677	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	607
Hartford—						
March, 1916.....	562	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	427
March, 1917.....	938	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	747
New Haven—						
March, 1916.....	510	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	403
March, 1917.....	773	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	654
Norwich—						
March, 1916.....	213	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	201
March, 1917.....	275	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	256
Waterbury—						
March, 1916.....	202	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	110
March, 1917.....	165	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	108
Total:						
March, 1916.....					(1)	1,623
March, 1917.....					(1)	2,372

<sup>1</sup> Not reported.

## 786 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917—Continued.

## UNITED STATES—Continued.

State and city.	Applications from employers.	Persons asked for by employers.	Persons applying for work.		Persons referred to positions.	Positions filled.
			New registrations.	Renewals.		
Illinois (municipal):						
Chicago—						
March, 1916.....	67	1,624	350	(1)	1,624	912
March, 1917.....	22	303	800	(1)	303	148
Illinois (State):						
Chicago—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	4,481	5,673	(1)	(1)	4,085
March, 1917.....	4,977	11,161	10,707	2,068	12,119	9,033
East St. Louis—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	1,730	1,850	(1)	(1)	1,052
March, 1917.....	447	951	299	632	870	820
Peoria—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	950	701	(1)	(1)	681
March, 1917.....	808	1,106	193	720	874	866
Rockford—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	955	861	(1)	(1)	743
March, 1917.....	717	1,226	659	237	838	788
Rock Island-Moline—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	672	606	(1)	(1)	416
March, 1917.....	466	791	381	299	504	87
Springfield—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	508	606	(1)	(1)	455
March, 1917.....	447	519	210	316	478	430
Total:						
March, 1916.....					(1)	8,344
March, 1917.....					15,986	12,172
Indiana (State):						
Evansville—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	178	2 268	(1)	184	159
March, 1917.....	107	357	7	2	417	326
Fort Wayne—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	301	2 290	(1)	273	259
March, 1917.....	757	437	171	528	708	699
Indianapolis—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	356	2 425	(1)	367	338
March, 1917.....	1,191	1,191	867	211	1,161	1,078
South Bend—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	430	2 482	(1)	344	322
March, 1917.....	133	418	358	34	340	300
Total:						
March, 1916.....					1,168	1,078
March, 1917.....					2,626	2,403
Iowa (State):						
Des Moines—						
March, 1917.....	76	136	105	26	125	52
Kansas (State):						
Topeka—						
March, 1916.....	21	21	86	6	16	16
March, 1917.....	94	130	119	4	121	100
Kentucky (city private):						
Louisville—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	174	331	713	183	88
March, 1917.....	(1)	541	384	643	543	196
Kentucky (State):						
Louisville—						
March, 1916.....	237	237	2 497	(1)	237	237
March, 1917.....	234	234	2 345	(1)	234	234
Total:						
March, 1916.....					420	325
March, 1917.....					777	430

<sup>1</sup> Not reported.<sup>2</sup> Number applying for work.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917—  
Continued.

## UNITED STATES—Continued.

State and city.	Applica- tions from employ- ers.	Persons asked for by em- ployers.	Persons applying for work.		Persons referred to positions.	Positions filled.
			New registra- tions.	Renew- als.		
Massachusetts (State):						
Boston—						
March, 1916.....	1,984	2,341	1 1,419	(2)	3 3,955	1,701
March, 1917.....	1,949	2,189	1 1,126	(2)	3 3,116	1,351
Fall River—						
March, 1916.....	127	143	1 38	(2)	3 133	110
March, 1917.....	82	84	1 2	(2)	71	71
Springfield—						
March, 1916.....	786	962	1 334	(2)	3 1,133	727
March, 1917.....	926	1,251	1 347	(2)	3 1,255	847
Worcester—						
March, 1916.....	956	1,191	1 703	(2)	3 1,483	735
March, 1917.....	983	1,208	1 495	(2)	3 1,268	700
Total:						
March, 1916.....					3 6,704	3,273
March, 1917.....					3 5,710	2,969
Michigan (State):						
Battle Creek—						
March, 1916.....	190	284	4 232	(2)	232	161
March, 1917.....	47	189	4 85	(2)	74	74
Bay City—						
March, 1916.....	53	168	4 110	(2)	80	80
March, 1917.....	40	93	4 122	(2)	69	69
Detroit—						
March, 1916.....	2,356	(2)	(2)	(2)	5,544	5,179
March, 1917.....	836	4,196	(2)	(2)	3,956	3,956
Flint—						
March, 1916.....	200	559	4 559	(2)	559	559
March, 1917.....	650	650	4 650	(2)	650	650
Grand Rapids—						
March, 1916.....	782	868	4 833	(2)	813	813
March, 1917.....	425	727	4 722	(2)	684	684
Jackson—						
March, 1916.....	408	759	4 753	(2)	719	712
March, 1917.....	362	767	4 765	(2)	754	749
Kalamazoo—						
March, 1916.....	550	(2)	4 625	(2)	406	406
March, 1917.....	428	543	4 428	(2)	428	428
Lansing—						
March, 1916.....	52	314	4 262	(2)	241	241
March, 1917.....	52	190	4 68	(2)	59	59
Muskegon—						
March, 1916.....	108	272	4 270	(2)	239	192
March, 1917.....	54	155	4 138	(2)	132	127
Saginaw—						
March, 1916.....	670	670	4 650	(2)	650	650
March, 1917.....	121	579	4 497	(2)	466	466
Total:						
March, 1916.....					9,483	8,993
March, 1917.....					7,272	7,262
Minnesota (State):						
Duluth—						
March, 1916.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	650
March, 1917.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1,168
Minneapolis—						
March, 1916.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1,251
March, 1917.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	1,501
St. Paul—						
March, 1916.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	708
March, 1917.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	878
Total:						
March, 1916.....						2,609
March, 1917.....						3,547

<sup>1</sup> Number who were registered.<sup>2</sup> Not reported.<sup>3</sup> Number of offers of positions.<sup>4</sup> Number applying for work.

## 788 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917—  
Continued.

## UNITED STATES—Continued.

State and city.	Applica- tions from employ- ers.	Persons asked for by em- ployers.	Persons applying for work.		Persons referred to positions.	Positions filled.
			New registra- tions.	Renew- als.		
Missouri (State):						
Kansas City—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
March, 1917.....	984	1,737	939	(1)	1,598	1,403
St. Joseph—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
March, 1917.....	1,072	(1)	954	(1)	954	949
St. Louis—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
March, 1917.....	585	1,086	503	(1)	581	537
Total:						
March, 1916.....					(1)	(1)
March, 1917.....					3,133	2,889
Montana (municipal):						
Butte—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	(1)	* 660	(1)	(1)	357
March, 1917.....	(1)	360	550	(1)	(1)	305
New York (municipal):						
New York City—						
March, 1916.....	2,279	2,502	2,316	(1)	2,761	1,926
March, 1917.....	2,876	3,166	2,351	2,388	3,963	2,665
New York (State):						
Albany—						
March, 1916.....	370	538	539	367	630	333
March, 1917.....	596	743	480	340	786	405
Brooklyn—						
March, 1916.....	1,352	2,186	1,619	500	2,129	1,142
March, 1917.....	1,538	2,061	1,256	688	2,271	1,401
Buffalo—						
March, 1916.....	672	893	635	304	899	602
March, 1917.....	1,276	1,801	1,332	142	1,874	1,391
Rochester—						
March, 1916.....	1,121	1,627	969	285	1,550	859
March, 1917.....	1,739	2,381	917	633	1,942	1,037
Syracuse—						
March, 1916.....	657	836	576	107	839	592
March, 1917.....	1,369	1,899	891	320	1,636	1,091
Total:						
March, 1916.....					8,808	5,454
March, 1917.....					12,472	7,990
Ohio (State-city):						
Akron—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	1,789	586	1,445	1,360	1,110
March, 1917.....	(1)	2,409	906	1,861	1,927	1,657
Cincinnati—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	2,286	1,790	4,130	2,020	1,356
March, 1917.....	(1)	2,004	1,749	3,151	1,999	1,366
Cleveland—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	7,209	1,984	7,819	5,151	4,377
March, 1917.....	(1)	7,815	3,135	9,222	6,872	5,520
Columbus—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	2,223	900	2,601	2,128	1,604
March, 1917.....	(1)	2,492	640	2,412	2,209	1,950
Dayton—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	1,235	518	1,214	1,013	845
March, 1917.....	(1)	1,314	634	1,244	1,082	960
Toledo—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	3,008	1,227	2,267	2,414	1,999
March, 1917.....	(1)	2,857	1,098	3,087	2,544	2,122
Youngstown—						
March, 1916.....	(1)	1,115	816	1,191	1,170	998
March, 1917.....	(1)	1,309	791	925	1,273	1,094
Total:						
March, 1916.....					15,256	12,199
March, 1917.....					17,897	14,669

1 Not reported.

2 Number applying for work.

3 Includes branches.



OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917—  
Continued.

## UNITED STATES—Continued.

State and city.	Applica- tions from employ- ers.	Persons asked for by em- ployers.	Persons applying for work.		Persons referred to positions.	Positions filled.
			New registra- tions.	Renew- als.		
Oklahoma (State):						
Enid—						
March, 1916	239	(1)	<sup>2</sup> 265	(1)	(1)	237
March, 1917	(1)	125	<sup>2</sup> 157	(1)	109	111
Muskogee—						
March, 1916	254	(1)	<sup>2</sup> 187	(1)	(1)	150
March, 1917	(1)	444	<sup>2</sup> 308	(1)	299	286
Oklahoma City—						
March, 1916	267	(1)	<sup>2</sup> 271	(1)	(1)	220
March, 1917	(1)	518	<sup>2</sup> 480	(1)	476	434
Tulsa—						
March, 1916	362	(1)	<sup>2</sup> 324	(1)	(1)	320
March, 1917	(1)	1,113	<sup>2</sup> 1,057	(1)	1,060	1,060
Total:						
March, 1916					(1)	927
March, 1917					1,944	1,891
Oregon (municipal):						
Portland—						
March, 1916	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
March, 1917	851	1,308	270	(1)	(1)	1,178
Pennsylvania (State):						
Altoona—						
March, 1916	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
March, 1917	(1)	129	93	33	91	82
Harrisburg—						
March, 1916	(1)	320	316	118	336	221
March, 1917	(1)	634	231	135	360	323
Johnstown—						
March, 1916	(1)	264	82	17	66	42
March, 1917	(1)	155	93	14	92	75
Philadelphia—						
March, 1916	(1)	647	761	350	589	391
March, 1917	(1)	1,228	825	696	1,209	1,002
Pittsburgh—						
March, 1916	(1)	2,959	1,170	37	708	668
March, 1917	(1)	1,428	679	188	732	670
Total:						
March, 1916					1,699	1,322
March, 1917					2,484	2,152
Rhode Island (State):						
Providence—						
March, 1916	253	268	196	150	(1)	268
March, 1917	164	177	119	143	(1)	177
Texas (municipal):						
Dallas—						
March, 1916	188	238	86	6	284	238
March, 1917	252	477	<sup>3</sup> 307	22	500	437
Fort Worth—						
March, 1916	160	217	239	63	201	185
March, 1917	185	424	<sup>4</sup> 1,468	69	327	318
Total:						
March, 1916					485	423
March, 1917					827	755
Virginia (municipal):						
Richmond—						
March, 1916	237	380	555	(1)	489	171
March, 1917	238	369	446	(1)	446	181

<sup>1</sup> Not reported.<sup>2</sup> Number applying for work.<sup>3</sup> Includes 172 transient applicants.<sup>4</sup> Includes 1,080 unwritten registrations.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN MARCH, 1916, AND MARCH, 1917—  
Concluded.

## UNITED STATES—Concluded.

State and city.	Applica- tions from employ- ers.	Persons asked for by em- ployers.	Persons applying for work.		Persons referred to positions.	Positions filled.
			New registra- tions.	Renew- als.		
Washington (Federal-municipal):						
Tacoma <sup>1</sup> .....						
Washington (municipal):						
Everett—						
March, 1916.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	282
March, 1917.....	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	261
Seattle—						
March, 1916.....	972	2,900	(2)	(2)	2,870	965
March, 1917.....	3,499	5,159	(2)	(2)	5,163	4,700
Spokane—						
March, 1916.....	960	1,250	100	50	1,194	1,194
March, 1917.....	1,760	2,150	25	5	2,004	1,921
Total:						
March, 1916.....					4,064	2,441
March, 1917.....					7,167	6,882

## CANADA.

Quebec (Province):						
Montreal—						
March, 1917.....	368	614	358	(2)	469	390
Quebec—						
March, 1916.....	(2)	122	3183	(2)	(2)	75
March, 1917.....	(2)	31	3111	(2)	(2)	24
Total:						
March, 1916.....					(2)	(2)
March, 1917.....					(2)	414

<sup>1</sup> Figures for this office are carried regularly in the REVIEW under the subject "Federal employment work of the Department of Labor," to which the reader is referred.

<sup>2</sup> Not reported.

<sup>3</sup> Number applying for work.

## FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

During February, 1917, the Division of Information of the Bureau of Immigration of the Department of Labor placed 18,367 persons in employment, as compared with 19,735 during January, 1917. Incomplete returns for March—reports from the important office in Newark, N. J., and its subbranches not having been received in time to be tabulated—REVIEW show a total of 32,698 persons placed during the month.

The following statement of the work of the 19 different zones, covering the whole country, gives details for January and February, 1917:

SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FOR THE MONTHS OF JANUARY AND FEBRUARY, 1917.

Zone number and office.	Opportunities received.				Applications for employment.					
	Applications for help.		Persons applied for.		Applications received.		Referred to employment.		Number actually employed.	
	January.	February.	January.	February.	January.	February.	January.	February.	January.	February.
1. Boston, Mass.....	6	5	16	157	49	48	7	5	7	5
2. New York, N. Y. <sup>1</sup> .....	6,148	5,306	8,268	8,443	8,067	7,944	9,093	7,687	5,503	4,855
Buffalo, N. Y. <sup>2</sup> .....	948	798	1,574	1,779	1,508	2,010	1,808	1,571	1,402	1,131
Total.....	7,096	6,104	9,842	10,222	9,575	9,954	10,901	9,258	6,905	5,986
2a. Newark, N. J.....	1,323	1,004	3,263	3,443	3,140	2,443	2,814	2,123	2,125	2,060
Orange, N. J.....	150	179	375	473	317	319	255	246	223	195
Jersey City, N. J.....	287	41	826	608	621	611	521	487	460	431
Total.....	1,760	1,224	4,464	4,524	4,078	3,373	3,590	2,856	2,808	2,686
3. Philadelphia, Pa.....	127	192	313	602	549	890	441	794	330	739
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	40	39	1,549	1,439	1,149	700	504	429	443	350
Wilmington, Del.....	19	19	56	( <sup>3</sup> )	157	154	157	174	132	148
Total.....	186	250	1,918	2,041	1,855	1,744	1,102	1,397	905	1,237
4. Baltimore, Md.....	107	106	125	629	294	319	214	174	214	174
5. Norfolk, Va.....	23	18	44	277	121	99	79	85	23	26
6. Jacksonville, Fla.....		1		1	18	11	2	1	2	1
Miami, Fla.....	24	1	29	2	96	34	30	2	18	2
Savannah, Ga.....	1	2	25	6	20	17	15	4	14	4
Charleston, S. C.....	2	2	2	2	155	35	137	21	137	21
Mobile, Ala.....					6	15				
Total.....	27	6	56	11	295	112	184	28	171	28
7. New Orleans, La.....	65	61	125	120	363	320	341	315	75	75
Gulfport, Miss.....					83	68				
Memphis, Tenn.....		17		30	70	27	5	17	5	
Total.....	65	78	125	150	516	415	346	332	80	75
8. Galveston, Tex.....	13	5	13	6	34	16	29	13	19	13
Houston, Tex.....					35	41				
El Paso, Tex.....						2				
San Antonio, Tex.....					1					
Albuquerque, N. Mex.....		1		50						
Total.....	13	6	13	56	70	59	29	13	19	13
9. Cleveland, Ohio.....	18	50	22	94	81	79	62	75	14	21
10. Chicago, Ill.....	666	522	3,484	2,977	3,646	2,657	3,088	2,392	2,892	2,136
Detroit, Mich.....	111	92	454	373	470	323	470	323	454	323
Sault Ste. Marie, Mich.....	7	5	438	17	71	51	44	22	44	21
Indianapolis, Ind.....	199	190	592	355	774	620	511	351	423	278
Total.....	983	809	4,968	3,722	4,961	3,651	4,113	3,088	3,813	2,758
11. Minneapolis, Minn.....	20	29	26	35	39	28	12	11	12	11

<sup>1</sup> Inclusive of activities in cooperation with the State and municipal employment offices.

<sup>2</sup> Inclusive of activities in cooperation with the State employment office.

<sup>3</sup> Not reported.

## 792 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

## SUMMARY OF ACTIVITIES OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE FOR THE MONTHS OF JANUARY AND FEBRUARY, 1917—Concluded.

Zone number and office.	Opportunities received.				Applications for employment.					
	Applications for help.		Persons applied for.		Applications received.		Referred to employment.		Number actually employed.	
	January.	February.	January.	February.	January.	February.	January.	February.	January.	February.
12. St. Louis, Mo.....	322	296	1,060	831	590	435	656	634	639	617
Omaha, Nebr.....	182	466	336	663	829	786	326	721	283	579
Kansas City, Mo.....	411	484	620	923	812	807	697	834	606	674
Total.....	915	1,246	2,016	2,417	2,231	2,028	1,679	2,189	1,528	1,870
13. Denver, Colo.....	33	17	33	17	78	102	53	35	18	15
14. Helena, Mont.....	5	5	5	5	4	15	5	5	5	5
Moscow, Idaho.....	1	3	1	3	1	16	1	3	1	3
Total.....	1	8	1	8	5	31	1	8	1	8
15. Seattle, Wash.....	114	104	218	151	1,560	1,328	150	125	122	108
Aberdeen, Wash.....	12	7	38	44	114	202	36	47	36	44
Bellingham, Wash.....	106	123	237	303	307	298	201	299	182	275
Everett, Wash.....	2	2	3	2	5	16	4	2	2	1
North Yakima, Wash.....	201	244	296	343	595	608	257	343	232	308
Spokane, Wash.....	30	81	60	127	199	374	56	110	55	105
Tacoma, Wash.....	335	299	677	840	1,424	1,054	656	816	650	801
Walla Walla, Wash.....	34	75	58	95	321	516	45	95	32	78
Total.....	834	935	1,587	1,905	4,525	4,396	1,405	1,837	1,311	1,720
16. Portland, Oreg.....	601	693	829	886	1,278	1,075	838	766	796	728
Astoria, Oreg.....	20	9	37	18	484	380	35	10	33	9
Total.....	621	702	866	914	1,762	1,455	873	776	829	737
17. San Francisco, Cal.....	471	385	786	496	1,171	760	620	487	371	323
Reno, Nev.....	24	26	44	38	36	38	36	40	36	38
Total.....	495	411	830	534	1,207	798	656	527	407	361
18. Los Angeles, Cal.....	47	43	52	52	315	283	47	42	27	25
San Diego, Cal.....	436	426	661	717	893	727	1,028	801	642	611
Douglas, Ariz.....	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Total.....	484	469	714	769	1,209	1,010	1,076	843	670	636
Grand total.....	13,687	12,473	27,666	28,482	32,951	29,701	26,382	23,537	19,735	18,367

## CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, MARCH 16 TO APRIL 15, 1917.

Under the organic act of the department, which gives the Secretary of Labor the authority to mediate in labor disputes through the appointment, in his discretion, of commissioners of conciliation, the Secretary exercised his good offices between March 16, 1917, and April 15, 1917, in 18 labor disputes. The companies involved, the number of employees affected, and the results secured, so far as information is available, were as follows:

## NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, MAR. 16 TO APR. 15, 1917.

Name.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Strike, Moulthrop Bros. Co., New Brighton, Pa. ....	28	260	Adjusted.
Strike, Standard Gauge Steel Co., Beaver Falls, Pa. ....	300	700	Do.
Strikes of machinists (9 shops), Wilmington, Del. ....	690	5,350	Pending.
Threatened strike of machinists, Remington Arms Co., Bridgeport, Conn. ....	1,100	.....	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, U. M. Cartridge Co., Bridgeport, Conn. ....	12,000	.....	Do.
Lockout of building mechanics and laborers, Cleveland, Ohio. ....	20,000	.....	Do.
Strike of machinists, boiler makers, blacksmiths and their helpers, and car men, Western Maryland R. R. Co., Hagerstown, and other points in Maryland. ....	550	800	Unable to adjust.
Threatened strike, Chicago & Alton R. R. Co., Chicago, Ill. ....	1,200	.....	Adjusted.
Threatened strike of mechanics, Boston & Albany R. R. Co., Boston, Mass. ....	.....	.....	Pending.
Controversy between Missouri, Kansas & Texas R. R. Co. and its car men, Denison, Tex. ....	1,500	3,000	Do.
Strikes of porcelain workers (10 potteries), Trenton, N. J. ....	1,000	1,500	Do.
Strike of longshoremen, Porto Rico and Bull Insular S. S. Co., New York and Porto Rico. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike, Chester & Kennett Square Trolley Co. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike of pattern makers, New London Ship & Engine Co., New London, Conn. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Controversy between electrical contractors and International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, Richmond, Va. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike of pattern makers, Crane Co., Bridgeport, Conn., and Chicago, Ill. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike, Philadelphia Shirt Co., Philadelphia, Pa. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike, Belmer Trunk & Bag Co., Philadelphia, Pa. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Controversy, tin plate department of Wheeling Steel & Iron Co., Wheeling, W. Va. ....	1,200	.....	Do.
Controversy between ferry boat companies and employees, San Francisco, Cal. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike of pattern makers, Otis Steel Co., Cleveland, Ohio. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike, Massillon Steel & Tin Plate Co., Massillon, Ohio. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Controversy between Missouri Pacific R. R. Co. and maintenance-of-way employees, St. Louis, Mo., reopened. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike of garment workers, Chicago, Ill. ....	.....	.....	Do.
Strike of fishermen, Gloucester, Mass. ....	.....	.....	Do.

The following cases have been disposed of:

Strike of employees, Georgia Railway & Power Co., Atlanta, Ga.: Unable to adjust.

Strike of National Silk Dyeing Co., Allentown, Pa.: Adjusted.

Lockout of laboring men in Montana: Adjusted.

Strike of freight clerks and freight handlers, Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Co. and Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton Railroad Co., at Cincinnati, Ohio: Unable to adjust.

Strike of actors, Boston, Lynn, and Haverhill, Mass.: Unable to adjust.

## IMMIGRATION IN FEBRUARY, 1917.

The number of immigrant aliens admitted to the United States during the year 1916 was 355,767, as compared with 258,678 for the year 1915, an increase of 97,089. There was also an increase from month to month during 7 of the 12 months. The figures for January, February, and March, 1917, show a decrease of 19.9, 22.3, and 27.8 per cent, respectively. These facts are brought out in the following table:



## 794 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED INTO THE UNITED STATES IN SPECIFIED MONTHS,  
1913 TO 1917.

Month.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	
					Number.	Per cent increase over preceding month.
January.....	46,441	44,708	15,481	17,293	24,745	119.9
February.....	59,156	46,873	13,873	24,740	19,238	122.3
March.....	96,958	92,621	19,263	27,586	13,896	127.8
April.....	136,371	119,885	24,532	30,560	.....	.....
May.....	137,262	107,796	26,069	31,021	.....	.....
June.....	176,261	71,728	22,598	30,764	.....	.....
July.....	138,244	60,377	21,504	25,035	.....	.....
August.....	126,180	37,706	21,949	29,975	.....	.....
September.....	136,247	29,143	24,513	36,398	.....	.....
October.....	134,440	30,416	25,450	37,056	.....	.....
November.....	104,671	26,298	24,545	34,437	.....	.....
December.....	95,387	20,944	18,901	30,902	.....	.....

<sup>1</sup> Decrease.

Classified by races, the number of immigrant aliens admitted to and emigrant aliens departing from the United States during February, 1916 and 1917, was as follows:

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED TO AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTING FROM  
THE UNITED STATES, FEBRUARY, 1916 AND 1917.

Race.	Admitted.		Departed.	
	February, 1916.	February, 1917.	February, 1916.	February, 1917.
African (black).....	129	264	42	85
Armenian.....	68	43	15	5
Bohemian and Moravian.....	51	18	2	3
Bulgarian, Servian, Montenegrin.....	124	29	1	46
Chinese.....	90	86	110	213
Croatian and Slovenian.....	27	33	12	.....
Cuban.....	57	135	104	103
Dalmatian, Bosnian, Herzegovinian.....	1	5	.....	.....
Dutch and Flemish.....	410	270	29	26
East Indian.....	5	3	3	9
English.....	2,579	2,002	423	259
Finnish.....	835	283	31	56
French.....	1,164	1,296	145	101
German.....	823	754	50	175
Greek.....	647	1,263	324	59
Hebrew.....	1,103	1,341	27	4
Irish.....	1,153	962	64	42
Italian (north).....	402	327	178	102
Italian (south).....	3,871	3,530	799	353
Japanese.....	494	636	57	33
Korean.....	12	17	5	4
Lithuanian.....	50	20	.....	.....
Magyar.....	98	34	32	1
Mexican.....	4,175	1,392	43	53
Pacific Islander.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
Polish.....	368	196	18	3
Portuguese.....	2,454	687	57	81
Roumanian.....	59	33	9	1
Russian.....	514	283	155	234
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	42	144	2	.....
Scandinavian.....	1,164	768	233	304
Scotch.....	908	881	95	64
Slovak.....	46	9	2	.....
Spanish.....	493	1,015	152	147
Spanish-American.....	97	193	73	39
Syrian.....	34	100	.....	2
Turkish.....	6	5	3	1
Welsh.....	70	41	9	3
West Indian (except Cuban).....	32	68	39	48
Other peoples.....	85	72	16	15
Not specified.....	.....	.....	676	685
Total.....	24,740	19,238	4,035	3,359

## OFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

## UNITED STATES.

CONNECTICUT.—*Twenty-seventh Report of the Bureau of Labor for the two years ended November 30, 1916. Public Document No. 23. Hartford, 1916. 96 pp.*

The introduction states that "the past two years have been years of unrest in labor circles, and the number of strikes reported largely exceeds those in any similar period." The report lists 422 strikes and lockouts involving 67,717 workers, "as many as there were involved during the past 11 years," the number of days lost being 631,235, with a wage loss of about \$1,500,000. Sixty-one were reported as successful, 255 as unsuccessful, and 121 as being settled by compromise. Although the law requires the reporting by physicians of all cases of occupational disease, it is stated that very few reports of the kind were made to the department. During the two years 139 such cases were reported, 110 being reported by one physician. Nearly all of the cases were of minor importance, affecting the skin only. A large increase (133.6 per cent) is shown in the number of positions filled by the five free employment bureaus, the total during the two years being 37,404 as compared with 16,009 for 1913-14. The average cost of each position filled was 77 cents in 1915 and 35 cents in 1916.

ILLINOIS.—*Industrial Board (303 City Hall Square Building, Chicago). Third annual report, June 30, 1916. Springfield, 1916. 69 pp.*

—*State Board of Prison Industries. Annual reports, January 1, 1915, to December 31, 1915; January 1, 1916, to December 31, 1916. [Springfield, 1917.] 87 pp.*

Shows the amount, the value, and the method of distribution of the products of individual State institutions; no summary of data for all institutions is given. The pamphlet also contains the text of the convict-labor laws of the State.

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Bureau of Statistics. Labor injunctions in Massachusetts, with compilation of statutes relating to labor disputes. Labor Bulletin 117. Boston, November 1, 1916. 254 pp.*

This bulletin presents a survey of litigation in labor disputes and contains chapters on the court of equity, its origin and jurisdiction; the law relating to labor disputes; typical forms in injunction cases; cases relating to labor disputes in Massachusetts, 1910 to 1916; and cases of contempt of court.

—*Homestead Commission. Fourth annual report, 1916. Public Document No. 103. Boston, 1917. 79 pp.*

Gives plans for promoting the construction of dwellings for workers by the State, the suggestions being based upon the conclusion of the commission that \$15 per month or \$2,000 for purchase price is the utmost that the people sought to be helped can afford to pay for shelter. It is not proposed, states the report, that the State shall enter the real estate business for the purpose of supplying wholesome homes for mechanics, factory employees, laborers, and others in the suburbs of cities and towns, no matter how great the social or individual need may be, but the commission "only recommends an appropriation for a single experiment or demonstration to learn whether it is financially possible to supply such homes for such workers, what are the principles or policies upon which such an undertaking ought to proceed, what are the dangers and what should be the limitations." The principal considerations which induce the commission to make this recommendation are given as follows:

There are not enough wholesome, low-cost dwellings; there is no prospect that present methods will ever supply enough unless the State encourages their construction; therefore the State should experiment to learn whether it is possible to build wholesome dwellings within the means of low-paid workers.

## 796 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Minimum Wage Commission. Fourth annual report for the year ending December 31, 1916. Public Document No. 102. Boston, 1917. 55 pp.*

See pages 667 to 669 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW for a review of this report.

— — — *Wages of women in men's clothing and raincoat factories in Massachusetts. Bulletin No. 13, December, 1916. Boston, 1917. 60 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 670 to 673 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

MINNESOTA.—*Department of Labor Statistics. Fifteenth biennial report, 1915-16. 195 pp.*

A digest of this report will appear in a future issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

NORTH CAROLINA.—*Department of Labor and Printing. Thirtieth annual report, 1916. Raleigh, 1916. 390 pp.*

Contains general chapters on farms and farm labor, the trades, cotton, woolen, and silk mills, knitting mills, furniture factories, miscellaneous factories, newspapers, and railroads and employees. The following table indicates the number of employees reported and the highest and lowest average wages paid by the various industries reporting.

HIGHEST AND LOWEST AVERAGE WAGES PAID TO WORKERS IN THE VARIOUS INDUSTRIES OF NORTH CAROLINA, SHOWING ALSO THE NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN EMPLOYED.

Industry.	Number reporting.	Women and children employed.		Wages paid per day.			
				Males.		Females.	
		Number.	Per cent.	Highest.	Lowest.	Highest.	Lowest.
Farms.....				\$1.13	\$0.72	\$0.71	\$0.45
Trades.....				4.50	1.42		
Cotton mills.....	306	25,016	23.72	3.05	.97	1.54	.85
Woolen mills.....	5	197	35.18	2.90	1.00	1.76	.75
Silk mills.....	4	625	69.83	4.00	1.43	3.83	
Cordage mills.....	3	110	46.81	2.20	.93	1.00	.80
Knitting mills.....	87	16,986	62.19	2.89	<sup>1</sup> 1.10	1.92	1.83
Furniture factories.....	96	292	38.76	2.88	.91		

<sup>1</sup> Number of women, 6,138, reported by 65 mills; number of children, 848, reported by 32 mills.

<sup>2</sup> Reported by 64 mills.

<sup>3</sup> Reported by 62 mills.

<sup>4</sup> Reported by 63 mills.

OKLAHOMA.—*State Industrial Commission. Bulletin No. 1, Oklahoma workmen's compensation law, rules and regulations, August 1, 1915. [Oklahoma City, 1917.] 32 pp.*

Contains digest of the workmen's compensation law, the text of the law, and rules of procedure before the State industrial commission.

— — — *First annual report, September 1, 1915, to October 31, 1916. Oklahoma City, January 1, 1917. 15 pp.*

This report deals with the first year of the operation of the workmen's compensation law. During the year 4,675 employers complied with the law by filing with the commission copies of their insurance policies. It is estimated that the number of employees under the act was 80,000. A total of 9,125 accidents was reported; 2,022 claims were filed. These figures, however, include reports and claims filed after September 1, covering accidents that occurred prior to that date. The total compensation paid was \$108,713.71, to which should be added \$15,311.05 paid by self-insured employers who paid benefits more than required by law. The amount paid for medical attendance was \$91,546.96, or over 84 per cent of the amount paid out for compensation. In addition to this the self-insured paid out \$6,446.36 for medical

attendance. The largest compensation payments were made to employees in the oil industry, where 1,414 accidents occurred, and \$28,690.39 was paid out. In cases of hernia the commission allows compensation when it is shown that the hernia was of recent origin, that it was accompanied by pain, that it was immediately preceded by some accidental strain in the course of hazardous employment, and that it did not exist prior to the date of the alleged injury. Under the Oklahoma law no compensation is allowed for death, and an amendment is suggested to remedy this omission.

OREGON.—*Bureau of Labor Statistics and Inspector of Factories and Workshops. Seventh biennial report, from October 1, 1914, to September 30, 1916. Salem, 1916. 228 pp.*

— *Industrial Welfare Commission. Second biennial report, 1915-16. Salem, 1916. 57 pp.*

This report is devoted almost exclusively to the commission's code of rulings relating to the keeping of records, employment of minors, hours of labor, rest periods, wages, apprenticeship, emergency overtime, and sanitation; orders issued by the commission; text of the act creating the commission; extracts from the decision of the Supreme Court of Oregon upholding the constitutionality of the minimum-wage law; and text of the 10-hour law for women. It is noted that "the success of the operation of the minimum-wage law has been very gratifying," and that all the pay rolls submitted to the commission indicate that (1) men have not taken women's places; (2) that the minimum rate of pay for the experienced adult workers has been raised in all occupations, the per cent of the force receiving \$12 a week and over increasing after the wage determinations; and (3) that the average weekly earnings have increased 10 per cent for the total number of women employed. It is further stated that a conference of equal number of representatives of the public, employers, and employees unanimously recommended that the wage awards in several important occupations in Portland be increased from \$8.25 to \$8.64 a week, and that at public hearings held by the commission no one appeared in opposition to the proposed increases, indicating "a very general acceptance of the principles of the law and of the rulings of the commission." The question of the constitutionality of the Oregon minimum wage law was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States, where it is now pending a decision.

TENNESSEE.—*Department of workshop and factory inspection for the fiscal year beginning December 1, 1915, and ending December 31, 1916. Nashville [1917]. 93 pp.*

UTAH.—*Bureau of Immigration, Labor, and Statistics. Third report, 1915, 1916. Eleventh report of the State bureau of statistics. Salt Lake City, 1917. 492 pp.*

Devoted largely to a statement of the resources of Utah, giving detailed information, much of it statistical, respecting agriculture, live-stock development, manufactures, educational facilities, State institutions, and many other facts of general interest. The establishment of free public employment offices under State control is recommended; also the enactment of legislation providing for the inspection and regulation of smelters, mills, factories, workshops, and other places wherein many laborers are employed. It is also suggested that a law be passed giving the State commissioner of labor authority to assist in the collection of wages due employees who have been discharged or who voluntarily quit their employment. The amendment of the eight-hour law for miners, smelters, and mill men so as to include all persons subject to the common dangers and effects peculiar to the work in and around smelters and mills is asked.

VIRGINIA (RICHMOND).—*Second Annual Report of the Public Employment Bureau of the City of Richmond, Va., for the year ending December 31, 1916.* [Richmond, 1916] 11 pp.

There were in 1916, 2,954 employers' applications, an increase of 54.74 per cent over 1915; 5,344 persons called for, an increase of 24.95 per cent over 1915; 6,392 positions offered, an increase of 66.37 per cent over 1915; 2,846 positions filled, an increase of 30.61 per cent over 1915; and 6,725 registrations, a decrease of 6.88 per cent from 1915. A classification of positions filled shows that of 1,448 white persons placed the largest number, 764 (610 males and 154 females), or 52.76 per cent, were employed as skilled workers; and of 1,398 colored persons placed, 825 (males), or 59.01 per cent, were employed as unskilled workers.

WASHINGTON.—*Department of Auditor of State. Bureau of Inspection and Supervision of Public Offices. Special report on the State insurance department, the workmen's compensation act, covering the operations of the department from the beginning on October 1, 1911, to January 1, 1916.* [Olympia, 1917]. 104 pp.

A digest of this report will appear in a future issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of Labor. Report of the Secretary of Labor and reports of bureaus.* Washington, 1917. 540 pp.

This is the annual report covering the activities of the Department of Labor for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1916.

—*Federal Trade Commission. Letter of submittal concerning report on the news-print-paper industry, March 3, 1917.* Washington, 1917. 12 pp.

This report gives the results of the commission's inquiry into the cost of the manufacture of news-print paper, its price to publishers and others, and the question of unfair practices in the industry. Briefly stated, the commission found that the increase in the selling prices of news-print paper for the year 1917 were in most cases greater than could be justified by the increase in cost; that there is not now and has not been a serious shortage of news-print paper; that the system of distribution of news-print paper is faulty; that the increase in prices has been due in part to the fact that free competition has been seriously restricted; that many small publishers have been put out of business and some larger ones are likely to be financially ruined unless conditions are remedied. The commission, in its findings, fixed prices of news-print paper in rolls and in sheets, the former being placed at \$2 per 100 pounds, f. o. b. in carload lots, and the latter at \$3.25.

#### FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

DENMARK.—*Arbejdsløshedsinspektørens Indberetning til Indenrigsministeriet for Regnskabsaaret 1915-16 (1 April 1915-31 Marts 1916).* Copenhagen, 1917. 35 pp.

At the close of the year 1915 there were 57 unemployment-insurance funds in operation in Denmark. During the last fiscal year 3 additional funds were recognized. Of the 60 funds, 56 were individual trades funds, and national in scope, in 3 operations were limited to certain districts, and 1 was purely local in character. During the year the number of insured persons increased from 121,943 men and 17,562 women to 137,172 men and 21,414 women. Membership was distributed as follows: 44.5 per cent were in Copenhagen and Fredericksburg, 38.5 per cent were in towns of the Provinces, and 16.4 per cent [sic] in country districts.

The receipts for the year amounted to 3,460,826 kroner (\$927,501.37), of which sum the State and Provinces contributed 1,588,625 kroner (\$425,751.50), and the expenses were 2,515,027 kroner (\$674,027.24), of which 314,398 kroner



(\$84,258.66) were paid out for administration and 66,281 kroner (\$17,763.31) were credited to a reserve fund. The balance was for assistance of various kinds.

The number of members in the unemployment-insurance funds, unemployed persons receiving benefits, days of benefits paid, and working days lost during the year 1915-16 are as follows:

Statistics are given showing the number of days lost and the number of days for which indemnity was paid, per member, for the years 1908-09 to 1915-16; the number of insured persons to whom indemnity was paid, by classified duration, in weeks of employment; index figures for unemployment assistance paid out; and the financial condition of the funds:

NUMBER OF MEMBERS OF UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE FUNDS, UNEMPLOYED PERSONS RECEIVING BENEFITS, DAYS OF BENEFITS PAID, AND WORKING DAYS LOST, 1915-1916.

Funds.	Number of members.	Persons receiving benefits.		Days benefits paid.		Working days lost.		Per cent of working days lost for which benefits were paid.
		Total.	Per 100 members.	Total.	Per member.	Total.	Per member.	
Building trades and furniture making.....	27,407	12,600	46	437,581	16	912,473	34	47
Day laborers.....	54,152	15,502	31	528,626	10	1,084,570	21	48
Food products.....	19,475	3,415	18	116,653	6	175,293	9	67
Textile and clothing.....	15,954	2,779	19	72,112	5	133,410	9	56
Lumber and woodworking.....	6,293	905	15	22,767	4	41,064	7	57
Metal working.....	19,542	4,278	23	86,052	5	138,766	7	71
Printing and bookbinding.....	6,994	1,397	25	67,451	12	86,911	15	80
Others.....	8,769	836	10	24,863	3	70,878	8	38
All funds.....	158,586	41,712	28	1,356,105	9	2,643,365	18	50

DENMARK.—*Beretning fra Arbejderforsikrings-Raadets. Fiskeriafdeling for Aaret 1915. Copenhagen, 1916. 42 pp.*

Report of the fishermen's branch of the Danish Accident Insurance Office for the year 1915.

— *Industriafdeling for Aaret 1915. Copenhagen, 1916. 16, 235, 54 pp.*

Report of the industrial branch of the Danish Accident Insurance Office for the year 1915.

— *Landbrugsafdeling for Aaret 1915. Copenhagen, 1916. 28, 189, 57 pp.*

Report of the agricultural insurance branch of the Danish Accident Insurance Office for the year 1915.

— *Sofartsafdeling for Aaret 1915. Copenhagen, 1916. 44 pp.*

Report of the marine branch of the Danish Accident Insurance Office for the year 1915.

— *Beretning om Arbejds-og Fabriktilsynets Virksomhed i Aaret 1915. Copenhagen, 1916. 35 pp.*

A report of the factory inspection service for the year 1915, under the laws relating to inspection of industrial establishments, bakeries, and steam engines

— *Statistisk Aarbog 1916. Udgivet af det Statistiske Departement (Danmarks Statistik). Copenhagen, 1916. xxiv, 236 pp.*

This is the statistical yearbook of Denmark, and includes data usually found in Government yearbooks.

— *Statistiske Efterretninger udgivet af det Statistiske Departement. Copenhagen, vol. 9 [1917]. Nos. 1, 2, and 3.*

Current retail prices and unemployment among trade-union members, and miscellaneous statistics.

FRANCE.—*Conseil Supérieur des Sociétés de Secours Mutuels. Procès-Verbaux. Réunion Plénière. Commission des Voeux. Session de décembre 1913. Melun, 1914. 91 pp. Session de juin 1914, Melun 1915. 77 pp. Session d'octobre, 1916, Melun, 1916. 86 pp.*

The volumes are essentially minutes of the proceedings and recommendation of the full commission in session in 1913, 1914, and 1915.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Home Office. Mines and Quarries. General report, including statistics for 1915, by the chief inspector of mines. Part II: Labor. 38 pp. Price 4d. (8 cents). Part III: Output. 22 pp. Price 3d. (6 cents). London, 1917.*

The total number of persons employed in 10,132 mines and quarries in 1915 was 1,035,600, of whom 973,473 were employed in and about mines. This total is a decrease over 1914 of 200,763. There were 83,400 boys and 1,057 girls under 16 years of age employed, an increase over 1914 of 4,079 boys and 140 girls. There were 1,298 separate fatal accidents in and about mines and quarries, causing the loss of 1,392 lives, an increase of 54 fatalities as compared with the previous year. Of these accidents 1,228, causing the loss of 1,318 lives, happened at mines, and 70, causing the loss of 74 lives, happened at quarries, or, expressed in terms of the number of persons employed, the death rate from accidents per 1,000 persons at all mines was 1.354<sup>1</sup> for 1915 as compared with 1.074<sup>2</sup> for 1914. The death rate per million tons of minerals raised during 1915 was 4.90 as compared with 4.91, the average for the decennial period, 1905-1914.

Part III shows that the total output of coal amounted to 253,206,081 tons, valued at £157,830,670 (\$768,082,955.56), these figures being a decrease, as compared with the preceeding year, in output of 12,458,312 tons, and an increase of £25,233,817 (\$122,800,370.43) in value. The average price of coal per ton was 12s. 5.6d. (\$3.03) in 1915, as compared with 9s. 11.79d. (\$2.43) in 1914. The total value of all minerals produced in 1915 was £170,460,949 (\$829,548,208.31) or an increase of £24,597,914 (\$119,705,748.48) over 1914.

NETHERLANDS (AMSTERDAM).—*Bureau van Statistiek. Statistisch Jaarboek der Gemeente Amsterdam, Jaargang, 1916 (1914 en 1915). Amsterdam, 1916. xvi, 254 pp.*

Statistics of the operations of the various municipal official bodies of the city of Amsterdam, and such other subjects as are usually given in annual statistical reports.

NEW ZEALAND.—*Statistics of the Dominion of New Zealand for the year 1915. In 4 volumes; Vol. I: Blue book. Population and vital statistics. Law and crime. Wellington, 1916. 276 pp.*

Entirely statistical. Indicates an estimated population on December 31, 1915, of 1,099,394, "exclusive of Maoris and residents of Cook and other Pacific Islands," an increase of 0.8 per cent over 1914.

NORWAY.—*Sociale Meddelelser utgit av Departementet for Sociale Saker. Christiania, 1916. No. 6.*

Current review of retail prices, comparative cost of living in Copenhagen, Christiania, and Stockholm, the labor market, social legislation in Norway in 1916, and reports from foreign countries.

NOVIA SCOTIA.—*Department of Public Works and Mines. Annual reports of the mines, 1916. Halifax, 1917. 174 pp.*

According to this report coal is the largest single mineral produced, the tonnage (long tons) being 6,496,472, as against 6,379,463 in 1915. The output of the quarries was 279,400 tons of gypsum, 514,574 tons of limestone, 32,399 tons

<sup>1</sup> This is taken from the report. Computed from figures in the report, the rate should be 1.355.

<sup>2</sup> This is taken from the report. Computed from figures in the report, the rate should be 1.082.

of building stone, and 260 tons of grindstone. More than 17,000 tons of gold ore were crushed, producing approximately 4,360 ounces of gold. For the fiscal year ending September 30, 1916, there were 29 fatal accidents in coal mines, the fatality rate being 4.46 per 1,000,000 tons mined, and 2.65 per 1,000 men employed. There were 103 nonfatal accidents.

QUEENSLAND.—*Government relief. Report for 12 months ended June 30, 1915. Brisbane, 1915. 8 pp.*

Reports the work of dealing with applications for relief rations from persons in the metropolis and country and shows that metropolitan relief was administered to 346 families for 1 week to 3 months, to 29 families for 3 to 6 months, and to 14 families for 12 months. The number of families receiving relief for the shortest period was an increase of 89 per cent over the corresponding number for 1913-14. The expenditure for this relief was £1,847 5s. 2d. (\$8,989.68). The largest expenditure was for meat, £752 2s. 3d. (\$3,660.16). In the country the expenditure for relief was £2,701 7s. 11d. (\$13,146.34). The total expenditures for relief, including metropolitan relief, suburban relief, country relief, rail, coach, and steamer fares, and allowances to wives of certain lepers, was £5,723 14s. 10d. (\$27,854.59), or an increase of £2,380 17s. 10d. (\$11,586.61) over 1913-14.

SPAIN.—*Consejo Superior de Emigración. La Emigración Española Transoceánica, 1911-1915. Madrid, 1916. 583 pp. Numerous charts.*

Statistics of emigration showing that of the 602,081 persons recorded as emigrants for trans-Atlantic ports during the quinquennial period, 403,164 were registered as destined to Argentina and 135,759 to Cuba, while only 6,480 departed for the United States. Emigration was most extensive in 1912, when 194,443 persons left for the American continents and adjacent islands, while in 1915 the number of such departures was 50,359. The number of Spaniards leaving for the United States is reported for the respective years as 713, 1,013, 2,185, 1,727, and 842.

SWEDEN.—*Sociala Meddelanden utgivna av K. Socialstyrelsen. Stockholm, 1917. No. 1.*

Review of the labor market, retail prices and cost of living in relation to the war, proposed regulation of sick-fund medical service, hours and wages of agricultural laborers, factory inspection, accidents, social insurance, and reports from foreign countries.

—*Socialstyrelsen. Kungl. Pensionstyrelsen ar 1915. (Sveriges Officiella Statistik.) Stockholm, 1917. 75 pp.*

A report of the operations under the general old-age and invalidity pension law of Sweden for the year ending December 31, 1915. The law is a compulsory old-age pension law for all persons between 15 and 66 years of age and became operative on January 1, 1914. According to a register prepared by the pension office, 3,240,000 were subject to insurance. During the first year of its operation the amount of premiums paid by the insured persons was 8,204,300 kroner (\$2,198,752.40), to which the consumers contributed 9,719,900 kroner (\$2,604,933.20) additional. To this should be added 4,915,000 kroner (\$1,317,220) paid as premium for additional insurance. Preliminary figures for 1915 show that 9,680,800 kroner (\$2,594,454.40) were received as regular dues, 4,821,800 kroner (\$1,292,242.40) as subsidy from the communes, and 6,211,715 kroner (\$1,664,739.62) for additional insurance.

—*Socialstyrelsen Levnadskostnaderna i Sverige, 1913-1914. Del II. Lokalamonografier. 1. Västerås.*

This report shows the results of an investigation on cost of living in Västerås, and follows the plan adopted for a similar report made in Stockholm. Of the

68 families from which reports were received, 8 had an expenditure of less than 1,500 kroner (\$402), 22 of 1,500 and under 1,750 kroner (\$402 to \$469), 18 of 1,750 and under 2,000 kroner (\$469 to \$536), 16 of 2,000 and under 2,500 kroner (\$536 to \$670) and 3 above that amount but under 3,000 kroner (\$804). Of the average total expenditure—namely, \$502—\$224 was for food, \$65 for dwelling, \$71 for clothing, \$21 for insurance and labor unions, and \$94 for miscellaneous expenses, while the savings were \$27. Forty-nine were employed in industry and 19 were in State or public service. The average number of persons per family, classified by expenditure, was, respectively, 3.5, 4.8, 3.9, 5.3, and 6.3. The average for all families was 4.6.

VICTORIA (AUSTRALIA).—*Yearbook, 1915-16. Thirty-sixth issue. Melbourne, 1916. 322 pp.*

Contains chapters on constitution and government; finance; population; municipal statistics; accumulation; vital statistics; law and crime; social condition; interchange; production; statistical summary for Victoria, 1836-1915.

### UNOFFICIAL PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

ABBOTT, EDITH, and BRECKINRIDGE, SOPHONISBA. *Truancy and nonattendance in the Chicago schools. Chicago, 1917. 472 pp.*

An extended review of this book appears on page 772 of this number of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

ALEXANDER, MAGNUS W. *Some Vital Facts and Considerations in Respect to Health Insurance. Published by author, West Lynn, Mass. March, 1917. 15 pp.*

A brief digest of this pamphlet is given on page 750 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE. *Annals, vol. 70, Modern insurance problems. March, 1917. 316 pp.*

An extended review of this volume appears on page 761 of this number of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION. *The American Labor Legislation Review. March, 1917. 131 East Twenty-third Street, New York City. Price, \$1.*

Contains articles on health insurance and working hours in continuous industries; also the minutes of the tenth annual session of the American Association for Labor Legislation, held at Columbus, Ohio, in December, 1916. That portion of the publication devoted to health insurance is noted in this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW on page 746.

AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH COMPANY. *Annual report of the directors to the stockholders for the year ending December 31, 1916. New York, 1917. 64 pp.*

Under the employees' benefit fund established and maintained by this company, 284 former employees were on the pension roll at the end of the year and the average pension paid was \$45 per month; 18,760 cases of sickness occurred, for which benefits were paid aggregating \$959,729, the average disability for completed cases being 37 days; there were 10,646 accident cases, the total benefits for which amounted to \$557,979, of which \$148,126 was for medical attendance; \$157,077 was paid in death benefits to dependents of 182 employees who had been in the service five years or more, and burial expenses of \$5,884 for 32 who left no dependents.

ASSOCIATED CHARITIES AND CITIZENS' RELIEF ASSOCIATION, DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA. *Mending broken lives. Joint yearbook for year ended September 30, 1916. Social Service House, 923 H Street NW., Washington, D. C. [1917]. 48 pp.*

In 1916 the Associated Charities cared for 2,767 families, of which 1,508, or 54 per cent, had in them two or more children under 14 years of age. This is 700 less families than were cared for in 1915. In these families desertion or nonsupport was a factor in 715, intemperance in 527, recorded conviction of crime in 130, arrests for juvenile delinquency in 110, and illegitimacy in 291. Permanent work was secured for 168 persons and temporary work for 198 persons. During the year a total of \$28,582.39 was spent for relief and aid. The total receipts for the year amounted to \$54,622.16.

ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA. *Proceedings of the third annual convention, Buffalo, N. Y., July 17-20, 1916. John T. Fitzpatrick, Secy.-Treas., 604 Produce Exchange Bldg., Kansas City, Mo. 58 pp. Price, 35 cents to members, 50 cents to nonmembers.*

Contains articles and papers on factory inspection, New York Industrial Commission, industrial preparedness, industrial conditions in Canada, human side of industry, uniform legislation, underwriters' laboratories, and safety work in California.

BOLTON AND DISTRICT OPERATIVE COTTON SPINNERS' PROVINCIAL ASSOCIATION. *Thirty-seventh annual report for the year ending December 31, 1916, together with the financial statement for the year ending December 16, 1916, and a summary of the accounts. Bolton [England], 1917. 222 pp.*

BOSTON CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. *Noncontributory old-age pensions and health insurance. Report of the special committee on social insurance. [Boston, 1917.] 15 pp.*

This pamphlet is noted on page 759 of this issue of the REVIEW.

— *Special committee on daylight-saving plan. An hour of light for an hour of night. Boston, 1917. 30 pp.*

BOUCKE, O. FRED. *Rising costs of living. A thesis presented to the faculty of the graduate school in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of doctor of philosophy, University of Pennsylvania. George Banta Publishing Co., Menasha, Wis. 1916. 87 pp.*

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK. *Annual Report. New York, 1916. 30 pp.*

DEBATERS' HANDBOOK SERIES. *Government ownership of telegraph and telephone. Compiled by Katharine B. Judson. The H. W. Wilson Co., White Plains, N. Y., and New York City, 1914. 204 pp.*

Contains 20 articles in the general discussion of the question, 7 articles on the affirmative side and 38 articles on the negative side. There is an extensive bibliography covering 16 pages.

— *Selected articles on Government ownership of railroads. Compiled by Edith M. Phelps. The H. W. Wilson Co., White Plains, N. Y., and New York City, 1916. 201 pp.*

In this book there are 9 articles on the general subject of Government ownership, 22 articles on the affirmative side of the question, and 15 articles on the negative side. There is also a comprehensive bibliography.

— *Selected articles on municipal ownership. Compiled by Joy E. Morgan, 2d ed., 1914.*

Contains 11 articles on the general subject of municipal ownership, 13 on the affirmative side, and 12 on the negative side of the question, "Resolved, That municipalities in the United States should own and operate plants for supplying light, water, and transportation"; also a bibliography.



EIGHT-HOUR LAW. *Opinion of Supreme Court, reprinted by the Chamber of Commerce of the United States. Supreme Court of the United States. No. 797. October term, 1916. Francis M. Wilson, United States Attorney for the Western District of Missouri, Appellant, v. Alexander New and Henry C. Ferris, as Receivers of the Missouri, Oklahoma & Gulf Railway Co. Appeal from the District Court of the United States for the Western District of Missouri. (March 19, 1917.)* 38 pp.

ELY, RICHARD T. *Outlines of economics. Third revised edition. Macmillan, 1916.* 769 pp.

A comprehensive textbook on economics, treating, among other subjects, the nature and scope of economics, the principles and problems of production and consumption, wages, labor problems, and labor legislation.

GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS. *Industrial and social conditions department. Outlines of work (bibliography). Vol. 1, 1916-1918.* 48 Woodland Avenue, Glen Ridge, N. J. 43 pp. Price, 5 cents.

GENERAL SOCIETY OF MECHANICS AND TRADESMEN OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK. *One hundred and thirty-first annual report, 1916. New York, 1917.* 83 pp.

This society, including about 500 members, has for its primary object "mutual aid, assistance in case of sickness or distress, and care for the widows and orphans of those who should die without property."

HOFFMAN, FREDERICK L. *Facts and fallacies of compulsory health insurance. An address read in part before the section on social and economic science of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, December 28, 1916, and the National Civic Federation, January 22, 1917. The Prudential Press, Newark, N. J., 1917.* 101 pp.

This pamphlet is noted on page 754 of this issue of the REVIEW.

IMMIGRANTS' PROTECTIVE LEAGUE. *Eighth annual report for the year ending January 1, 1917.* 1140½ South Michigan Avenue, Chicago [1917]. 31 pp.

The primary purpose of this league is to prevent the exploitation of immigrants who arrive in this country without knowledge of our customs or language and ignorant as to how to reach their destinations in the quickest and safest manner. In 1915, 3,439 immigrants came to the league to complain of some injustice or to ask for advice. While the league does not conduct an employment agency, it received 1,337 applications for work and succeeded in placing 619 (46.3 per cent) in positions; 38.6 per cent of those placed were Polish and Bohemians.

LAGRANGE, F. *La Fatigue et la Repose. La Fatigue. La Conservation des Forces. La Médication par la Repose. Paris, 1912.* 360 pp.

This volume is a scientific treatise on fatigue, its causes, symptoms, and effects, and the physiological effects of rest. It includes muscular and cerebral fatigue and discusses in particular the essential characteristics of fatigue as affecting the organs of the body.

LEGAL AID SOCIETY. *Forty-first annual report of the president, treasurer, and attorney, for the year 1916.* 239 Broadway, New York. 1917. 62 pp.

This society "differs from most charities, in that it aims to provide for the poor not alms but rights, not special privileges but just dues." In 1916 the society handled 41,646 cases at an expense of \$44,648.87, or \$1.07 each, and collected for clients the sum of \$128,005.10, or an average of \$3.07 per case. Of the applicants 39.9 per cent were natives of the United States, while the next highest number (11.6 per cent) were Russians.

MCMILLEN, JAMES ADELBERT. *The Gary system; a bibliography. University of Rochester, Rochester, N. Y., 1917.* 15 pp.

NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION. *Compulsory health insurance. Annual meeting addresses, the National Civic Federation, under auspices social insurance department, Hotel Astor, New York City, January 22, 1917. Headquarters, thirty-third floor Metropolitan Tower, New York City.* 74 pp.

This pamphlet is noted on page 751 of this issue of the REVIEW.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE. *Report for the years 1914, 1915, and 1916. New York City, February, 1917. 82 pp.*

— *The eight-hour day for wage-earning women. The United States Supreme Court upholds the California law. List of eight-hour laws. Women in industry series No. 14. National Consumers' League, 289 Fourth Avenue, New York. December, 1916. 12 pp.*

This is a brief of the decision, with excerpts therefrom, of the United States Supreme Court upholding the California eight-hour law for women.

NEW YORK PROBATION AND PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATION. *Eighth annual report. 130 East Twenty-second Street, New York City. 1916. 72 pp.*

RAMSEY, A. R. J., AND WESTON, H. CLAUDE. *A manual on explosives. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1916. 116 pp.*

A nontechnical work on the nature and manufacture of explosives. There are chapters dealing with the history and development of explosives, explosive mixtures, nitric esters, aromatic nitroexplosives, fuses and detonators, application of explosives to naval and military and to engineering purposes, industrial poisoning among explosives workers and its prevention and legislation.

SWENSON, RINEHART J. *Public regulation of the rate of wages. The H. W. Wilson Co., White Plains, N. Y., and New York City. 1917. 74 pp.*

Discusses the historical development of public regulation of wage rates in England, Australasia, and the United States, constitutional aspect of minimum-wage legislation in the United States, and the test of experience. Also contains an analysis of modern minimum-wage legislation and a short bibliography.

TOURRET, JACQUES. *Le Salaire minimum des ouvrières à domicile. Paris, 1916. 149 pp.*

A review of this volume will appear in a future number of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS. *Bulletin: 1916, No. 65. Social and economic survey of southern Travis County, by members of the Texas Applied Economics Club in cooperation with the division of public welfare, department of extension. Austin, 1916. 164 pp. Illustrated.*

VALENTINE, ROBERT G., AND TEAD, ORDWAY. *Work and pay. A suggestion for representative government in industry. Reprinted from Quarterly Journal of Economics. February, 1917. pp. 241-258.*

WATKINS, G. P. *Welfare as an economic quantity. Boston, Houghton Mifflin Company, 1915. 191 pp.*

This is an essay offered in competition for prizes of \$1,000 and \$500 set aside by Hart, Schaffner & Marx to encourage American youth to study economic and social subjects.

