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MONTHLY REVIEW

OF THE

U. S. BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

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COST OF LIVING IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

FOURTH ARTICLE—WAGE-EARNING WOMEN: WHO THEY ARE AND WHAT THEY DO.

As a part of the cost of living study in the District of Columbia for the year 1916 a special study was made of wage-earning women. This special study was made for the purpose of finding out how working women live, with special reference to the manner in which they apportion the expenditure of their incomes as between food, clothing, room rent, and the other items of expense. The study was confined to women receiving incomes less than \$1,100 a year. The study must not be regarded as a study in philanthropy, poverty, and crime, because of this exclusion of the higher incomes. The fact is, very few working women receive more than \$1,000 a year. The vast majority receive much less than \$1,000 a year and these are the socially significant women wage earners. It is of immense importance to know how these women live, whether they live at home or away from home, whether their meager earnings are supplemented out of the general family funds or whether their earnings must support the wage earner and help out the insufficient income of the family, and whether they obtain sufficient nourishment, clothing, and the other essentials to enable them to live healthy and comfortable lives. Of course in some instances women receiving higher incomes have such demands to meet as force them down to or below the "poverty line." Also it may be argued that the extravagance of the better paid women workers is as significant, economically and socially, as the rigorous economy of the poorly paid women. For the purpose of this study this argument is of no importance.

In the selection of women workers to furnish the information required in this study the effort was made to obtain a fair representation from the various industrial employments open to women in the city of Washington. No occupations, except those of trained nurse, domestic servant, and washerwoman, were excluded.

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Except in a few very unusual cases, such as protracted illness, no woman was included who had not worked during at least nine calendar months of the year 1916, unless the occupation was seasonal in character and so failed to furnish nine months' employment during the year. Thus the merely occasional or intermittent workers were excluded, and the study limited to women who were regularly engaged in wage-earning employments.

This study is based upon schedules for the year 1916, secured through personal visits and interviews by agents of the bureau. These interviews were obtained either at the girl's home or her place of employment, in the latter case through the cooperation of her employer, who allowed her to be questioned during working hours. In almost all instances the women visited were willing to give the desired information. In the final tabulation of results only those schedules were used in which the information obtained was believed to be complete and accurate.

The total number of schedules thus obtained was 676, of which 600 were from white women and 76 from colored women. The present article is concerned solely with the former group, inasmuch as the industrial employment and living conditions of the two races were found to be too dissimilar to permit of combined treatment. Also, it is to be noted that this article is limited to a general consideration of the personal and working conditions of the 600 white wage-earning women. An analysis of their living conditions—housing, food, clothing, etc.—will appear in a succeeding article.

INDUSTRIES AND OCCUPATIONS REPRESENTED.

The employments engaged in by the 600 women were as follows: United States Government employees, 63; office clerks, stenographers, and cashiers in private employment, 172; saleswomen, 192; telephone operators, 38; factory workers, 95; waitresses in hotels and restaurants, 12; and laundry workers, 28.

The employments here represented may be taken as fairly typical of woman's work in the District of Columbia, although the numbers shown are not necessarily proportionate to the total numbers engaged in the several industries. This is particularly true of the employees of the Federal Government, as no effort was made to cover at all fully the better paid Government employees. Of the 63 for whom schedules were obtained the majority were operatives and printers' assistants at the Bureau of Engraving and Printing. The others were clerks and stenographers in various departments, employees of the Congressional Library and Capitol, and one charwoman. Two school-teachers and one librarian employed by the District of Columbia are also here included as Government employees.

As regards the factory work covered, a word of reminder is necessary. Washington is unique among the large cities of the country in having very few manufacturing industries. Those existing are mostly small, and, altogether, employ comparatively few persons. The women here classed as factory workers represent a number of miscellaneous trades—box making, cigar manufacture, candy making, tailoring, printing, and publishing. A number of seamstresses and milliners are also included in this group.

Operatives and printers' assistants at the United States Bureau of Engraving and Printing are engaged in work of a mechanical or manufacturing nature, but in this study they have been grouped under United States Government employees, inasmuch as their other conditions of employment—such as permanent tenure of position—are quite different from those of privately controlled industry.

RACE, MARITAL CONDITION, AGE, AND EXPERIENCE.

As practically all of the women covered were either native Americans or of English-speaking families of long residence, no racial separation seemed necessary. The race factor, indeed, except that of white and colored, seems to be of very little significance among the wage-earning women of the District, either as regards wage-earning capacity or as regards living conditions.

As regards marital condition, 542 of the 600 women were single, while 58 had been married and were either widowed, divorced, or separated at the time of the investigation. It is interesting to note that 15 of the 58 married women had children dependent on them for support.

In the matter of age there was a wide distribution. None was under 16 years of age, and only 26, or 4 per cent, were between 16 and 18 years, whereas 142, or 24 per cent, were between 18 and 21, and 432, or 72 per cent, were 21 years of age or over. There were 144, or 24 per cent, 30 years old and above. One very interesting case was that of a woman of 75, so crippled with rheumatism that she could not get out without great difficulty, trying to save herself from dependence by doing dressmaking.

Also, these women were not beginners in industry. Not less than 62 per cent had been wage earners for at least five years, and as many as 5 per cent had been wage earners for 20 years or more.

ANNUAL INCOME.

The lowest income received by any of these workers was \$130.50 per year. This was received by a sales girl, age 17, her maximum wage being \$4 per week, and 10 weeks being lost through inability to find work. There were only two other girls who had received

less than \$150 per year. But 274, or 46 per cent of the total, received under \$400 per year—approximately \$8 per week—and 381, or 64 per cent, received under \$500 per year—approximately \$10 per week. Only 35 women, or 6 per cent, received as much as \$800 a year—approximately \$16 per week.

The following table shows the distribution of the 600 women by annual income and age groups. The annual income here referred to is the total amount of money income received during the year. Gifts of new articles were credited as money income, but no other gifts except actual money were so included. In all cases the earnings from labor constituted the major part of total income, but in a limited number of cases money gifts from parents and relatives, and returns from savings and investments were of considerable importance.

AGE AND ANNUAL INCOME.

Annual income.	Total.	Under 18	18 and under 21	21 and under 25	25 and under 30	30 and under 40	40 and over.
Under \$300.....	133	21	53	25	9	8	17
\$300 and under \$400.....	141	3	53	51	14	13	7
\$400 and under \$500.....	107	1	14	33	29	14	16
\$500 and under \$600.....	88	1	9	32	28	15	3
\$600 and under \$700.....	53	7	15	13	13	5
\$700 and under \$800.....	43	3	5	18	11	6
\$800 and under \$1,100.....	35	3	6	10	14	2
Total.....	600	26	142	167	121	88	56

AT HOME AND AWAY FROM HOME.

Of the 600 women, 414, or 69 per cent, lived at home with their immediate families, all but 51 of these living with parents. The remaining 186, or 31 per cent, lived away from home, either in private families, in boarding houses, in working-girls' homes, or were house-keeping in lodgings on their own account. Their distribution on this point is shown in the following table, by income groups:

LIVING CONDITIONS AND ANNUAL INCOME.

Annual income.	Total.	At home.	Away from home.				
			Total.	Private families.	House-keeping.	Boarding houses.	Homes for working girls.
Under \$300.....	133	100	33	15	13	5
\$300 and under \$400.....	141	105	36	19	8	5	4
\$400 and under \$500.....	107	74	33	14	12	6	1
\$500 and under \$600.....	88	54	34	17	7	7	3
\$600 and under \$700.....	53	37	16	3	7	3	3
\$700 and under \$800.....	43	24	19	10	8	1
\$800 and under \$1,100.....	35	20	15	6	3	3	3
Total.....	600	414	186	84	58	25	19

It is to be emphasized that living at home does not necessarily mean that a woman is assisted by her family. Usually, such a woman is in a more favorable economic position than women away from home, inasmuch as she has assistance at hand in case of sickness or unemployment. But this is not always the case, as many of the women listed above as living at home were not only supporting themselves, but were also supporting their families in whole or in part. Moreover, many girls stayed at home when they might have secured better positions and more independence by going to some other place, because they felt their services or companionship in the home was needed by their parents even when no financial assistance was given to the family.

DEGREE OF SELF-SUPPORT.

The degree in which women workers may be receiving assistance from their families or other sources is a very important factor in the industrial world, for to the extent that such workers are having their regular wage supplemented by outside assistance, they are able to offer their services in the labor market at lower rates than are workers entirely dependent on their own resources. The most frequent example of this sort of subsidized labor is that of girls living at home and receiving board and lodging free or at nominal rates.

Of the 600 women included in this study, 272, or 45 per cent, were found to be in receipt of outside assistance. The remaining 328, or 55 per cent, were entirely self-supporting, and in addition, 129 of these 328 had other persons wholly or partially dependent upon them for support.

In this grouping into "assisted" and "self-supporting," the effort was made to group as self-supporting only those women who received no contribution to their living expenses from their families or others. Thus a number of cases were placed in the "assisted" group, in which the assistance received was comparatively slight. On the other hand, in a number of cases a girl was classed as self-supporting when she probably could not have obtained the same living conditions at the same price commercially, and so the two groups would balance each other to a large extent.

At best, the question of assistance is one that often can not be readily determined. Usually it is in the form of board or lodging without pay or at reduced rates. But sometimes, particularly with women living at home, assistance is given in forms impossible to trace. The facts here presented were obtained by very careful inquiry, and the classifications are as accurate as it is possible to make them.

As would be expected, assistance occurred chiefly among the women workers with the small annual incomes. Thus of the 274 women with incomes of less than \$400 per year (approximately \$8 per week), 203, or 74 per cent, were assisted. On the other hand, 6 women, or 17 per cent, of those receiving \$800 or more per year were assisted. These, in part, belonged to what might be called the "pin money" group—young women of well-to-do families. On the whole, however, this investigation found very few women of this class. Certainly 99 per cent of all those included were working because working was necessary.

The following table gives detailed data by income groups showing the number of women living at home or away from home and whether they were assisted or self-supporting, and with or without dependents:

ANNUAL INCOME AND LIVING CONDITIONS.

Annual income.	Total.	At home.			Away from home.		
		Assisted.	Self-supporting.	Self-supporting with dependents.	Assisted.	Self-supporting.	Self-supporting with dependents.
Under \$300.....	133	91	5	4	16	15	2
\$300 and under \$400.....	141	76	17	12	20	13	3
\$400 and under \$500.....	107	28	29	17	5	22	6
\$500 and under \$600.....	88	15	19	20	3	18	13
\$600 and under \$700.....	53	9	15	13	2	11	3
\$700 and under \$800.....	43	11	13	1	10	8
\$800 and under \$1,100.....	35	4	4	12	2	10	3
Total.....	600	223	100	91	49	99	38
		414			186		

WAGES AND YEARS OF SERVICE.

The present study was not a wage investigation.¹ It was concerned primarily with the cost and manner of living of working women, and here the determining factor is the total amount of annual income, not the daily or weekly wage rate.

Nevertheless the wage rates at which this group of 600 women were working are very significant, and particularly so when studied in relation to the number of years at work. That an inexperienced girl or woman should start work at a low wage is not especially important, although the wage of apprentice girls should bear some relation to the cost of living. There is a widespread notion, however, that a woman who lives at home ought to be willing and grateful to work for wages insufficient to support a woman living independently

¹ An investigation of hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in the District of Columbia was made in 1913 by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. The results were published in Bulletin 116.

of all family assistance. Aided and abetted by this hoary economic fallacy many parasitic industries and trades have been able to live and even to achieve much prosperity on the subsidies contributed by working women. It ought not to be necessary to point out that no woman who is mentally competent and who has worked at an occupation long enough to acquire proficiency ought to be required or requested to work for a wage insufficient to enable her to live in reasonable comfort. Industries or occupations, if such there be, which can not live except on the subsidies from family incomes contributed by exploited women and child workers, ought to die—the sooner the better for the nation and the world at large.

It is therefore extremely significant to note that the majority of the women covered by this study were not only working at distressingly low wages, but that a very large proportion of them were women who had been wage earners for many years. Thus of a total of 600, 316, or 53 per cent, were receiving less than \$9 per week at the end of the year 1916, and of these 316, 145, or 46 per cent, had been engaged at some gainful work for five years or more. Still more striking is the fact that of 80 women who had been at work for 15 years barely one-third were receiving as much as \$12 per week. The detailed data on this point are shown in the following table, which gives the wage rates of women employees classified according to the number of years they had been working for wages. For convenience of comparison all wages and salaries are shown on a weekly basis. In this table the data are for all occupations combined. Data for separate employments are given in Table 2 at the end of this article.

WEEKLY WAGES AND NUMBER OF YEARS WORKING FOR WAGES.

Weekly wages.	Total.	Number of women working specified number of years for wages.								
		1 and under 2	2 and under 3	3 and under 4	4 and under 5	5 and under 10	10 and under 15	15 and under 20	20 and under 30	30 and under 60
Under \$6.....	89	24	16	13	10	15	3	2	3	3
\$6 and under \$7.....	84	9	15	13	11	23	7	5	2	1
\$7 and under \$8.....	63	4	9	6	4	29	6	2	2	1
\$8 and under \$9.....	80	10	8	10	9	29	8	3	1	2
\$9 and under \$10.....	48	2	1	5	4	23	4	4	2	3
\$10 and under \$12.....	104	5	3	3	9	43	22	9	6	1
\$12 and under \$15.....	77	1	3	5	4	21	27	12	3	1
\$15 and under \$20.....	55	1	2	3	1	24	10	11	2	1
Total.....	600	54	62	58	52	207	87	48	19	13

SCHOOLING AND ITS RELATION TO WAGES.

The majority of the 600 women interviewed had received a fair amount of schooling, 397, or about two-thirds, having completed the eighth grade, and 93 had also attended high school or college.

When, with a fairly good education to start with, a woman is receiving very low wages, particularly after several years' industrial experience, it may be safely concluded that something is radically wrong either with her training or with the industrial system. It was, therefore, disconcerting to find that so many of the women with good schooling were receiving such low wages even after five years or more in the working world. Of the 238 having eighth grade or higher education who had been at work for five years or more, 57, or 24 per cent, were receiving under \$9 a week, and 84, or 35 per cent, were receiving under \$10. Of 10 women with college training, only 4 (all United States Government employees) were receiving more than \$15 per week, and 4 others were receiving under \$12 a week. Three of these latter four were employed as saleswomen, one because teaching had been too great a nervous strain for her.

The following table classifies the 374 women who had been at work for five years or more by wage and amount of schooling. This table gives data for all occupations combined. Table 3, at the end of the article, gives the same information by separate employments.

WEEKLY WAGES OF 374 WOMEN WHO HAD BEEN AT WORK AT LEAST 5 YEARS,
CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING.

Weekly wages.	Total.	Number of women having specified amount of schooling.							
		1st, 2d, or 3d grade.	4th or 5th grade.	6th or 7th grade.	8th grade.	1st or 2d year in high school.	3d or 4th year in high school.	College.	Normal.
Under \$6.....	26	3	10	7	6
\$6 and under \$7.....	36	3	18	13	2
\$7 and under \$8.....	40	1	6	17	14	2
\$8 and under \$9.....	43	1	3	19	13	5	1
\$9 and under \$10.....	36	1	3	5	20	6	1
\$10 and under \$12.....	81	1	4	16	39	14	5	2
\$12 and under \$15.....	64	2	6	8	22	16	7	2	1
\$15 and under \$20.....	48	2	18	12	10	4	2
Total.....	374	9	35	92	145	57	23	10	3

The following tables give in detail the occupation, home conditions, income, years at work for wages, and schooling of the women studied.

TABLE I.—OCCUPATIONS AND HOME CONDITIONS, BY INCOME GROUPS.

Occupations and home conditions (economic status).	Total women studied.	Number of women whose annual income was—					
		Under \$300.	\$300 and under \$400.	\$400 and under \$500.	\$500 and under \$600.	\$600 and under \$700.	\$700 and under \$800.
<i>United States employees.</i>							
At home:							
Assisted.....	7		1	1	1	3	1
Self-supporting.....	11				3	4	3
Self-supporting with dependents.....	15				2	1	6
Away from home:							
Assisted.....	1						1
Self-supporting.....	20	1			8	3	5
Self-supporting with dependents.....	9				3		1
Total.....	63	1	1	1	17	11	15
<i>Office employees.</i>							
At home:							
Assisted.....	79	26	23	14	9	4	3
Self-supporting.....	40		5	16	3	7	2
Self-supporting with dependents.....	21		5	2	5	2	5
Away from home:							
Assisted.....	8	3	1		2	1	1
Self-supporting.....	15			4	3	1	3
Self-supporting with dependents.....	9		1	1	4	1	1
Total.....	172	29	35	37	28	16	15
<i>Saleswomen.</i>							
At home:							
Assisted.....	87	43	29	11	3	1	
Self-supporting.....	14		5	3	4	1	1
Self-supporting with dependents.....	32		4	13	7	5	1
Away from home:							
Assisted.....	22	5	12	2	1	1	
Self-supporting.....	25	5	5	6	2	4	1
Self-supporting with dependents.....	12			3	5	1	1
Total.....	192	53	55	38	22	13	4
<i>Telephone operators.</i>							
At home:							
Assisted.....	10	1	8		1		
Self-supporting.....	13			2	7	3	1
Self-supporting with dependents.....	6				2	3	1
Away from home:							
Assisted.....	2	1		1			
Self-supporting.....	5			1	3	1	
Self-supporting with dependents.....	2			1	1		
Total.....	38	2	8	5	14	7	2
<i>Factory workers.</i>							
At home:							
Assisted.....	32	16	14	1		1	
Self-supporting.....	19	5	6	6	2		
Self-supporting with dependents.....	12	1	2	2	3	2	2
Away from home:							
Assisted.....	9	3	4	2			
Self-supporting.....	21	5	4	9		2	1
Self-supporting with dependents.....	2	1		1			
Total.....	95	31	30	21	5	5	2
<i>Waitresses.</i>							
At home:							
Assisted.....							
Self-supporting.....	1		1				
Self-supporting with dependents.....	1		1				

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TABLE 1.—OCCUPATIONS AND HOME CONDITIONS, BY INCOME GROUPS—Concluded.

Occupations and home conditions (economic status).	Total women studied.	Number of women whose annual income was—						
		Under \$300.	\$300 and under \$400.	\$400 and under \$500.	\$500 and under \$600.	\$600 and under \$700.	\$700 and under \$800.	\$800 and under \$1,100.
<i>Waitresses—Concluded.</i>								
Away from home:								
Assisted.....								
Self-supporting.....	7		3	2	1		1	
Self-supporting with dependents.....	3		2			1		
Total.....	12		7	2	1	1	1	
<i>Laundry workers.</i>								
At home:								
Assisted.....	8	5	1	1	1			
Self-supporting.....	2			2				
Self-supporting with dependents.....	4	3			1			
Away from home:								
Assisted.....	7	4	3					
Self-supporting.....	6	4	1		1			
Self-supporting with dependents.....	1	1						
Total.....	28	17	5	3	3			

TABLE 2.—WEEKLY WAGES AND NUMBER OF YEARS WORKING FOR WAGES.

Occupations and weekly wages.	Total women studied.	Number of women working specified number of years for wages.								
		1 and under 2.	2 and under 3.	3 and under 4.	4 and under 5.	5 and under 10.	10 and under 15.	15 and under 20.	20 and under 30.	30 and under 60.
<i>United States employees:</i>										
Under \$6.....	1						1			
\$6 and under \$7.....										
\$7 and under \$8.....										
\$8 and under \$9.....	1			1						
\$9 and under \$10.....										
\$10 and under \$12.....	20	1	2		3	9	4		1	
\$12 and under \$15.....	22			1		7	9	4	1	
\$15 and under \$20.....	19	1	2	2	1	8	1	4		
Total.....	63	2	4	4	4	24	15	8	2	
<i>Office employees:</i>										
Under \$6.....	17	3	2	4	2	6				
\$6 and under \$7.....	24	6	5	4	3	3	3			
\$7 and under \$8.....	14	1	5	3		5				
\$8 and under \$9.....	27	8	5	1	6	5	2			
\$9 and under \$10.....	15	1	1	5	1	5	1	1		
\$10 and under \$12.....	30	2	5	1	3	14	2	3		
\$12 and under \$15.....	23	1	2	3	4	8	5			
\$15 and under \$20.....	22			1		14	5	2		
Total.....	172	22	25	22	19	60	18	6		
<i>Saleswomen:</i>										
Under \$6.....	41	17	10	6	4	4				
\$6 and under \$7.....	38	2	6	7	6	13	2	2		
\$7 and under \$8.....	27		2	2	4	14	4	1		
\$8 and under \$9.....	21			1		16	2	1	1	
\$9 and under \$10.....	12					7	2	2	1	
\$10 and under \$12.....	31		1	1	2	8	10	5	3	1
\$12 and under \$15.....	11		1	1			4	3	2	
\$15 and under \$20.....	11					1	3	5	2	
Total.....	192	19	20	18	16	63	27	19	9	1

TABLE 2.—WEEKLY WAGES AND NUMBER OF YEARS WORKING FOR WAGES—Concluded.

Occupations and weekly wages.	Total women studied.	Number of women working specified number of years for wages.								
		1 and under 2.	2 and under 3.	3 and under 4.	4 and under 5.	5 and under 10.	10 and under 15.	15 and under 20.	20 and under 30.	30 and under 60.
Telephone operators:										
Under \$6.....	1		1							
\$6 and under \$7.....	3	1	1		1					
\$7 and under \$8.....	5	1	1		1			1		
\$8 and under \$9.....	8	1	1	3	1	2				
\$9 and under \$10.....	11				2	9				
\$10 and under \$12.....	6			1		4	1			
\$12 and under \$15.....	4					2	2			
\$15 and under \$20.....										
Total.....	38	3	4	5	4	18	4			
Factory workers:										
Under \$6.....	15	4	1	3	1	2	1	1		2
\$6 and under \$7.....	12		2	2		4	1	2		1
\$7 and under \$8.....	12	1	1			5	1	2	2	1
\$8 and under \$9.....	19	1	1	3	2	6	3	1	2	2
\$9 and under \$10.....	8					2	1	1	1	3
\$10 and under \$12.....	12				1	2	3	1	1	
\$12 and under \$15.....	14					6	3	1	1	
\$15 and under \$20.....	3					4	5	4		1
Total.....	95	6	5	8	4	30	15	12	4	11
Waitresses: ¹										
Under \$6.....										
\$6 and under \$7.....	3		1			2				
\$7 and under \$8.....	2	1				1				
\$8 and under \$9.....	1			1						
\$9 and under \$10.....	2	1			1					
\$10 and under \$12.....	1						1			
\$12 and under \$15.....	3						2	1		
\$15 and under \$20.....										
Total.....	12	2	1	1	1	3	3	1		
Laundry workers:										
Under \$6.....	14		2		3	3	1	1	3	1
\$6 and under \$7.....	4				1	1	1	1		
\$7 and under \$8.....	3					2	1			
\$8 and under \$9.....	3		1			1	1			
\$9 and under \$10.....										
\$10 and under \$12.....	4					2	1		1	
\$12 and under \$15.....										
\$15 and under \$20.....										
Total.....	28		3		4	9	5	2	4	1

¹ In all cases waitresses received one or more meals at place of employment, but in no case was lodging included.

TABLE 3.—WEEKLY WAGES OF WOMEN WHO HAD WORKED AT LEAST 5 YEARS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING.

Occupations and weekly wages.	Total women at work 5 years or over.	Number of women having specified amount of schooling.							
		1st, 2d, or 3d grade.	4th or 5th grade.	6th or 7th grade.	8th grade.	1st or 2d year in high school.	3d or 4th year in high school.	College.	Normal.
United States employees:									
Under \$6.....	1		1						
\$6 and under \$7.....									
\$7 and under \$8.....									
\$8 and under \$9.....									
\$9 and under \$10.....									
\$10 and under \$12.....	14			2	7	3	1	1	
\$12 and under \$15.....	21			1	10	5	3	1	1
\$15 and under \$20.....	13				1	2	5	4	1
Total.....	49		1	3	18	10	9	6	2

TABLE 3.—WEEKLY WAGES OF WOMEN WHO HAD WORKED AT LEAST 5 YEARS CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO AMOUNT OF SCHOOLING—Concluded.

Occupations and weekly wages.	Total women at work 5 years or over.	Number of women having specified amount of schooling.							
		1st, 2d, or 3d grade.	4th or 5th grade.	6th or 7th grade.	8th grade.	1st or 2d year in high school.	3d or 4th year in high school.	College.	Normal.
Office employees:									
Under \$6.....	6			2	4				
\$6 and under \$7.....	6		1	1	3	1			
\$7 and under \$8.....	5			1	3	1			
\$8 and under \$9.....	7		1	2	2	2			
\$9 and under \$10.....	7				4	3			
\$10 and under \$12.....	19				8	8	3		
\$12 and under \$15.....	13				2	6	4	1	
\$15 and under \$20.....	21			1	6	9	4		1
Total.....	84		2	7	32	30	11	1	1
Saleswomen:									
Under \$6.....	4		1	1	2				
\$6 and under \$7.....	17		1	12	4				
\$7 and under \$8.....	19		2	8	8	1			
\$8 and under \$9.....	20			8	8	2	1	1	
\$9 and under \$10.....	12		1	4	5	1	1	1	
\$10 and under \$12.....	27		2	8	13	2	1	1	
\$12 and under \$15.....	9		1	4	3	2			
\$15 and under \$20.....	11				10	1			
Total.....	119		8	45	53	8	2	3	
Telephone operators:									
Under \$6.....									
\$6 and under \$7.....				1	1				
\$7 and under \$8.....	2			2					
\$8 and under \$9.....	2				7	2			
\$9 and under \$10.....	9				2	1			
\$10 and under \$12.....	5			2	2				
\$12 and under \$15.....	4				4				
\$15 and under \$20.....									
Total.....	22			5	14	3			
Factory workers:									
\$3 and under \$6.....	6	1	4	1					
\$6 and under \$7.....	8			2	5	1			
\$7 and under \$8.....	10	1	3	4	2				
\$8 and under \$9.....	12	1		7	3	1			
\$9 and under \$10.....	8	1	2	1	4				
\$10 and under \$12.....	11	1		4	6				
\$12 and under \$15.....	14	2	3	2	3	4			
\$15 and under \$20.....	3			1	1		1		
Total.....	72	7	12	22	24	6	1		
Waitresses:									
\$3 and under \$6.....									
\$6 and under \$7.....	2		1	1					
\$7 and under \$8.....	1		1						
\$8 and under \$9.....									
\$9 and under \$10.....									
\$10 and under \$12.....	1				1				
\$12 and under \$15.....	3		2	1					
\$15 and under \$20.....									
Total.....	7		4	2	1				
Laundry workers:									
Under \$6.....	9	2	4	3					
\$6 and under \$7.....	3			2	1				
\$7 and under \$8.....	3			3					
\$8 and under \$9.....	2		2						
\$9 and under \$10.....									
\$10 and under \$12.....	4		2		2				
\$12 and under \$15.....									
\$15 and under \$20.....									
Total.....	21	2	8	8	3				

**REPORT OF PRESIDENT'S MEDIATION COMMISSION, CONDEMN-
ING DEPORTATIONS FROM WARREN DISTRICT OF ARIZONA.**

The mediation commission appointed by the President to promote peaceful industrial relations has submitted its findings and recommendations in regard to the labor disturbance which occurred in the copper-mining industry, in the Warren district of Arizona, during June and July, 1917. This disturbance culminated in the rounding up of 1,186 men and their deportation to Columbus, N. Mex., by the sheriff of Cochise County and his deputies.

According to the Official Bulletin for November 27, 1917, the President has acted on the recommendation that certain features of the report be referred to the Attorney General and to the Interstate Commerce Commission.

Following is the report in full:

BISBEE, ARIZ., *November 6, 1917.*

THE PRESIDENT:

The deportations on the 12th of July last from the Warren district of Arizona, as well as the practices that followed such deportations, have deeply affected the opinions of laboring men, as well as the general public, throughout the country. These events have even been made the basis of an attempt to affect adversely public opinion among some of the people of the Allies. Their memory still embarrasses the establishment of industrial peace for the period of the war, and it is indispensable to obtain and maintain industrial peace if the war is to be brought to the quickest possible successful conclusion and if lives are not to be needlessly sacrificed.

SAFEGUARDING THE FUTURE.

The President's mediation commission is charged rather with helping to secure peaceful industrial relations for the future than to sit in judgment upon the errors of the past. But it is impossible to make for peace in the future unless the recurrences of such instances as the Bisbee deportations are avoided. The future can not be safeguarded against such recurrences unless a candid and just statement is made of the facts surrounding the Bisbee deportation and an understanding is had of the conditions which brought it about. Such candor is necessary for the guidance of all in their future conduct. Such candor is also necessary because if the truth be authoritatively set forth there will be no basis for any misrepresentation of the facts either through ignorance or design.

The President's mediation commission has therefore deemed it a duty which it could not avoid to undertake a thorough and impartial consideration of the facts surrounding the deportations of the 12th

of July and the practices which have been pursued since the deportation by officials and citizens of Cochise County.

FINDINGS BY COMMISSION.

After hearing the representatives of the different elements involved in the deportation, both official and private, the President's mediation commission makes these findings:

(1) A strike was called in the Warren district on June 26, 1917, to be effective the following day. While undoubtedly the men sincerely felt that several grievances called for rectification by the companies, having regard to the conditions in this district and the Government's need for its copper production, the grievances were not of such a nature as to have justified the strike. Here, as elsewhere, there was, however, no machinery for the adjustment of difficulties between the companies and the men which provided for the determination of alleged grievances by some authoritative and disinterested tribunal in which both the companies and the men had confidence and before which they had an equal opportunity of urging their respective claims. This is a fundamental difficulty in the settlement of grievances that may arise in this district, and here, as in the other mining camps in Arizona visited by the President's mediation commission, a plan has been worked out establishing such machinery whereby in the future, at least during the period of the war, grievances will be settled by an orderly, impartial process, and the resort to strike or lockout will be wholly without foundation.

NOT ALL IN SYMPATHY.

(2) Many of those who went out did not in fact believe in the justice of the strike, but supported it, as is common among workingmen, because of their general loyalty to the cause represented by the strikers and their refusal to be regarded in their own estimation, as well as in the minds of fellow workers, as "scabs."

(3) Shortly after the strike was called the sheriff of the county, through the governor of Arizona, requested the aid of Federal troops. The request was based on the fact that the State militia had been drafted into the Federal service and the State, therefore, was without its normal militia protection. Gov. Campbell recommended to the Secretary of War that an immediate investigation of the situation at Bisbee be made by a Regular Army officer in order to ascertain the need of troops. The governor's recommendation was followed and an investigation of the situation in Bisbee was made by an experienced officer. Such investigation was made on June 30 and again on July 2, and after both investigations the officer reported that every-

thing was peaceable and that troops were neither needed nor warranted under existing conditions.

(4) That the conditions in Bisbee were, in fact, peaceful and free from any manifestations of disorder or violence is the testimony of reputable citizens, as well as of officials of the city and county, who are in a position to report accurately and speak without bias.

DEPORTED FROM WARREN DISTRICT.

(5) Early on the morning of July 12 the sheriff and a large armed force presuming to act as deputies under the sheriff's authority, comprising about 2,000 men, rounded up 1,186 men in the Warren district, put them aboard a train, and carried them to Columbus, N. Mex. The authorities at Columbus refused to permit those in charge of the deportation to leave the men there, and the train carried them back to the desert town of Hermanas, N. Mex., a nearby station. The deportees were wholly without adequate supply of food and water and shelter for two days. At Hermanas the deported men were abandoned by the guards who had brought them and they were left to shift for themselves. The situation was brought to the attention of the War Department, and on July 14 the deportees were escorted by troops to Columbus, N. Mex., where they were maintained by the Government until the middle of September.

(6) According to an Army census of the deported men 199 were native-born Americans, 468 were citizens, 472 were registered under the selective-draft law, and 433 were married. Of the foreign born, over 20 nationalities were represented, including 141 British, 82 Serbians, and 179 Slavs. Germans and Austro-Hungarians (other than Slavs) were comparatively few.

PLANNING OF THE DEPORTATION.

(7) The deportation was carried out under the sheriff of Cochise County. It was formally decided upon at a meeting of citizens on the night of July 11, participated in by the managers and other officials of the Copper Queen Consolidated Mining Co. (Phelps-Dodge Corporation, Copper Queen division) and the Calumet & Arizona Mining Co. Those who planned and directed the deportation purposely abstained from consulting about their plans either with the United States attorney in Arizona, or the law officers of the State or county, or their own legal advisers.

(8) In order to carry the plans for the deportation into successful execution, the leaders in the enterprise utilized the local offices of the Bell Telephone Co., and exercised or attempted to exercise a

ensorship over parts of interstate connections of both the telephone and telegraph lines, in order to prevent any knowledge of the deportation reaching the outside world.

NO VIOLENCE BY THE STRIKERS.

(9) The plan for the deportation and its execution are attributable to the belief in the minds of those who engineered it that violence was contemplated by the strikers and sympathizers with the strikers who had come into the district from without, that life and property would be insecure unless such deportation was undertaken, and that the State was without the necessary armed forces to prevent such anticipated violence and to safeguard life and property within the district. This belief has no justification in the evidence in support of it presented by the parties who harbored it.

(10) Neither such fear on the part of the leaders of the deportation as to anticipated violence nor evidence justifying such fear was ever communicated to the governor of the State of Arizona with a view to renewing the request for Federal troops, based upon changing conditions, nor were the Federal authorities in fact ever apprised that a change of conditions had taken place in the district from that found by the investigating Army officer to call for or warrant the interposition of Federal troops.

DEPORTATION WHOLLY ILLEGAL.

(11) The deportation was wholly illegal and without authority in law either State or Federal.

(12) Following the deportation of the 12th, in the language of Gov. Campbell, of Arizona, "the constitutional rights of citizens and others have been ignored by processes not provided by law, viz, by deputy sheriffs who refused persons admittance into the district and the passing of judgment by a tribunal without legal jurisdiction resulting in further deportations."

(13) Immediately after the first deportation, and until late in August, the function of the local judiciary was usurped by a body which to all intents and purposes was a vigilance committee, having no authority whatever in law. It caused the deportation of large numbers of others. So far as this committee is concerned, its activities were abandoned at the request of the governor of Arizona late in August.

(14) Among those who were deported from the district and who thereafter were arrested in seeking entrance into it were several who were registered under the selective-draft law and sought to return or remain in the district in order to discharge their legal duty of reporting for physical examination under the draft.

"RECOMMENDATIONS MADE INEVITABLE."

These findings of facts make certain recommendations by the President's mediation commission inevitable.

1. All illegal practices and the denial of rights safeguarded by the Constitution and statutes must at once cease. The right of unimpeded admittance into the Warren district of all who seek entrance into it in a lawful and peaceable manner must be respected. The right of all persons freely to move about in the Warren district or to continue to reside within it must be scrupulously observed except in so far as such right is restricted by the orderly process of the law. To this end we have directed letters to Gov. Campbell and Sheriff Wheeler, of Cochise County.

2. In so far as the deportation of July 12 and the events following constitute violations of the laws of Arizona, we join in the recommendation of Gov. Campbell that the responsible law officers of the State and county pursue appropriate remedies for the vindication of such laws.

3. In so far as the evidence before the commission indicates interference with the enforcement of the selective-draft law, the facts should be brought to the attention of the Attorney General of the United States.

4. In so far as the evidence before the commission indicates an interference with interstate lines of communication, the facts should be submitted for appropriate attention by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

5. In so far as deportations such as we have set forth have not yet been made a Federal offense, it is our duty to report to the President the wisdom of recommending to the Congress that such occurrences hereafter be made criminal under the Federal law to the full extent of the constitutional authority of the Federal Government.

Respectfully submitted.

THE PRESIDENT'S MEDIATION COMMISSION.

W. B. WILSON, *Chairman.*

J. L. SPANGLER.

E. P. MARSH.

J. H. WALKER.

FELIX FRANKFURTER,

Counsel to the Commission.

TRADE AGREEMENTS IN THE MEN'S CLOTHING INDUSTRY OF NEW YORK CITY.

BY MATTHEW E. GORMLY.

The situation as regards labor conditions in the men's clothing industry in New York City is greatly affected by three outstanding factors—the war, the cessation of immigration, and the split in the ranks of the union garment workers. The first factor, due to the large Government orders for uniforms and other clothing, has created an increasing demand for clothing workers; the second factor has cut off, almost absolutely, the foreign supply of such workers; while the third has made it difficult for the workers to take advantage of the strategic position resulting from the first two and act as a unit to improve working conditions through the instrumentality of collective bargaining.

Our entrance into the war has had a double effect on the men's clothing industry, one neutralizing in a measure the other. The calling of thousands of young men from civilian pursuits to military work naturally resulted in a lessened demand for civilian clothes. This more particularly so because the young man of military age represents the greatest purchasers of men's clothes. Simultaneously, however, with the falling off in the demand for civilian clothes came the demand for vast quantities of military clothing. This latter demand has in New York City been more than sufficient to make up for the decrease in the demand for civilian clothes. Not only has it given full employment to those normally engaged in the manufacture of men's clothing but it has also provided steady employment for the casual workers of the trade. It has thus had a tendency to wipe out the long periods of unemployment so characteristic of the garment trades, an evil which the workers of the industry have always had to contend with and provide against. War orders have had the further effect of giving employment to workers who have never before worked on men's garments. Hundreds, and perhaps thousands, since the number increases daily, of cloak and suit operatives are being employed on uniforms, and many of the workers on other women's garments, such as dresses and waists, are finding employment in the making of cotton uniforms, shirts, barrack bags, etc. Thus the war has tended greatly to increase the number of people employed in the men's clothing industry in New York City.

This increased work, however, has not been accompanied by an orderly expansion of, but has rather resulted in a considerable upsetting and shifting within, the industry. Military work is different from civilian work. Concerns doing military work usually have to put in new machines, since the stitching is different from that on civilian garments. There is also very much less hand tailoring on military work, with a corresponding increase in machine operations. Because of this latter fact, together with the fact that the uniform calls for no vest, there has resulted a lack of employment for two classes of specialized workers—the hand tailors and the vest makers. The vest makers can find employment making trousers, while the less efficient tailors must specialize in operating if they are to continue working in the industry. Thus, besides the increased employment which the military work has brought about, there is, as a result of the same cause, a general shake-up and readjustment going on within the industry.

The second factor contributing to the abnormal situation in the men's clothing industry is the cessation of immigration. Prior to the outbreak of the present war the principal source of the labor supply of the clothing industry was foreign immigration, principally from Russia and Italy. Great numbers of these foreigners have arrived each year in New York City and, lacking funds to go elsewhere, and desiring to stay near their friends, they have glutted the local labor market. Though there were a few tailors among them, the vast majority was unskilled. This large number of workers, able to learn the rudiments of the trade in a short time, kept a constant oversupply of potential garment workers in this market. The fierce competition for employment resulting from this condition, together with the seasonality of the industry, made organized effort next to impossible and stability hardly to be hoped for. The manufacturers had very little capital invested and were just as eager in business competition among themselves as the immigrants they employed were for work. The small capital needed to set up in the clothing business, together with the abundance of cheap labor, resulted in hundreds of small manufacturers springing up, until to-day there are about 2,500 manufacturers employing about 65,000 workers, making New York City the largest center of the manufacture of men's clothing in the country.

The vast reserve of clothing workers has gone. The normal expansion of the industry was not sufficient to use up the reserve at once, and no real shortage of clothing workers was felt until very recently, when the placing of large Government contracts for military work produced an abnormal demand for labor. The present shortage of workers creates an entirely new and unusual condition

in the industry. For the first time the workers are in a position where they can demand more and have a fair chance of getting it without having to work on the sympathies of the public. For the first time they hold the strategic position. This reversal of relative positions of employer and employee has had its effect on their respective attitudes toward trade agreements. The employer now wants to come to an agreement with the union, but the workers are not so anxious. While in normal times they might be willing to enter into an agreement, when they are in a strong position, as at the present time, with conditions so unstable, they desire to be unfettered. The individual worker can strike a good bargain now. He does not need the collective action of the union. Thus the shortage of workers caused by the cutting off of immigration has developed an attitude of independence in the worker which is detrimental to collective agreements.

The third factor which affects the labor conditions in this industry has perhaps a more direct influence on the status of trade agreements than the other two. Without attempting to give the history of the split in the ranks of the men's garment workers, or the merits of the claims of either side, it can be stated that, in New York City at least, each faction has a considerable membership and has been able to negotiate some agreements with associations and individual employers. A large part of the men's garment workers, however, are not working under any agreement. The older organization of garment workers is known as the United Garment Workers of America and is a union affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. The newer faction is made up of the more radical element of garment workers who seceded from the parent organization after the Nashville convention in the fall of 1914 and have since maintained an international organization called the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America.

The United Garment Workers of America have for many years past entered into agreements with certain manufacturers of clothing, whereby the manufacturer, in return for the right to put a union label on his garment, agreed that union conditions would prevail in his factory. The theory is that men sufficiently interested in organized labor would demand clothing made under union conditions, and the label is the guaranty. The label agreement is in a form stipulated by the union, is printed, and is adhered to absolutely in every part of the country. By this agreement the employer binds himself to run a strictly union shop, employing only members of the United Garment Workers of America. This agreement also provides that 48 hours shall constitute the working week; that children under 16 shall not be employed; that the work shall be distributed equally among the workers during the slack season; that the machines used must be run

by mechanical power, and must be owned by the employer; and that proper sanitary conditions must be maintained, and the provisions of the State factory laws lived up to. On its part the union agrees to advertise the clothing of employers using the label. Provision is made in the agreement for the settlement of disputes. It provides that all disputes that can not be settled by the employer and his employees shall be referred to the general officers of the United Garment Workers of America. In case the latter are unable to effect a settlement the question is to be submitted to an "umpire to be mutually selected for final decision." The agreement does not specifically state that there shall be no strikes or lockouts, but that there shall be none is perfectly understood by both parties. In the matter of wages the different manufacturers agree to pay the union scale. This scale is attached in a supplement to the label agreement and remains in force during the life of such agreement. This scale is elaborately worked out in detail, based on the experience of several years. The prices for the several operations, since most of the workers are paid on a piecework basis, are enumerated in a printed pamphlet. Such modification as may be necessary to meet the conditions in a given shop are made and embodied in the supplement to the agreement.

There are three classes of manufacturers who use the label of the United Garment Workers of America—the manufacturers of ready-made clothing, the special-order houses, and the makers of mechanics' clothing. Under the head of "ready-made" clothing manufacturers are included those who make clothing to sell to the jobber or retailer to be sold off the counter. The "special-order" houses are those who make clothing after the wearer's order has been taken. They are sometimes called the "made-to-measure" or "tailor-to-the-trade" houses. The manufacturers of mechanics' clothing are those making overalls, workmen's trousers, workmen's shirts, duck coats, etc. This latter class represents the largest group using the label. In the city of New York the label of the United Garment Workers is used by 11 manufacturers of ready-made clothing, three manufacturers of clothing on special orders, and six manufacturers of mechanics' clothing. In all they employ about 2,500 workers.

The United Garment Workers of America have been making agreements with manufacturers involving the use of the union label for more than 20 years, the number of agreements and the number of workers covered by them varying from year to year. The agreements are made for one year, but renewal is very often automatic unless some change in conditions is desired. There seems to be general satisfaction with the workings of these agreements, both on the part of the union and on the part of the employers. Both are agreed

that labor strife is reduced to a minimum. They regard the agreement as a binding contract and try to live up to the spirit of it. The union has at different times asked for increases in wages during the life of an agreement, but such cases have been rare and due to unusual conditions. Union officials and manufacturers are unanimous in stating that such controversies as arise pertaining either to wages or other conditions have invariably been settled in a spirit of accommodation and without recourse to industrial warfare.

In addition to their label agreements the United Garment Workers of America have entered into oral "understandings" with several manufacturers who were unwilling to bind themselves absolutely to all the conditions asked by the union. These manufacturers agreed to maintain union shops and the union scale of wages, but often balked at closing their shops to nonunion workers. Such understandings are not considered "agreements" by the union officials, but often act as a wedge, resulting subsequently in written agreements containing all the provisions asked by the union.

Written agreements with seven associations of manufacturers in New York were negotiated by the United Garment Workers of America in 1913, after a big strike in the men's clothing industry. These associations were The Boys' Clothing Manufacturers of Greater New York, The Boys' Wash Suit Manufacturers' Association, The Metropolitan Merchant Tailors' Association, The East Side Retail Clothing Manufacturers' Association, The New York Clothing Trades' Association, The Tailors to the Trade Association, and the American Clothing Manufacturers' Association, the latter three being grouped in one agreement. These five agreements covered about 25,000 employees, or a little less than half of the industry in New York City. The agreements did not involve the use of the union label, but rather were intended to provide the beginnings of a plan to insure better relations between employer and employee, and thus to benefit the industry as a whole.¹

The factional disputes that arose within the ranks of the union workers and which ended in the secession movement previously mentioned, together with a lack of enthusiasm for the agreements on the part of the employers, practically vitiated the agreements and nullified the start that began so auspiciously in the early spring of 1913. The United Garment Workers have not since renewed these agreements. By the summer of 1915, however, the Amalgamated Clothing Workers had gained sufficient strength to warrant entering into negotiations with some of the associations, and new agreements resulted. These agreements cover two classes of employers—the

¹ These agreements are described in Bul. 198 of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

manufacturers of boys' clothing and the manufacturers of men's clothing.

Under the agreement between the Associated Boys' Clothing Manufacturers and the United Garment Workers, signed in 1913, the hours of labor in the boys' clothing industry were reduced to 50. The agreement was so far disregarded, however, that by December, 1915, the prevailing hours were 52, and in many shops more; wages had been reduced, and conditions were almost as bad as before the strike. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers called a strike in that month, and after being out five days, signed, on December 20, an agreement with the association which was to remain in force until April 1, 1918. The association is composed of 69 members, employing, together with the contractors who work for them, about 8,000 workers, or approximately two-thirds of the workers in the boys' clothing industry in New York City. Of the 8,000, about 2,000 work in the inside, or manufacturers', shops, and about 6,000 in outside, or contractors', shops. The manufacturers of the association are bound to employ only such contractors as maintain conditions in their shops equivalent to those provided in the agreement. This agreement fixed the hours at 49, and provided for increases of from 50 cents to \$1 a week for operatives, an increase of \$1 a week for cutters receiving less than \$21, and \$1 a week for examiners receiving less than \$14. Strikes and lockouts were prohibited, and both parties agreed to submit their differences to a committee on immediate action, which was to be composed of five members, two chosen by each of the parties to the agreement and the chairman, to be an impartial outsider. This committee selected a subcommittee of two to take up first the disputes and try to settle them. In practice this subcommittee is made up of the manager of the association, who is called the labor adviser, and the manager of the joint board of children's clothing of the union. Such disputes as have arisen, excepting those affecting hours and wages in the trade generally, have been settled amicably by this subcommittee in a more or less informal way. Questions regarding hours and wages were referred to a special committee.

In November, 1916, the union asked for a reduction of hours to 48, and a flat increase of \$2 a week. After hearings and consideration of the question by a special committee chosen for the purpose, a decision was reached modifying the agreement to the extent of shortening the hours to 48 and granting a flat increase of \$1 a week. The week's work still remains at 48 hours, but during the past year several increases in wages have been granted, approximating a general increase of 25 per cent. It seems to be the opinion of both parties that the agreement works well. There have been no strikes or lockouts, and such illegal stoppages as have occurred have been

ended quickly by the action of the union. The union is satisfied with the agreement because it has obtained better conditions under it, but some manufacturers are inclined to believe that, had there been a greater supply of workers, the agreement would not have worked so well.

The Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America are at the present time negotiating an agreement with the Washable Sailor Suit Manufacturers' Association. This association is composed of nine members, employing about 700 in their inside shops and about 1,000 in contractor's shops. It is expected that the hours will be fixed at 50 a week, and an increase of 12 per cent granted. Definite information regarding this agreement can not be given pending its signing, which is expected very soon.

In the branch of the industry engaged in the manufacture of clothing for men there was the same breaking down of the agreements of 1913 that was found in the boys' branch. Again hours were increased and wages reduced. In the summer of 1915 the Amalgamated Clothing Workers called a general strike, which resulted in a new alignment of forces and a new agreement. The American Clothing Manufacturers' Association, an organization of manufacturers that was formed at the time of the 1913 strike to deal with labor problems, signed the agreement with the Amalgamated. This association has 80 members and employs, both directly and through contractors, approximately 25,000 workers, or a little more than half the total workers in this branch of the industry. The vast bulk of these workers are in contract shops, the manufacturers employing directly only the cutters and trimmers. Most manufacturers, though not all, maintain relatively small establishments. In these the cloth and trimmings are cut and assembled. The work is then given out to other factories to be made at a price agreed upon by the manufacturer and the contractor. The contractor is virtually a foreman. He has a small shop set up on very small capital, or on money lent by the manufacturer. He takes work on a very small margin of profit, employs the necessary help, and personally supervises the making. His methods are usually inefficient, so that his only chance of increasing his profits is by taking it out of the workers. This method of manufacturing by letting out a large part of the work of making to contractors is characteristic of the industry, and gives rise to one of the greatest obstacles to a successful adjustment of the labor difficulties of the trade.

It is evident that if the workers are to be protected it must be in the contracting shops. But the contractors are, as a whole, irresponsible, and agreements made with them could hardly be enforced. The union, recognizing this, has sought to enforce its conditions in con-

tracting shops through the manufacturers who employ the contractors. The agreement entered into with the American Clothing Manufacturers' Association on July 20, 1915, at the settlement of the strike, recognized this condition, and bound the members of the association to give work to those contractors only who maintained in their shops the standards agreed upon by the association and the union. This agreement provided that the strikers return to work, and that 50 per cent of the reductions in prices made since the settlement of the 1913 strike be restored to all coat and pants workers, and that the total reduction be restored to vest makers. It provided that the principle of the union shop be recognized throughout the industry upon the creation of standards, and that work be given only to the contractors maintaining union shops. The machinery for determining the standards, and the machinery for settling disputes is also provided as follows: A committee of five chosen by both sides with an impartial chairman, and to be known as the "Committee on Standards," to settle the matter of standards; a "Committee on Immediate Action," composed of five representatives chosen by each side with an impartial chairman, to settle all matters in dispute; and a standing subcommittee of the latter composed of one representative of each side and known as the "Committee of Two," which shall try to settle all individual disputes before referring them to the "Committee on Immediate Action." Further, both sides agreed to organize a "Council of Moderators," to be composed of three members selected by the union, three selected by the association, and three chosen by both parties from the public at large. This council was to consider all matters affecting the industry as a whole. Strikes and lockouts were prohibited pending the adjustment of disputes.

The agreement was apparently entered into in good faith by both sides. The committees were chosen, but little was accomplished except by the Committee of Two. The Committee on Standards failed to accomplish its object, and little or nothing has come up before the other committees. The Committee of Two, however, which is made up of the managing director of the American Clothing Manufacturers' Association and the chairman of the New York Joint Board of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, has been able to settle all disputes that have arisen. The agreement was to be in force until November 1, 1916, at least. It has not yet been renewed, but the machinery established by it has been continued, and disputes that have arisen since then have been settled by the Committee of Two as under the agreement. It is estimated that about 250 disputes arise and are settled each week.

A new agreement between the American Association and the Amalgamated has been drawn up and ready for signing for some

few months. Its provisions are generally being lived up to, but the actual affixing of signatures has been put off time and again. The manufacturers' association is willing and anxious to sign it, but the union is disposed to delay. This attitude on the part of the union can be explained by the abnormal conditions in the industry. As has been said, a readjustment is going on within the industry and employment is plentiful. The supply of workers is short, and wages generally are going up. With such conditions a binding agreement is not as desirable from the workers' point of view as under ordinary conditions. In fact the desire to be free to take advantage of any situation that might arise is quite a natural one, and the union is not likely to hurry to sign the new agreement.

The Amalgamated has an agreement with one concern, employing about 1,500 people, which is also a member of the American Association. The agreement is for the calendar year 1917, and, besides providing for 48 hours and an increase of \$1 a week, provides machinery for settling disputes without the aid of the association. Each shop controlled by the company has its shop committee, composed of a representative of the company and one of the workers in the shop. This committee has original jurisdiction in all complaints. In case the shop committee fails to effect a settlement the matter is referred to a board of arbitration, composed of a representative of the company, one of the union, and a third member agreed upon by both. This agreement has worked satisfactorily to both parties. The Amalgamated also has an agreement with one other individual concern employing about 500, but which is not a member of the American Association. This agreement is merely a written statement that the company will arbitrate all disputes, but it provides no machinery.

Looking at the men's clothing industry in New York City as a whole, it is apparent that peaceful relations between employer and employee are being maintained. Slightly more than half of those employed in the industry are working under agreements, written and unwritten, but practically the entire industry is working union hours and receiving approximately the union scale. While the agreements have had some influence in bringing about these conditions, it is more than probable that the abnormal activity caused by the war is mostly responsible for the present conditions. The influx of war orders seems to be the outstanding feature of the industry to-day. It is estimated that 60 per cent of the workers on boys' clothing, 40 per cent of those on men's clothing, and nearly half of those on overalls and shirts are now engaged in making uniforms or some other garment for war use by the Government.

TRADE AGREEMENTS IN THE WOMEN'S CLOTHING INDUSTRIES OF PHILADELPHIA.¹

BY BORIS EMMET, PH. D.

A study of the present workings of trade agreements in the women's clothing trades of Philadelphia confirms a general statement made in an article which appeared in a previous issue of this REVIEW, dealing with the workings of trade agreements in the women's clothing industries of New York City² to the effect that the curtailment of the labor supply of these industries, attributable to the cessation of immigration and the increased demand for needle-trade workers caused by the war, has had a profound influence upon the relative strength of the positions of labor and capital in the driving of wage bargains. In the article mentioned it was pointed out that unlike what happened in the days of unrestricted immigration, the garment manufacturers during their busy seasons no longer enjoy the advantage of a superabundance of labor, accompanied by a cut-throat competition for jobs among the workers. The war demand for needle hands has more than offset the somewhat diminished activity in women's ready-to-wear garment trades caused by war economy and by the increased cost of clothing on account of the dearth of materials and labor.

Conditions similar to those in New York were found prevailing in the city of Philadelphia. The effects of a curtailed supply of labor began to be felt in that city during the busy season of the summer of 1916. Its intensity has greatly increased since our entry into the war, which brought to many of the women's garment manufacturers increasingly numerous contracts for military clothing, such as khaki garments, cotton underwear, mattress bags, etc. The abundance of available work and the consequent shortage of hands during the busy seasons strengthened greatly the bargaining power of labor and weakened the force of resistance of the employers. Trade agreements, which were rather unpopular before, are now favored by them "as the only effective method of putting the demands of labor within the bounds of reason and outside the range of daily demands for a change."

The position of labor has particularly been strengthened in the dress and waist industry, which, aside from enjoying a normally

¹ This article is a preliminary summary of one of the phases of a study on trade agreements to be published by this bureau in the future. A similar article dealing with trade agreements in the women's clothing industries of New York City appeared in the MONTHLY REVIEW of December, 1917.

² MONTHLY REVIEW, December, 1917, p. 20.

busy season, is doing a considerable amount of war work.¹ This fact, more, perhaps, than any other, may be stated to account for many of the valuable concessions made by the Dress and Waist Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia to its organized employees. Special mention is made below of the fact that the agreement in operation in this trade at the present time did not originally provide special privileges to members of the union in either hiring or laying off, but that, as a matter of fact, the agreement resulted in a complete unionization of the association shops. Such a condition, it was stated, came about through an obligation assumed by the employers to compel their employees, under the threat of discharge, if necessary, to keep in good standing with their union.

Different reasons are given by those concerned for this valuable concession to the workers. Union officials give due credit for it to the present management of the manufacturers' association, which, it is said, has a keen insight into labor matters and realizes that no agreement is workable without effective organization, and understands at the same time the futility of expecting union officials to direct effectively the actions of workers not affiliated with their organization. Giving due credit to the employers' association for this farsighted policy, one must keep in mind the fact that by the fall of 1916, when the concession referred to was granted, the position of labor was particularly strong on account of its limited supply caused by the cessation of immigration and the consequent increased demand for needle trade workers.

With our entry into the war the increased demand for needle hand labor in the city of Philadelphia was greatly intensified. It resulted in a movement of garment workers from the less busy branches of the needle trades to those in which, on account of war orders, employment was more plentiful. The great demand for workers ushered in a movement of workers from the cloak and suit industry, in which the manufacturing activity, for reasons stated below, has greatly diminished, to other needle industries such as the dress and waist trades, but particularly to trades engaged in the making of men's clothing.²

A similar movement, but flowing in the opposite direction—from the men's needle trades to the women's—exists in some of the other

¹ The dress and waist manufacturers secured contracts for mattress sacks, various kinds of bags, khaki garments, cotton underwear, and, in some instances, for trousers, coats, and overcoats. The subdivision of labor introduced in the manufacture of military clothing as well as the application of new machinery reduced greatly the amount of tailoring skill required and thus enabled dress and waist makers to become tailoring operatives.

² It is reported on reliable authority that approximately one-half of all the women's garment workers of Philadelphia are at the present time employed on war work of some sort. Instances are known of cloak makers who have deserted their trade altogether for more remunerative and steady employment in munition factories, which are abundant in this locality.

garment industries of the city. Considerable numbers of men's tailors and clothing workers are finding employment in dress and waist establishments which have taken contracts for military clothing or accessories the manufacture of which requires the services of needle hands.

The sudden movement of workers from trade to trade brought new difficulties to the labor organizations. These were confronted with the necessity of formulating a definite policy with reference to the treatment of members leaving the jurisdiction of their respective organizations. Trade-unions with original jurisdiction in the men's clothing trades, as well as those operating in the women's needle trades, were unwilling to give up their claims to the membership of those of their members who, temporarily, perhaps, were finding employment in other needle trades.

The flow of workers from one branch of the needle trades to another and from the men's trades to the women's or vice versa has at the present time assumed sufficiently large proportions to warrant the establishment of a special organization of workers on military garments. Such a trade-union has recently been established in the city of Philadelphia. The new organization is under the joint jurisdiction of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union and of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, a national union with jurisdiction in the men's clothing industry.

CLOAK AND SUIT INDUSTRY.

Prior to 1913, the workers of the cloak and suit industry of Philadelphia were poorly organized. Collective bargaining, although in existence, was confined to a few small shops and was not very effective. A general strike was called in the industry in July, 1913. The workers demanded recognition of their union, and collective bargaining. This strike lasted for six months, caused great losses to both sides, but failed to achieve its purposes. It was officially called off on December 16, 1913. This prolonged and bitter struggle resulted in a great disorganization of the cloak industry and entailed the loss of trade orders which have never come back to the Philadelphia market.

Another general strike was about to be called the following September, but was prevented by the efforts of the city authorities, who assisted the parties in reaching an understanding. The terms of the final settlement were drawn up by a board of arbitration agreed to by both sides.

As a result of this settlement two separate trade agreements were signed. One of these was with the Women's Wear Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia, an employers' association with a mem-

bership of about 40 small employers. The other agreement was signed with the Women's Garment Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia, which had a membership of about 60, included in which were the largest employers in the trade. In both of these agreements the workers were represented by the Joint Board of Cloak and Skirt Makers' Unions, consisting of representatives of Locals Nos. 2, 53, and 69, and of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union.

The agreements were essentially the same. Each provided for a 52-hour week, greatly restricted overtime work, specified minimum rates of wages for week and piece workers, outlawed strikes and lockouts, instituted agencies for collective piece-rate making, as well as for the peaceful adjustment of grievances, and obligated each of the parties to assist the other in the maintenance of safe and sanitary workshops. It further specified that during the dull seasons available work was to be distributed equally among all employees, and that members of the union were not to be discriminated against.

The principal point of distinction between the two agreements was as follows: Under the agreement with the first-mentioned association, which consisted of very small employers, the workers did not obligate themselves to work on "unsettled" garments—that is, on garments for the making of which no satisfactory piece rates were arranged. The agreement with the larger employers specified that workers were not to cease working pending the adjustment of piece rates. This point of distinction between the two agreements is important because it indicates the relative strength of the union when confronted with different types of employers. The union was always able to bring the smaller employers to terms without any special concessions. All the intensive and costly industrial struggles of the previous years were carried on principally against the larger employers, who, up to that time, were victorious over the workers. This fact furnishes the reason for the special concession which the union was compelled to grant to them.

The settlement which resulted in the agreements mentioned did not, however, bring about effective collective bargaining in the industry. The agreements did not work. Officials of the union complained of failure on the part of many employers to live up to many of the provisions and of the fact that the employers' associations were not in a position to discipline their members for the violations. It was further said that decisions of the authorities mutually agreed to were not complied with if in favor of the union. Not all the dissatisfaction, however, came from the union side. Employers frequently complained of failure on the part of the union to keep its promise to refrain from striking and of the fact that individual members of the

union seldom heeded the advice of their officers to remain at work pending a peaceful adjustment of differences.

The agreements quietly went out of existence. By 1917 no trade agreements of any sort were in existence between the organized manufacturers and the union. Collective bargaining was confined to a few small establishments, the owners of which did not belong to any of the employers' associations.

In the spring of 1917 the two manufacturers' associations of the industry consolidated into one—the Women's Garment Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia. Shortly thereafter, during the month of May, officials of this association requested a conference with the union for the purpose of formulating a new agreement. Such an agreement was signed on August 1, for a term of two years, between the Women's Garment Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia, with a membership of about 30 and total employees of about 2,000, and the Joint Board of Cloak and Skirt Makers' Unions of the city of Philadelphia. The principal features of this agreement are shown in its text, which is reproduced herewith:

AGREEMENT OF AUGUST 1, 1917.

This agreement made and entered into this first day of August, 1917, by and between the Women's Garment Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia, hereinafter styled the "Association," and the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, and the Joint Board of the Cloak and Skirt Makers' Unions of the city of Philadelphia, composed of Locals Nos. 2, 53, and 69, all collectively designated as the "Union," contracting herein for and in behalf of the said unions and for and in behalf of the members thereof now employed and hereafter to be employed by the members of the Association;

Witnesseth:

Whereas, the Association is composed of a large number of manufacturers engaged in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry in the city of Philadelphia, and the union represents the workers in the said trade, and

Whereas, the parties hereto desire to establish terms and conditions under which members of the union shall work for members of the Association;

Now, therefore, the parties hereto agree as follows:

1. The regular working-day shall consist of forty-nine (49) hours in six (6) week days, divided as follows: On the first five working days of the week the work shall begin at eight (8) o'clock a. m. and continue until twelve (12) m. and from one (1) o'clock p. m. to six (6) o'clock p. m. On Saturdays work shall be done from eight (8) o'clock a. m. until noon.

2. (A) No overtime shall be exacted or permitted between May 15th and July 15th, nor between November 15th and February 1st, nor so long as there are vacant accommodations in the shop for additional workers and competent workers can be promptly obtained.

(B) In the season in which overtime is permitted, such overtime shall not exceed eight (8) hours in any week, nor two (2) hours in any day, and shall be restricted to the first four working days of the week. No overtime shall be allowed on Saturdays, except for the purpose of finishing and completing emergency orders. Abuse of the last-mentioned privilege on the part of the em-

ployer shall be subject to complaint and adjustment in the manner hereinafter set forth.

(C) Week workers shall be paid for overtime at the rate of one and one-half ($1\frac{1}{2}$) times the regular weekly wages.

(D) Employees shall not be required to work on New Year's Day, Independence Day, Labor Day, and Christmas, and there shall be no deduction from the pay of week workers for the aforesaid legal holidays. Employees may also refrain from work on the first day of May, but without pay.

3. (A) *Cloak and suit cutters.*—Cloak and suit cutters, competent to lay out, mark, and cut the goods with reasonable speed and economy shall be designated as "full-fledged" cutters, and their minimum wage shall be \$27.50 per week. Cutters who are not full-fledged shall be divided into three classes:

Class "A." Those who have worked at the trade not less than three years, and their minimum wage shall be \$22.50 per week;

Class "B." Those who have worked at the trade not less than two years, nor more than three years, and their minimum wage shall be \$20 per week;

Class "C." Those who have worked at the trade not less than one year, and their minimum wage shall be \$15 per week.

(B) All full-fledged cutters having heretofore received a wage of \$24 per week, or more, shall be raised up immediately to the minimum scale of \$27.50. All full-fledged cutters having heretofore received a wage of \$23 per week, or less, shall be raised up immediately to \$25 per week. All Class "A," "B," and "C" cutters shall immediately receive an increase of \$2 per week over their present wages.

4. *Skirt cutters.*—The minimum wage of full-fledged cutters on skirts shall be \$25 per week. Skirt cutters who are not full-fledged shall be divided into two classes:

Class "A." Those who have worked at the trade three years, and their minimum wage shall be \$20 per week;

Class "B." Those who have worked at the trade two years, and their minimum wage shall be \$18 per week.

All full-fledged cutters having heretofore received a wage of \$22 per week, or more, shall immediately be raised up to the minimum scale of \$25 per week.

All full-fledged cutters having heretofore received less than \$22 per week and all Class "A" and Class "B" cutters, shall immediately receive an increase of \$2 per week.

5. *Trimmers.*—Trimmers on cloaks and suits shall be divided into three classes:

Class "A" shall comprise competent trimmers who have worked at the trade not less than three years, and their minimum wage shall be \$24 per week;

Class "B" shall comprise those who have worked at the trade two years, and their minimum wage shall be \$20 per week.

Class "C" shall comprise those who have worked at the trade one year, and their minimum wage shall be \$15 per week.

All Class "A" trimmers shall immediately be raised up to the minimum scale of \$24 per week. All Class "B" and Class "C" trimmers shall immediately receive an increase of \$2 per week.

An employer employing only one cutter, or one trimmer, shall employ, if available, only the highest-priced man. If he employs two or more cutters or trimmers, then one out of every three or fraction thereof, of cutters or trimmers so employed, may be as to cutters of Classes "A," "B," and "C," and as to trimmers of Classes "B" and "C."

One apprentice who just enters the trade shall be allowed to every five cutters or trimmers.

6. *Sample makers.*—Sample makers on coats shall receive a minimum wage of \$23 per week.

Sample makers on skirts shall receive a minimum wage of \$20 per week.

Sample coat finishers shall receive a minimum wage of \$13 per week.

Button, hook and eye sewers and skirt bottom basters who are employed by the week shall immediately receive an increase of 10 per cent on their present wages.

7. (A) All prices to be paid to pieceworkers shall be agreed upon in advance between the employer and the price committee of the workers in his shop, in the presence of the shop chairman, and shall be adjusted as nearly as possible on the following minimum basis for each hour of continuous work for a worker of average skill:

For operators, 75 cents per hour.

For jacket upper pressers, 70 cents per hour.

For skirt pressers, 65 cents per hour.

For jacket underpressers, 60 cents per hour.

For finishers, 50 cents per hour.

The said hourly base rates shall not be considered either as a minimum or as a maximum but as a basis for settlement of piece prices.

(B) The price committee shall be elected by the employees at a regular shop meeting, if possible, from among workers who have been employed in that shop not less than one month.

(C) If the employer and the price committee fail to agree upon the prices of any garment or garments, then, upon request of either side, price adjusters furnished by both sides shall immediately be called in. Should the price adjusters fail to agree, they shall immediately agree upon an expert, who shall adjust the dispute within 24 hours and whose decision shall be final and binding on both sides.

(D) The workers shall not be required to work on garments on which prices have not been agreed upon in the manner above provided, except on emergency orders and only during the busy season, when the workers shall continue to work on the unsettled numbers until the prices on them will be fixed by the adjusters or price expert. The price adjusters or price expert must fix the prices on such unsettled numbers within 24 hours from the time the garments were put in work.

(E) All wages shall be paid weekly on a fixed day in cash.

8. The association agrees to cooperate in every way with the union in its effort to enforce proper standards of safety and sanitary conditions in the factories and the shops of the cloak and suit industry in the city of Philadelphia under its control.

No work shall be given to employees to be done at home.

9. (A) The association agrees that its members will maintain preferential shops; that is to say, shops in which the standards herein fixed shall be maintained, and wherein preference shall be given to members in good standing of Locals Nos. 2, 53, and 69 of the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union in the employment of workers.

(B) Whenever there is insufficient work for all the employees of the shop, work shall be distributed as equally as may be feasible among all the employees.

(C) During the slack seasons when there is insufficient work for the usual number of employees, pieceworkers shall not be expected to report before 9 o'clock a. m.

10. (A) The employer shall have the absolute right to discharge any employee at any time during a period of two weeks of the beginning of his em-

ployment for incompetency or misconduct and such discharge shall not be subject to review. The first two weeks of employment shall be considered as a "trial period." After the trial period, no employee shall be discharged for any cause, except incompetency or misconduct, but the employee so discharged shall have the right to a review of the action of the employer as hereinafter provided.

(B) The employer shall be at all times free to select his employees at his discretion, subject to provision 10; in good faith to reorganize his shop whenever in his judgment the conditions of business shall make it desirable for him to do so, and to assign work requiring a superior or special kind of skill to those employees who possess the requisite skill. In any of these events the employee shall have the right to review of the action of the employer in the manner hereinafter provided.

11. (A) All members of the association shall register with the association, and the association shall register with the union, the names and addresses of all outside shops to which they send work.

(B) The association agrees that its members will not send their work, cut or uncut, to outside shops where the standards as herein fixed do not prevail. In case of a dispute between the employer and the union officials as to whether or not the standards herein fixed are maintained in the outside shops where his work is sent, the matter shall be left to the adjustment committee. If the adjustment committee shall decide that the standards have not been maintained, the work shall at once be withdrawn from such shops.

12. No security deposits shall be exacted from the employees, except for machine parts, which deposits shall not exceed \$1, and shall be refunded to the employee upon the surrender of said parts. Any other security deposits heretofore exacted shall be returned. No charge shall be made for electric power or for requisites of work.

13. No employee shall be allowed to hire and pay a helper, or helpers, but joint arrangements between the workers are not hereby prohibited, provided that the basis of division of earnings be fixed in advance, and that each of the employees taking part in such arrangement be paid his or her share directly by the employer.

14. No employee shall be required to work on orders placed by firms or shopkeepers whose employees are on strike, and the strike is indorsed by the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union. The employer shall sell no goods to such firms.

15. The parties hereto agree to establish an adjustment committee, which shall consist of the chief clerk of the association, the chief clerk of the union and an umpire, who is to be selected forthwith by the parties hereto. Whatever compensation may be found proper for the umpire shall be paid jointly by the two organizations. The umpire shall be removed on complaint on either side, and in the event of the failure to agree upon a new umpire within ten days, the umpire shall be selected by the board of arbitration hereinafter provided.

16. Any complaint, either by employer or employee, shall be taken up for adjustment by the shop chairman and the employer, or some person designated by the latter. If they fail to agree, the matter shall at once be submitted for adjustment to the chief clerks of the association and the union. Should the chief clerks fail to agree, the complaint shall immediately be submitted to and adjusted within 48 hours by the chairman of the adjustment committee, whose decision is to be final and binding upon both sides. There shall be no stoppage of work pending such decisions.

17. Employees who have been discharged and have been ordered reinstated by the adjustment committee shall have the question of pay for the time they lost by reason of such discharge decided by said adjustment committee.

18. A permanent board of arbitrators, consisting of three members, one appointed by the association, one by the union, and one by the two parties jointly, the last to represent the general public, shall be promptly selected, to whom an appeal may be taken from the decision of the adjustment committee in all cases where either of the parties believes the matter to be of general importance to the trade. The board of arbitrators shall also have authority to determine all questions arising as to the construction of this agreement. Said board of arbitration shall be subject to be convened at the instance of either party on any matter not touched upon in this agreement, and on any question arising in the future between the association and the union.

19. The findings and determination of the adjustment committee, if not appealed from within five days, and the findings and determination of the board of arbitration, shall be binding upon both parties.

20. During the period of this agreement there shall be for no reason whatsoever any shop strike or general strike, and no individual or general lockout, but all complaints of either party must be adjusted in the manner as herein provided.

21. This agreement shall be in force until July 1, 1919. It is hereby agreed that if at the end of the first year any question on either side should arise that requires adjustment, the same shall be submitted to the board of arbitration for adjudication.

In witness whereof the parties hereto have signed this agreement through their respective officers, duly authorized thereto, the day and year first above written.

The agreement provides for a 49-hour week, restricts greatly overtime work, specifies minimum weekly and hourly rates of wages, defines the methods to be pursued in the determination of piece rates, outlaws strikes and lockouts, and creates elaborate agencies for the peaceful adjustment of grievances. It also introduces the principle of equal distribution of work during dull seasons. In addition to the above it accords to members of the union preference in employment and layoffs. Subcontracting of any kind is expressly prohibited. The agreement legalizes outside contracting, provided the labor standards of the outside or contract shops are as fixed in the agreement for the members of the association.

The agreement has now been in operation over four months. It is reported to have worked satisfactorily, considering the present abnormal condition of the cloak and suit industry.¹ All the grievances which have arisen have been peaceably adjusted through the

¹ Cloak and suit manufacturers of Philadelphia complain bitterly of the fact that their trade has rapidly been losing ground since the prolonged strike of 1913. The buyers which were then lost have never returned. Aside from the prolonged strike of 1913, the loss in trade is attributed to the fact that the Pennsylvania Railroad has removed its principal station for trains coming from the West from Broad Street, which is in the heart of the cloak industry, to North Philadelphia, 7 miles away. This change makes it very inconvenient for western buyers going to New York to stop over in Philadelphia to inspect merchandise.

offices of the employers' associations and the union without any recourse to the assistance of a third or outside party.

Collective bargaining in the cloak industry of Philadelphia is not confined to establishments belonging to members of the Women's Garment Manufacturers' Association. In addition to the agreement with the latter association, the union has over 50 agreements with individual establishments on terms very similar to those of the agreement with the employers' association discussed in detail above. The total employees of these 50 establishments is about 1,500.

DRESS AND WAIST INDUSTRY.¹

The beginning of collective bargaining on a significant scale in the dress and waist industry of Philadelphia dates back to a short general strike which took place in February, 1910. Although resulting in a trade agreement, this strike did not bring about successful collective bargaining.

The settlement of 1910 was effected by a board of arbitration agreed to by both sides. It was then agreed that all of the striking employees were to be taken back without discrimination. Upon return to work the employees of each shop were to select from among themselves a committee of three for the purpose of conferring with the employer regarding wages and hours.

The individual shop committees were to work upon the following basis, which was fixed in advance by the board of arbitration: (1) No charges to be made for power or needles; (2) 52½-hour week; (3) unless especially agreed to by the employees, no work was to be permitted on Saturdays after 1 o'clock; (4) piece rates as well as all other differences were to be settled by a committee representing the employees and the employer. In case of inability to agree, the controversy was to be referred to a committee of two, consisting of a representative of the manufacturers' association and a representative of the union. Disputes as to which the latter two could not agree were to be referred for final adjudication to the board of arbitration. The agreement was to continue in force until May 1, 1911.

As already stated, this agreement did not bring about real collective bargaining. It gradually went out of existence, as neither of the parties, apparently, was sufficiently well organized to bargain successfully.

Beginning December 15, 1915, after a threatened general strike, conferences were held for the purpose of formulating a new agreement. These conferences resulted in the signing of an agreement on

¹ Unlike the dress and waist industry of New York City, which is highly specialized, the dress and waist industry of Philadelphia includes also the production of children's and misses' dresses, silk dresses, and house dresses.

January 19, 1916. The agreement is between the Dress and Waist Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia and the International Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, representing the dress and waist makers who are organized as its local number 15. It is in operation at the present time and governs the relations of the 135 members of the employers' association, with a total of about 6,000 employees.

The present agreement came about by a decision of a board of arbitration organized by mutual consent of both parties. The three principal demands of the union which were submitted to the board for final adjudication were:

1. The establishment of a minimum scale of wages for all cutters in the industry, as follows: (a) Full-fledged cutters who are required to do pattern grading, \$27.50 per week; (b) full-fledged cutters—those who work at laying, marking, and cutting but do no pattern grading—\$25 per week; (c) senior assistants—those with two years' experience, but not in the grade of full-fledged cutters—\$18 per week; (d) junior assistants—cutters in their second year—\$12 per week.

2. Week workers other than those mentioned to receive increases in wages as follows: (a) Such as have received no increase since January 20, 1916, \$2 per week; (b) such as have received an increase of \$1 or more since January 20, 1916, \$1 per week.

3. An increase of 15 per cent on all piece rates.

The first and second requests were denied by the board because it "was not in possession of sufficiently accurate information upon which to base a finding as to the reasonableness or unreasonableness of the requests." In this connection the board advised the creation of a wage board to investigate existing wage rates in the trade. This board was instructed to determine rates of wages for each of the occupations and to submit the findings to the board of arbitration for approval not later than September 1, 1917. To afford immediate relief to the workers the board of arbitration awarded a 10 per cent increase to all week workers, with the proviso that in no instance shall this increase be less than \$1 per week.

The third request was also denied by the board, because it was of the opinion "that the remedy lies in the hands of the pieceworkers, who, under the provisions of a previous decision of the board dealing with the creation of price committees and official adjusters, were empowered to settle any differences which might arise regarding piece prices." The board suggested that in the making of piece rates "all concerned should take into consideration the present high cost of living."

Unlike the majority of the trade agreements in existence at the present time in many of the other needle trades, the greater part

of this agreement is based upon understandings between the parties, seldom committed to writing. The written part of the agreement relates wholly to demands upon the disposition of which the parties themselves could not agree and which therefore had to be made by the board of arbitration. The findings of the latter are, as a rule, in writing.

The present agreement, as it actually stands, contains the following features: (1) Prohibition of strikes and lockouts; (2) agencies for the peaceable adjustment of grievances; (3) minimum weekly rates of wages for week and piece workers; (4) definite union recognition.

It is understood that the employees will refrain from striking, and that employers will not lock out their employees. All grievances arising are to be adjusted, in the first instance, by the shop chairman, who is the officially elected representative of the workers on the premises, and the employer, and, if these two can not agree, by a committee of two consisting of one representative of the union and one of the employers' association. Cases upon the disposition of which the latter two can not agree are to be submitted for final adjustment to the board of arbitration.

The agreement as originally signed in 1916 provided for specific rates of wages and weekly hours of labor and for a board of arbitration to adjust any differences which might arise. No special recognition or privileges were to be accorded to members of the union, the employers retaining their right to hire and fire at pleasure. As a matter of fact, however, the great majority of association establishments are at the present time completely unionized—that is, employ none but members of the union. This condition came about in the following manner: On August 21, 1916, the union presented certain demands to the employers, among which were: (1) The election by employees of each establishment of a chairman to represent them and their organization; (2) nonacceptance into the manufacturers' association of applicants without an investigation as to whether or not the applicant maintains agreement conditions in his shop; (3) delinquent union members in employ of members of the association to be compelled by their employers to keep in good standing with their organization.

The first two demands were immediately granted. At a subsequent joint conference, held September 7, 1916, the third was acceded to. The association passed a resolution to the effect that any of its members who fail to comply with the new obligation are to be subject to discipline upon reports received from the union. The new obligation virtually means that employers are to discharge union employees who fail to pay their dues, and that any employee having once joined the union must remain in it in order to hold his or her position.

The agreement is reported to have worked satisfactorily until war work appeared in the industry. This began about August, 1917, and has gradually extended until at the present time as many as one-half of the dress and waist makers of the city are employed on war work.

With the appearance of war work the number of shop stoppages increased greatly. The following appear to be the two principal reasons for the more frequent stoppages: (1) Some employers are inclined to deal arbitrarily with their employees because they work on "Government orders." Such employers usually claim that the jurisdiction of the union does not extend to war work, and, "even if it did, it is illegal for the workers to strike." Such assertions on the part of employers immediately result in stoppages to enforce demands for union recognition; (2) Many of the workers are socialists and pacifists, strike the more readily, because by striking they think they can help themselves, harm the "capitalist class," and hinder the carrying on of the war.

Collective bargaining in this industry is not confined to establishments owned or controlled by members of the Dress and Waist Manufacturers' Association. In addition to the agreement with the latter, the union has at the present time individual establishment agreements with about 40 employers, with terms very similar to those of the agreement with the manufacturers' association. These establishments employ about one thousand workers.

FIFTH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF LABOR.¹

While the general policies of the Department of Labor have continued to be the same, the Secretary of Labor states in his fifth annual report, the war has brought new and perplexing problems. It continues to be the purpose of the department to promote the welfare of wage earners and to advance their opportunities for employment; it aims to represent the interests of both organized and unorganized labor; and strives to do so in harmony with the welfare of all industrial classes so as to secure the largest measure of industrial justice.

The war has strained the relations between employers and employees; yet it is true that "in diminishing numbers and with lessening influence as war conditions have developed" employers have opposed the right of wage earners to organize. The Secretary characterizes as unpatriotic the attempt to obstruct arbitrarily labor organization of the conservative as distinguished from the revolutionary type. Making the joining of a labor organization a cause for dismissal from employment—because it is really designed to prevent organization—tends to remove the workers from "the pacifying influences of constructive and responsible labor organization" and to bring them under the influence of the revolutionary type of organization. The Secretary deprecates this fact, declaring that—

It is the policy of this department to acknowledge the right of both employers and wage earners to organize, but to use its influence against abuse of organization on either side. This policy has been justified by the experience of the mediation service of the department, described in earlier pages of this report. Whenever employers enter into negotiations with organized workers, differences are almost always adjusted satisfactorily. Although both sides have at times made demands which, in view of the war, are unreasonable, nevertheless reasonable settlements have been made when both have come together in a patriotic spirit. In justice it should be added that since the war began the department has encountered not more than one or two instances in which a fair adjustment of differences has been prevented by any representative of organized labor.

All proposals, the Secretary continues, to settle labor disputes by coercing wage earners are "both unfair and impracticable;" "they are also widely regarded, and not without reason, as unpatriotic." These remarks refer particularly to proposals for the conscription of industrial labor. A one-sided policy of "conscription of labor

¹ Fifth annual report of the Secretary of Labor, fiscal year ending June 30, 1917. Washington, 1917. 159 pp.

for private profit" public sentiment can not be expected to tolerate; such a policy must be accompanied by the correlative one of conscription of industry, "so as to make such workers not coerced servants of employers, but employees of the Government itself."

There is, however, no reason for apprehending a necessity for labor conscription, the report continues, in order to settle disputes which interfere with a rigorous prosecution of the war:

By simple and fair systems of collective bargaining between the Government, labor organizations and business organizations, all labor disputes prejudicial to an effective prosecution of the war can be promptly eliminated from war problems.

SETTLEMENT OF LABOR DISPUTES.

The field of the Department of Labor in the settlement of labor disputes includes all lines of industry wherever its services may be requested or be considered of value. It does not take jurisdiction of disputes in transportation lines, except those occurring among clerks, shopmen, and others not directly engaged therein.

The work of the department has greatly expanded since the entry of the United States into the war and the importance of it is thus emphasized by the Secretary:

The anxiety of the Government, particularly at this time, for a full production from mine, mill, and factory in order that the war progress of the United States and our allies might be unhampered caused the commissioners of conciliation to strain every effort to secure satisfactory adjustments in all labor controversies, with the special purpose of preventing, wherever possible, any stoppage of work and consequent loss to the country in output and to the workers in wages. Vastly increased production has been thus facilitated.

The success which has attended the department's representatives in the great majority of disputes has been most gratifying. In many instances, through the efforts of the department, strikes which would have involved thousands of workers engaged in great operations were quietly averted and industrial peace maintained.

The magnitude of the labor disputes handled during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1917, is indicated by the fact that 473,734 workmen were directly affected and 334,225 indirectly. Increased work since the war declaration of April 6, 1917, is shown by the fact that since the end of the fiscal year to October 25, 1917, the additional number of disputes involved directly almost three-fourths (343,906) as many workmen as were affected during the whole of the fiscal year. The disputes of this latter period involved indirectly 202,578 workmen, or about two-thirds of those indirectly affected by disputes occurring during the whole fiscal year. And of the disputes arising during the fiscal year those occurring during that part of the war period from April 6 to June 30, 1917, affected directly 228,123 workmen, and indirectly 178,376.

The character of the disputes handled by the department from July 1, 1916, to October 25, 1917, is indicated in the statement below:

NATURE OF DISPUTES HANDLED BY DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, JULY 1, 1916, TO OCT. 25, 1917.

Period covered.	Nature of disputes.			
	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Controversies.	Total.
Apr. 6, 1917, to Oct. 25, 1917.....	281	28	212	521
July 1, 1916, to June 30, 1917.....	242	13	123	378

Of 378 disputes during the fiscal year under review the department successfully adjusted 248, or 65.6 per cent. It was unable to adjust 47, or 12.4 per cent; while 42, or 11.1 per cent, were pending; and in 41 cases, or 10.8 per cent, the result is not specified.

RESULTS OF EFFORTS AT MEDIATION BY THE CONCILIATORS OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, JULY 1, 1916, TO OCT. 25, 1917.

Period covered.	Number and per cent of disputes—								Total.
	Adjusted.		Not adjusted.		P ending.		Result not specified.		
	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	Num-ber.	Per-cent.	
Apr. 6, 1917, to Oct. 25, 1917..	322	61.8	43	8.3	105	20.1	51	9.8	521
July 1, 1916, to June 30, 1917..	248	65.6	47	12.4	42	11.1	41	10.8	378

The success of the department's work is looked upon as most gratifying, and attention is called to the growing desire on the part of both employers and employees to secure the good offices of the department.

Labor has discovered that it has a standing in the Government machinery of its country whenever its demands are based on its industrial and constitutional rights. Employers, on the other hand, have found the department a defender against unreasonable exaction.

FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT SERVICE.

To such magnitude has the employment service of the Division of Information, which is a part of the Bureau of Immigration, grown as a result of the war demands that the Secretary urges the creation of a national employment bureau or independent division in the department. A bill is recommended for enactment which provides for a Commissioner of Employment at \$5,000 per annum, to be appointed by the Secretary.

The war brought an extraordinary demand for "man power," particularly in all industries supplying war materials. "Much of this,"

the Secretary of Labor says, "was found to have been influenced more by eagerness for labor at low or inadequate wages relatively to the sharp rise in living expenses than by general labor shortage." The problem to be met by the department was less a problem of labor scarcity than of imperfect distribution.

Perhaps the largest service of the department was rendered in connection with recruiting men for the construction work of the Shipping Board. Within 10 days of the call from the board a list of approximately 19,000 skilled mechanics ready for service was secured by the department. Calls for labor in the construction of the Army cantonments have also been responded to by the department.

In furtherance of its war employment service the department created, on June 14, 1917, the United States Public Service Reserve. This is a registration agency for patriotic citizens who desire to offer their services either with or without compensation to the Government or to enterprises engaged on Government work.

The Boys' Working Reserve was organized April 20, 1917, for registration of boys over 16 years of age who may wish to do service in employments depleted of adult workers by war necessities. The organization, which is much decentralized and dependent upon the personal initiative and abilities of the State directors cooperating with the central director at the department, has placed over 150,000 boys upon farms for seasonal work—"boys from city life who otherwise would not have been able to render this national service."

A service similar to those above has also been established for the benefit of woman workers.

To assist the department in its employment service for the current year an emergency appropriation of \$250,000 (\$750,000 asked) was granted by Congress October 6, 1917.

The extent of the work of this Federal employment service may be seen from the subjoined table for the years in which it has been in operation. The extraordinary increase for the fiscal year 1917 is quite apparent.

WORK OF THE DIVISION OF INFORMATION, BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION, OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, FOR THE FISCAL YEARS 1908 TO 1917.

Fiscal year.	Applica- tions for work.	Number referred to em- ployment.	Number actually employed.	Fiscal year.	Applica- tions for work.	Number referred to em- ployment.	Number actually employed.
1908 and 1909.....			5,008	1914.....	19,393		3,368
1909.....	26,477			1915.....	90,119	18,883	11,871
1910.....	18,239		4,283	1916.....	184,032	84,963	75,156
1911.....	30,657		5,176	1917.....	413,649	363,189	283,799
1912.....	26,213		5,807				
1913.....	19,891		5,025	Total.....	828,670	457,035	399,493

¹ For months of May and June only.

IMMIGRATION.

The administration of the immigration and Chinese exclusion acts rests with the Department of Labor exclusively. During the fiscal year 362,877 aliens were admitted to the United States and 16,028 excluded. Of this number 295,403 were immigrant aliens and 67,474 nonimmigrant. The number of immigrant aliens admitted during the fiscal year 1916 was 298,826, making an immigrant decrease of 3,423. Subtracting the number of alien departures, the net increase in alien population in 1917 has been 216,498.

THE CHILD-LABOR LAW.

While the Department of Labor is primarily engaged in the enforcement of the Federal child labor act, the Departments of Justice and Commerce cooperate also in its enforcement. The immediate enforcement of the law is delegated to the Child Labor Division of the Children's Bureau in the Department of Labor. As the law became effective January 4, 1917, the principal work in its enforcement during the year has consisted in the formulation of regulations for carrying out its provisions. In the issue of certificates of age, particularly, close cooperation has been established with State officials engaged in enforcing the child labor laws of those States.

As the result of its study on the child-labor situation in connection with the law, the bureau called the attention of the Secretary of War to the employment of children on a Government reservation. The Secretary of War subsequently issued regulations concerning the future employment of children on such reservations, regulations which conform to the standards laid down in the child-labor act itself.

Aside from the administration of the child-labor law the principal work of the Children's Bureau is investigative. Special studies of child welfare abroad have been made by the bureau. These include matters of child labor, dependency, delinquency, illegitimacy, provisions for soldiers' families, maternal and infant care.

The bureau has combined the results of its eight completed field studies on infant mortality and finds "an even steadier decrease in the death rate among babies under one year of age as the income of the father increases" than did the figures for the Manchester (N. H.) study published during the year.

WOMAN LABOR.

The war early emphasized the importance of woman labor for the war industries. A central employing agency, created by private enterprises at first, was turned over to the Department of Labor just before our declaration of war. The work has consisted of (1)

the assortment and collation of data on war contracts involving woman labor; (2) sending contracts exclusively to agents of the United States Employment Service; (3) collection of information as to requests for woman labor in war industries; (4) determination of the legitimacy of such requests; (5) exclusive initiation in recruiting the labor of women. Cooperation, however, is invited from State, municipal, and private agencies.

FARM LABOR.

The Department of Agriculture assumed the task of studying the supplies and needs of farm labor in rural districts, while the Department of Labor cooperated to study the available supplies in towns and cities and to direct these through their employment agencies to places of need. The Department of Labor continued to maintain Kansas City as its center of harvest land operations, and kept in close touch with the National Farm Labor Exchange. The department extended its activities by aiding in placing men for the Canadian harvests.

Closely related to the farm labor shortage is the recommendation of the Secretary of Labor for the creation of agricultural colonies and Government lands under governmental supervision. These colonies are designed to attract labor from urban centers, young farmers just getting a start and others interested. The colonists should be given some limited form of title, "without investing them with absolute tenure rights, useless to them but attractive to speculators." A system of cooperative credits is suggested. For the purpose in question a measure similar to the Crosser colonization bill now pending "seems well adapted in principle and easily adaptable in terms."

NEGRO LABOR.

"With the coming on of war, a stream of negro migration from the South," the Secretary of Labor notes, "caused much concern with reference to planting, and harvesting the crops of that region." Inducements were held out in the North principally by railroad corporations desiring to make up for the loss of unskilled immigrant labor. Group migration, at first assisted by the department, was abandoned on the discovery of these circumstances, but assistance in finding employment was continued for individuals, regardless of race.

The department has under way an investigation of the causes and conditions surrounding this migration because it considers the problem an important one, characterizing it as "an acute labor phase of the war problem."

Preliminary reports from those in charge of the investigation in the South show "that on its economic side there necessarily must be some increase of wages, and on farms and plantations, better understanding and accounting between landlord and tenant, better housing and gardening, and more intelligent adjustment to crop rotation, and to necessary changes in methods of agriculture," in order to prevent a further labor shortage in the South.

CIVIL AND MILITARY SERVICE.

The department cooperated with the Civil Service Commission in employment work, assisting in finding men for the navy yards, arsenals, and other Government establishments; the officers of the department in some districts sit with the examining board of the commission or carry out the work where the commission has no representatives.

The work that the department can do at the close of this war is forecast in its efforts in the placing of national guardsmen after their return from the Mexican border. The department estimates that it placed 15,577 guardsmen in employment out of a total of 50,000 who returned from the border during February and March of 1917.

For the general civil service the Secretary renews his recommendation of the previous year for an equitable system of retirement, "one that will best subserve the interests of efficiency and economy and at the same time insure fair financial provision for the old age of Government employees who by long and faithful service have deserved this consideration."

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics, together with the Children's Bureau, are the investigative branches of the department. The investigations of the latter have been adverted to already. Special studies with reference to the war have been undertaken by the Bureau of Labor Statistics; these have included wage and price studies in communities affected by the expansion in industry, types of collective bargaining, industrial hazards from accident and disease, and the employment of women in men's occupations. The bureau has also published bulletins and articles of British, French, and other foreign official reports, on hours, fatigue, health, welfare work, the employment of women and juveniles, labor unrest, and other matters concerning conditions of labor in those countries.

COORDINATION OF DEPARTMENTAL FUNCTIONS.

In a communication which was submitted to the Speaker of the House on January 9, 1917, and which the Secretary incorporates at

length in his annual report, attention is called to the fact that certain bureaus in other departments of the Government are engaged in work properly belonging in the Department of Labor. The field of the Public Health Service, for instance, overlaps that of the Bureau of Labor Statistics in the investigation of occupational diseases; the employment work of the Bureau of Navigation in the Department of Commerce—hiring and discharging of seamen—is logically within the purview of the Department of Labor; and the licensing of officers of vessels and the administration of the safety laws applying to vessels and their crews—now functions of the Department of Commerce (Steamboat-Inspection Service)—so far as this latter function relates to the personnel of the vessel, belong, naturally, to the Department of Labor. To avoid this duplication of effort legislation is needed, and the passage of such a measure is earnestly recommended.

LABOR AND THE WAR.

THE SOLDIER, THE WORKER, AND THE LAND'S RESOURCES.¹

BY BENTON MACKAYE.

The United States to-day, in common with the other belligerent nations, has before it the question of providing for the returning soldier and for the worker who has been dislocated in his occupation by the war. The dislocated must be relocated. For those who are going to be able to use it, land will be, as always, the fundamental opportunity. The other belligerent nations, notably Great Britain and her colonies, are making extensive plans for public colonization. Our neighbor Canada is working on Crown-land legislation which is perhaps more advanced even than that of Australia, and the actual location of returning soldiers has begun on lands in Ontario and in Manitoba.

This same problem was before this country 50 years ago. The question then was, How can the public domain be utilized for the benefit of the Civil War soldier? The so-called solution was to pass a law providing for soldier's additional homestead land. By the terms of the homestead law, passed in 1862, any citizen of the United States could obtain free of charge 160 acres of public land after residing thereon for five years and making certain improvements. But under the soldier's additional law, passed in 1872, any Civil War veteran who had already obtained a homestead of less than 160 acres could get, without the need of residence or improvement, the additional land needed to make 160 acres. Every such veteran could get a paper certificate whereby the acreage to which he was entitled could be secured. This certificate became known as scrip, which was a document enabling the holder to select and obtain from the Government the immediate and unconditional title to a given acreage anywhere upon the public domain. Since this form of scrip amounted to a free and transferable ticket to a piece of public land at no definite location it became subject to grave abuses by land and town-site speculators.

It does not seem probable that the device of soldier's scrip will be tried again. It belongs with the old order of land legislation which

¹ This article is a summary of a forthcoming report on the subject of land colonization.

resulted in the disintegration of most of the public domain. Since Civil War days, however, a new order has come about.

A NEW ORDER IN GOVERNMENT LAND POLICY.

Disintegration is gradually being replaced by integration of the Nation's sources of life. The establishment since 1891 of over 130 million acres of National Forest land in the West is one prime move in the new process of national integration. The purchase by the Government since 1911 of nearly 1,000,000 acres of forest lands in the Appalachian and White Mountains of the East is a sharp reversal of the former policy of public land disposal. And again the leasing system established in 1914 for coal lands in Alaska, together with the reservation of a portion thereof for Government purposes, extends to another great resource, the application of the conservation policy adopted for the remaining forest resources.

The growing policy of integration, moreover, shows itself in other ways than in the retention and the acquisition of public resources. In the development of resources, the Government has become active where it used to be passive. The reclamation law, passed 15 years ago, marks the new policy as it applies to the vast areas of desert lands in the West. The Alaskan railroad, begun in 1914, is second to the Panama Canal in the Government's major transportation projects. The proposal to conduct timber operations by the Government in getting out spruce for airplanes contemplates extending still further the field of public action.

And with the birth five years ago of the Department of Labor, the workers' point of view has been definitely brought into play with regard to the Government's part in the country's development. From whatever other angle they may be viewed, the land and resources of the country are to-day looked upon by the Government as an opportunity for the Nation's workers. This policy was rendered strikingly articulate by the present Secretary of Labor in 1915, when he said, in his annual report for that year, that "the labor-distribution work of this department should extend to some such development of the natural resources of this county as will tend to make opportunities for workers greater than demands for work."

In view, then, of present public policies in land development, the problem that now faces the country of relocating the soldier and worker requires a substitute for the old method of soldier's scrip. And it is the peculiar province of the Department of Labor to make tangible suggestions as to this substitute. Accordingly this department will soon publish a preliminary report on this subject based on the investigation referred to in the footnote at the beginning of this article.

A HUNDRED MILLION ACRES OF IDLE AGRICULTURAL LANDS.

This investigation shows that the idle lands in the United States—cut-over lands, swamp lands, and arid lands—capable of reclamation through stump clearing, drainage, and irrigation, cover approximately 100,000,000 acres. The cut-over or logged-off lands are located for the most part in the big valleys of the forested sections of the Pacific Northwest and the Rocky Mountain region, in the northern Lake States (Minnesota, Wisconsin, and upper Michigan), and in the southern coastal region from Virginia to Texas. The undeveloped swamp lands lie chiefly in Florida, in the Mississippi delta, along the Atlantic and Gulf coasts, and in northern Minnesota. The remaining arid but irrigable lands lie mostly in the valleys of the Colorado Basin and elsewhere through the western States.

Large areas of the arid lands are still in the public domain; large portions of the swamp lands in Florida and in Minnesota are still in State ownership; but by far the greater portion of the logged-off land is under private ownership: The present methods of developing these lands are inefficient with respect alike to the settler, the bonafide investor, and the Nation at large. Especially is this so as regards the logged-off lands.

In spite of the good progress which has been made, from a mechanical standpoint, in devising means for pulling and piling stumps, the financial management, taken as a whole, of stump-land development is such as to deprive the settler with small means of taking advantage of any efficient methods of land clearing. The average settler by means of very severe work makes an existence, but little more. Many of them give up the combined fight against nature and finance and return to the shops and the mines, where their wage, however small, is at least a known quantity. The handling of lands is on a semigambling basis. There may be a huge profit derived by the landowner or selling agent, or there may be a loss. Often the agents and subagents obtain the lion's share of whatever money is to be made. At the present rate of clearing it will take more than a century to reclaim the country's logged-off lands.

TIMBER CULTURE VERSUS "TIMBER MINING."

There are in the United States about 450,000,000 acres which are more suitable for growing wood and timber than for any other purposes. Of this area 150,000,000 acres occur in the mountain regions of the far west; the remaining acreage occurs in the mountainous and other portions of the eastern States. Most of the eastern forests have been cut over and more or less depleted, while large parts of the western forests yet remain in virgin condition. Almost all of the eastern forests are in private ownership, whereas two-thirds of the

western forest area is owned by the Government in national forests. The seat of the lumber industry has been moving across the continent during the last 75 years. In 1850 and up to 1870 the largest proportion of the Nation's cut of timber came from the northeastern States; by 1890 the main share was coming from the Lake States; to-day it is coming from the Gulf States; and in the near future the final seat of the industry as now conducted will be in the Pacific Northwest.

The lumbering process which is thus passing in a series of waves over the country has had but one chief object—to shovel out the timber. Timber culture on any appreciable scale has not been practiced. The industry is one of "timber mining." One valley after another has been cut off and left empty—one region after another has been largely depleted of its forest stock. Only a small portion of the young stock which should be growing, is actually coming up. The effect of this condition on the future supply of wood is obvious, and has been many times pointed out. Its effect upon social and labor conditions is equally demoralizing. The "timber-mining" industry is essentially migratory, hence employment therein is essentially unstable. The lumber jack must live in a camp, and the man with a family is excluded as a worker. "Timber mining" being itself a tramp industry, it is a breeder of tramps; it is an industry of homeless men.

According to estimates made by the California Commission of Immigration and Housing there were in 1915 living in the labor camps of that State 75,000 persons exclusive of farm laborers. On this basis the Bureau of Labor Statistics estimates that there are at least 100,000 workers in the various kinds of labor camps—logging, mining, and other camps—in the three Pacific States alone.¹

Under present methods of handling, the undeveloped resources of this country—agricultural, forest, or other resources—offer to the returning soldier or worker no opportunity of real value to him. Under proper methods of management, however, these resources offer vast opportunities. Leaving out the possibilities under proper management of permanent employment on forest lands, leaving out the opportunities on semiwild grazing lands, and leaving out the whole of Alaska, the population which can be cared for on the hundred million acres of logged-off, swamp, and arid lands is greater than that of New England.

What can be done to develop these potential opportunities into actualities? A few suggestions, in line with present day Government policies, are made in the following paragraphs as to the course of this development.

¹ Labor laws and their administration in the Pacific States, by Hugh S. Hanna. Bul. 211, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, p. 15.

A POSSIBLE POLICY FOR AGRICULTURAL LANDS.

In the first place no sweeping rule can be laid down for arriving at proper methods of managing our natural resources except to say that the utmost friendly cooperation is required between the Federal Government, the States, the landowners, and the labor interests involved. The problem of land management is too complex, both from physical and legal standpoints, to be subject to universal rules.

The most promising field perhaps for the right kind of colonization of wild lands exists in the mountainous regions of the Northwestern States. The natural unit of development here, from a physical standpoint, is the mountain basin. Usually the level meadow land in the bottom valleys is chiefly valuable for farming, while the slopes, more or less forested, are chiefly valuable for growing timber. A certain amount of grazing land occurs among the timbered areas. Most of the area on the mountain slopes is now Government land in national forests, while nearly all of the bottom land has been cut up into private holdings. Part of this bottom land, in the localities of the national forests, has been developed for farming, but large areas yet remain under timber or in stumps.

Even on the bottom lands all of the area is by no means most suitable for farming. The soil itself may not be fertile or the cost of stump disposal may be prohibitive. No land should be used for farming of which the average yearly return will not be at least sufficient to pay, in addition to reclamation costs, a normal wage for normal labor. But land not adapted to profitable farming is usually suitable for growing timber. It is estimated that only 4 per cent of national forest land will ever be suitable for farming.

With areas found by the above test to be potential agricultural land, the Federal Government might offer to the respective States and landowners involved, its services for reclamation. Improvement districts could be established covering definite portions of certain valleys. Within each district the Government could, by contract or otherwise, conduct large-scale stump-pulling operations, the cost of which could be charged against the land cleared. Through the use of Government credit the interest could be kept very low and the clearing charges extended, on the amortization plan, over many years. The Government could also, through its Employment Service, provide for locating settlers upon the land reclaimed.

But the Government should not offer to aid in these ways until the State and the landowners involved make provision in specific ways that land speculation shall be eliminated from the district to be improved, and that the settlers therein shall be charged in such manner for the use of land as to insure them normal wages and security in their homes.

In this way the Government would reclaim and colonize the land for the owners, provided only that the settler when he arrives, and at all times, gets in specific ways a square deal. The settler, whether returned soldier or other worker, needs something beside mere acreage in order to make a decent living. The old method of turning over to the homesteader 160 acres in the wilderness, and then leaving him, as if he were Robinson Crusoe, to work out his fate single handed, belongs, for the most part, to the past. It is a policy to be put upon the scrap heap along with the policy of soldier's scrip, of which it is a part.

The prospective farm could be cleared of stumps or other impediment; it could be equipped with house and barn; it could be made accessible to market by good roads. The settler himself should have every chance to cooperate with his neighbors in selling his produce and in buying his supplies. The farms could be made ready for immediate use, and the cooperative equipment prepared in advance. Men can not live by land alone except by returning to a form of savagery. If the agricultural worker deserves an even chance with the manufacturing worker, then the farm as well as the factory must be fully equipped before, not after, operations begin.

The policy here outlined applies to more than the logged-off lands of the western mountain valleys. Townships and tracts of land can be organized into improvement districts in other parts of the country. The cut-over lands in the northern Lake States, in the southern Atlantic and in the Gulf States, can be reclaimed from stumps and left-over timber under the same policy. The swamp lands in these same regions can likewise be reclaimed, as well as the remaining arid lands of the West. In all these regions there are vast values to be created. The Government can well follow up its present reclamation policies by taking the initiative in creating these values. In so doing, however, clean-cut measures must be taken to see that values thus made go where they belong: to the settler and worker in the equivalent of fair wages, to the legitimate investor in a fair return, to the local community in sufficient taxes, but not to the speculator in unearned profits.

A POSSIBLE POLICY FOR FOREST LANDS.

But undeveloped land in the United States offers to the returning soldier and the worker an opportunity in other ways than for agricultural use. Under proper management it offers an opportunity for permanent employment in the forest industry. From a physical standpoint there is no reason whatsoever why the forested valleys and slopes of the western mountains, where the principal future supply of timber now remains, can not be handled so as

to insure within each locality a continuous yield of timber, and continuous employment in the sawmill and woods. Many localities within the national forests offer such opportunities.

A typical drainage basin in the western national forests may be assumed to contain 100,000 acres of productive forest land. Suppose a series of operations are planned whereby the mature timber on this tract is to be cut off in 50 years. If the right methods of cutting are used, by the end of this 50-year period the younger trees will have grown so that the tract will be ready to be cut over again. In this way the tract can be kept continuously productive for all time. Suppose the permanent annual yield from this tract is 20,000,000 board feet. This yield would provide continuous employment for more than 150 men, who with their families would make a population of about 800. About half the men would be employed in the sawmill and half in the chopping operations. The sawmill located perhaps at the entrance of the valley would support a permanent community of about 400 people. The logging operations in the woods would support another permanent community of 400. This community would have to be relocated from time to time as different portions of the tract were being operated. But since the employment would be continuous the forest workers could at all times live in their homes with their families and maintain a community life.

Measures should be taken to see that the populations supported by the sawmill and the forest operations would develop into real communities and not mere shack towns. Aside from the maintenance of proper housing and living conditions, there are two or three fundamental community standards. These include provision for voting and self-government, for schools, churches, and educational facilities, and for cooperation among the workers to secure their economic and social welfare.

Permanent forest communities based upon continuous forest employment would make of the forest worker a family man instead of a hobo. Those determined to be hoboes would be eliminated, but those who wanted settled employment could have it. With such a system in vogue many of the labor difficulties in the lumber industry would be ended. And such difficulties can not be settled by model camps, for a camp, however model, is no substitute for home.

The system of forestry and continuous forest employment outlined above could readily be installed on certain of the national forests to provide for present and permanent needs of the Government for timber. Such operations could be carried on either by the Government directly or through the method of timber sales. The Government has been considering the advisability of taking part in timber operations in the Pacific Northwest, private corporations hav-

ing been unable to get Sitka spruce for Army airplane stock in the quantities required. In many cases, private holdings of timber land are included within national forest boundaries. These holdings might be purchased by the Government, though perhaps a more practicable method would be to adopt some cooperative arrangement with the owners whereby they would receive each year a part of the net returns from the whole operation, such part being in proportion to the amount of the timber owned by them as compared with the total amount of timber on the tract.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR WORKERS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF COAL LANDS.

The natural resources of the United States offer still further opportunities for the returning soldier and the worker. There are many million acres of grazing lands throughout the western States which can be utilized for their benefit. There are also extensive areas of coal lands.

A big undeveloped coal field lies in the San Juan Valley, in northern New Mexico and southern Colorado. A proposition has already been before Congress to build a Government railroad to tap this region. But the most extensive coal fields yet undeveloped, within the jurisdiction of the United States, are in Alaska. The Matanuska coal lands in that Territory are to be opened under a leasing system, though a large portion of them is to be retained for exclusive Government utilization. In its handling of the operations in these coal fields the Government has a chance to set a standard for proper labor conditions in the mining industry.

The Government railroad in Alaska, in addition to tapping the Matanuska coal fields, will open up vast areas now inaccessible. It is estimated that Alaska contains, in its valleys which lie between the ice-covered mountains, about 65 million acres of potential agricultural land now covered by a meager growth of timber. The projected lines of Government railways are going to penetrate, in Alaska, the last American frontier. In view of the combination of mineral, forest, and agricultural resources to be opened in that vast country, nearly all of which is still public land, Alaska should present one of the most promising areas now left on the globe for those seeking a new start in life. Another Scandinavia here awaits development. The Government railroad is the first big step in this development. If this new country is to be an opportunity for the soldier and the worker, and not for the speculator, a colonization policy, based upon the principles discussed, must be the next step in its development.

The suggestions herein made, so far as they relate to the utilization of farming and forest lands, have been worked out in some detail in

the forthcoming report above referred to. But a substitute for the scrip method of relocating the soldier and worker, on the lines here suggested, will, of course, require legislation by Congress. A national colonization bill has already been introduced in the House by Representative Robert Crosser, of Ohio, and its principles have received the approval of the Secretary of Labor in his recent annual report. Under the provisions of this measure, with slight revision, the suggestions for policy above outlined could be applied.

The Department of Labor in pursuing the investigation here started desires to do its full part in developing a policy which will lead, rather than follow, the other countries of the world in their own advanced policies of utilizing land and resources for the benefit of the returning soldier and the worker. In this big task the fullest possible cooperation is solicited.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS AFFECTING THE REPLACEMENT OF MEN BY WOMEN WORKERS.¹

BY JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK, PUBLICATION SECRETARY, NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE.

Among the many new and urgent problems of industry in war-time, none challenges our best thought more sharply than the replacement of men by women workers. This movement, which has gone far abroad, is still in its infancy in this country; yet it is not too soon, it is indeed high time, to gauge the tendencies and consequences of so radical a change. The replacement of men by women, proceeding in many industries and occupations in every State of the Union, must of necessity react for good or for ill not only upon the girls and women so employed, but upon far wider circles, upon their families, their children, and upon the whole standard of living of their communities.

In this country it is too soon as yet to hazard an estimate of the numbers of women who are entering upon new occupations and taking men's places. The number of the women so employed is not yet numerically great; their employment is in many cases still experimental, but we are undoubtedly on the threshold of great innovations. Girls and women as messengers and elevator operators, as section hands and towermen on railroads, running drills and presses, working in powdermills and sawmills, cleaning the outside of railroad coaches; and wiping engines in the machine shop, in the munitions plant, in the airplane factory—these are some of the new figures in industry.

¹ Read before the section on industrial hygiene of the American Public Health Association, Washington, D. C., Oct. 18, 1917.

BENEFITS OF THE CHANGE.

Among the benefits from the new widening of women's employment one of the most important is the breakdown of prejudices. Women have in the past been hampered in advancing industrially by the prejudices of both employers and their fellow workmen, organized and unorganized. Women's sex and inexperience have been made the excuse not only for all manner of exploitation, but for the refusal of employers to advance them to positions of responsibility and trust. One of the triumphs of women's war-time employment in England has been their response to opportunity—the intelligence and the speed with which they have reacted to instruction in intricate new work, such as the manufacture of aero engines and guns, as well as in the simpler operations of making shells, fuses, hand grenades, etc. This is the universal testimony—to the unbounded surprise of all, women have proved their ability to enter upon and succeed in work hitherto closed to them on the sole ground of their sex.

And this success has been a triumph not only for women workers but for the new methods of instruction in industry. Instead of the old rule of thumb and mere copying of fellow workmen by apprentices and new workers, there has been intelligent direction of the working women newly introduced into the workshops of England. Mr. Granville Baillie, of the British Ministry of Munitions, at a conference on women in industry in London last May, told how the new training had enabled working women to surprise the world by their achievements in industry by the speed, the accuracy, and the responsibility with which they have mastered their new trades. The training has been most successful when carried on in the plant where the women are to work. Under the British Ministry of Munitions, training schools were established with a view to giving untrained women some general technical instruction for the simpler processes in the engineering and chemical trades. This has been best carried out in the individual shop rather than in technical schools "which," says the Health of Muniton Workers Committee, "however excellent, can no more replace factory instruction than can drilling in the park, training in the field.

Throughout the world women are entering these new fields. Between July, 1914, and January, 1917, the number of women gainfully employed in Great Britain had increased by almost one-third. According to the British Labor Gazette of August, 1917, 256,000 women are directly replacing men.¹ In Germany the number of women employed in metal trades alone in July, 1916, is reported to have been over 3,000,000. In France the Minister of Munitions

¹ MONTHLY REVIEW of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, October, 1917, p. 41.

stated just a year ago that 300,000 women had gone into munition works; from Italy it is officially reported that the number of women employed in munition works in Lombardy has risen from over 4 to about 10 per cent of the total number of employees.¹

Undoubtedly in this country many promising fields are opening for women from which they have been debarred and for which they are well fitted. Such are the new positions in many branches of the railroad service; for instance, as freight checkers, as ticket agents and information clerks, in weeding and clearing the tracks; in banks and financial houses; in cost and production departments; as floor-walkers in stores; as clerks in shoe stores, etc. In machine shops women are found to excel men in inspecting and testing and in other operations requiring dexterity. In many instances, too, women are now receiving far higher wages than ever before for work no harder than women's traditional exhausting labor of scrubbing floors during long hours in dampness and wet. Yet, granting all that promises from such gains, no one can view without alarm the indiscriminate employment of women which is in process or impending in such heavy work as glassmaking, in some of the processes of steel mills exposed to extreme heat, as ballast tampers or freight handlers on railroads, as pilers of lumber and loaders of scrap iron, or in the bleachery pits of cotton mills, to mention some of the occupations most needing scrutiny and care.

EVILS NEEDING SCRUTINY.

If the achievements of women workers challenge the world's admiration, we can not neglect the obverse side of the picture. We have not yet learned the cost, the wastage of woman power.² There is no doubt that both abroad and in this country unmistakable dangers are inherent in many of the new occupations. Some, indeed, are totally unfit for women; some may be rendered fit by changes in method of management; in all of them the indispensable prerequisite is a new scrutiny of the workers and the effect of the work, a kind of intelligent supervision known hitherto in only a very small number of the most enlightened establishments but needed now wherever women are employed in new lines of activity if we are to preserve our national energies.

LIFTING EXCESSIVE WEIGHTS.

Of the specific dangers to be guarded against one of the most obvious is the lifting of excessive weights. This has long been recog-

¹ Child Labor in Warring Countries: A brief review of foreign reports. The Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Industrial Series No. 4, pp. 12, 13, 14.

² See Women's Industrial News. London. July, 1917.

nized as a source of injury for women. In no occupation hitherto engaged in have the chances of physical harm from lifting excessive weights been greater than, for instance, in the proposed employment of women in railroad freight yards. One road which has contemplated such a step stated that the weight of goods to be lifted would run up to 100 pounds. No argument is needed to show that such work, continued through the day, is unfit for women and should be totally prohibited. It is true that in laundries, another traditional employment of women, women are expected to lift bundles often weighing more than 100 pounds. This is undoubtedly a source of physical injury; in freight yards such burdens are not an occasional part of the work but constitute its main part. In one railroad yard girls themselves weighing not more than 115 pounds were found wheeling metal castings in wheelbarrows up and down inclined planks and loading them into the cars.

A recent report from Germany shows that among women employed in the metal trades heavy lifting is a main cause of physical injury. The inquiry covered over 2,500 establishments employing more than 266,000 women and girls, an increase of 319 per cent over the number employed before the war. Projectiles weighing from 22 pounds to 82 pounds have to be raised breast high from the floor and clamped down, then unclamped and placed again on the floor. According to this report, given in *Soziale Praxis* of April 19, 1916, there is great complaint of abdominal trouble among the women who raise these weights. In one establishment which required very hard muscular work it is reported that nearly a third of the 42 women employed "have been disabled by illness."¹

Clearly, in any occupation which requires heavy lifting—as, for instance, in core rooms—a maximum weight should be set. In New York State a maximum of 25 pounds has been fixed by law regulating women's work in foundries. This maximum was set in the "code" adopted by the American Foundrymen's Association at their annual convention last summer. A maximum of 25 pounds in lifting weights was adopted also in the valuable standards formulated by the Executives' Club of Detroit last spring, representing 40 of the largest industrial plants in that city.²

The establishment of a maximum weight in lifting is obviously a rough measure of protection. In all occupations safety lies only in the physical examination of all prospective workers, or better in the medical supervision of workers, as Dr. Schereschewsky has well phrased it in a recent address.³ For some women doubtless even 25

¹ MONTHLY REVIEW of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, September, 1917, p. 135.

² Industrial Management, August, 1917.

³ Public Health Reports. Reprint No. 234, Nov. 20, 1914.

pounds is excessive when lifting constitutes a large part of the day's work. The relation of the lifted weight to the chest and abdomen circumference, the total physical condition of the worker, should be determined and can be settled only by a medical examination before employment.

INDUSTRIAL POISONING.

Another obvious danger calling for close observation in some of the new occupations is that of industrial poisoning. Thanks to Bulletin No. 219 of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics, by Dr. Alice Hamilton, we have knowledge of the extent and nature of industrial poisoning in the manufacture of high explosives, so far as it could be ascertained by investigation of the first order. In this country women have not yet been employed in large numbers in the manufacture of TNT, in carrying on those nitration processes whose victims show the same symptoms, suffer, and die exactly as do the victims of gases in trench warfare. Yet it is known to the writer that in one of the worst conducted TNT factories, where the sanitary precautions are nil and the TNT is allowed to cover the ground, the workroom, and the workers themselves, women are among the operatives. As the manufacture of explosives grows by leaps and bounds in this country and new gases are developed and manufactured, as other poisons are increasingly used, such as the various dopes for airplane wings, women will increasingly be employed in these dangerous processes. As a sex they are known to experience more serious injury than men from such an industrial poisoning as lead. This may be true of other industrial poisons not yet studied. Safety here lies only in the enforcement of sanitary precautions, in periodic medical supervision, in the shortening of hours of labor, and in the prohibition of nightwork for women.

OVERFATIGUE AND NIGHTWORK.

In all of the new occupations as in the old, too much emphasis can not be laid upon the factor of fatigue in predisposing to illness and exhaustion. It did not need the well-recorded war-time experience of England to teach us that output together with health and vigor fails when hours of work are excessive, when Sunday work is permitted, and rest at night broken. Yet within the last year even the enlightened State of Massachusetts, the pioneer in labor legislation and for 20 years the leader in prohibiting nightwork for women employed in factories, has under the plea of war emergencies re-established nightwork and overtime by special permit to specified establishments.

It is well known that the greatest efforts have been needed to prevent the breakdown of labor laws in many States and the reestablishment of excessive hours of labor for women.

The labor standards for European countries, especially for women and children, were in many respects lower than our own before the war. In the first rush of industry following the outbreak of the war these standards abroad were still further lowered. Yet it soon proved that the relaxing of standards failed to achieve its purpose; in England and France and more recently in Italy definite steps were taken by the Governments (according to a valuable forthcoming report of the Children's Bureau) to restore the provisions of the labor law in order to maintain output and conserve the workers. In Italy, indeed, the present standards are in some respects higher than before the war.¹

Besides the recent reestablishment of nightwork in factories, another new form of work at night for women in this country is in the elevator service. Here is an occupation newly open to women throughout the land. They are operating elevators in department stores, hotels, and apartment houses, in large and small cities, from California and Utah to Texas and Maine. The work itself does not appear ill-adapted or injurious. The hours of duty, however, are often excessive and can not fail to be harmful. In New York City, for instance, girls are working in apartment houses 15 hours at a stretch; day and night work alternates each week, and when the shifts change the girls are on duty without relief from 6 p. m. to 12 o'clock noon, a continuous stretch of 18 hours. The girls are required to attend to the switchboard telephone as well as to run the elevator. Sunday work is required. One of the most serious abuses of this employment is the exposure of young girls to insult or danger on the all-night shift. In some instances no provision whatever is made for getting rest at night. In other cases an army cot is provided in a hall alcove. In another instance the young elevator attendant sought safety by running the elevator between the first and second landing to obtain sleep between summons.

Nightwork for women has been newly introduced also in connection with automobile cleaning. Women are being employed in New York City garages more than 12 hours each night—from 7 p. m. to 7.30 a. m. They clean from 30 to 35 cars during the night.

Another new occupation which exposes girls to moral dangers is the messenger service. In many cities girls are being increasingly employed to replace boys at this work, which should be closely watched. For the dangers involved in sending young boys to ques-

¹ Child Labor in Warring Countries. Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Industrial Series No. 4, p. 61.

tionable houses or resorts has been so great that within the past few years legislation has been enacted in most of the States, raising the age limit of boys in the messenger service and prohibiting their employment after stated hours in the evening. It would indeed be a mockery if young girls were now employed at work which has been found unsafe for boys up to 21 years. To safeguard these young workers, legislation is needed so as to include the new occupations in the existing laws limiting hours of labor, etc. Other States might well follow the enlightened action of the State of Washington, where the employment of female minors in the messenger service has recently been prohibited by ruling of the Industrial Welfare Commission. In some States, too, efforts are on foot to regulate by law the new employment of girls as bootblacks.

THE NEED FOR EQUAL WAGES.

In regard to the general replacement of men by women workers, no single consideration is more important than the matter of wages. This is moreover, not a social or economic question alone. It is primarily a question of health and must be of the first importance to all those concerned with public health issue. It was Gen. Gorgas himself who put in a few trenchant words the close connection between wages and health. He ascribes to the results of increased wages of the common laborers the world-famous improvement in health at Panama, "I am satisfied," he said to a conference of health officers, "that to this improvement in social conditions caused by our high wages we principally owe our extraordinary improvement in general health conditions."¹

Another medical opinion on the relation between wages and health has recently been well put in a study entitled, *Occupation and Mortality*:² "We believe," say Drs. Wynne and Guilfooy, "that wages have a most important bearing upon the morbidity and mortality of any occupation, because, where real wages are high, the standard of living is correspondingly high, housing is better, food is more plentiful and more nourishing, and, in short, conditions are more favorable to physical and mental well-being, which results in greater resistance to disease, more recuperative power, and a healthier enjoyment of life, all of which stimulates the worker to preserve his health and makes him more alert to guard against accidents; whereas when wages are low, home conditions are of necessity unfavorable, and if, in addition, shop conditions are also bad, as they frequently are, the hazards of any occupation are increased manifold."

¹ New York State Department of Health Monthly Bulletin, December, 1915, pp. 369-70.

² *Occupation and Mortality*: Their relation as indicated by the mortality returns in the city of New York for 1914. Reprint No. 400, Public Health Reports, June 8, 1917.

The great danger, from the standpoint of health, is that the employment of women should be resorted to merely in order to obtain cheap labor. As a matter of public health we must see to it that women are paid equal wages for equal work. Otherwise their employment can be and is daily being made the excuse for undercutting the standard wage of men and so reducing the standards of living in the community. The reports of the Children's Bureau and the Public Health Service have shown how infant mortality rises in direct proportion to fall in wage.

It is true that in many of the new occupations women are unskilled and need training. Yet even while they are being trained they should, as a matter of health, be paid an adequate wage. The standards adopted by the Executives' Club of Detroit, to which reference has been made, recommend that, while learning, women shall be paid the flat day rate paid to men for the same work or operation.

There are many other pressing health problems in women's new employment needing wise consideration, which can not even be enumerated here. Instances are beginning to multiply of the lack of decencies and sanitary provisions for women employed in railroad yards and roundhouses. The housing of women who must leave home is a pressing problem. The matter of clothing is highly important. Women obviously can not do men's work in ill-adapted clothes, such as skirts which are usually too full or too tight for safety, and which are dust gathering in the dangerous trades, or in high-heeled shoes, more quickly inducing fatigue. Separate entrances should be provided for men and women especially in occupations involving heat and grime. The nutrition of the workers, and the provision of restaurants or lunch counters are matters of immense importance.

SUMMARY: THREE ESSENTIAL SAFEGUARDS.

In summing up this brief survey of a large topic, emphasis should be laid upon three essential safeguards for girls and women entering upon men's occupations: Equal wages, additional legislation, and adequate medical supervision. I am aware that in making a plea for this last requisite I am treading upon very difficult ground. The pressure for physicians for military and civilian needs is so great that a plea for new industrial supervision may appear ill-timed. Yet if any one truth has emerged from three years of warfare, it is the indispensable nature of our industrial contribution. To preserve that is a part of the nation's self-preservation.

The methods to be used in obtaining adequate medical supervision are of primary importance, and in this connection the National Con-

sumers' League has engaged in a campaign for the establishment of industrial clinics.

Local conditions must determine whether these clinics should be under private, State, or Federal auspices. But the early diagnosis and treatment of workers suffering from industrial diseases by physicians who know industrial processes and conditions are the only means of more fully learning and controlling these diseases, hitherto little studied. The growing employment of women should be an added incentive to establishing industrial clinics, especially wherever large numbers of workers are engaged in dangerous processes. Where private means or enterprises are lacking, and where work on Government contracts is being done, it would seem peculiarly fitting for the Public Health Service to establish such clinics, and so lead the way in measures of enlightened prevention as well as care.

EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND GIRLS IN GREAT BRITAIN.¹

The position as regards the employment of females in July, 1917, is summed up in the following table, which shows (a) the expansion in the employment of women and girls since July, 1914, and (b) the extent to which women and girls are directly replacing men, according to the returns made by the employers:

SUMMARY OF THE POSITION AS REGARDS THE EMPLOYMENT OF FEMALES.

Occupation.	Estimated number of females employed July, 1914.	Increase since July, 1914.	Direct replacement of men by women.
Industries.....	2,184,000	518,000	464,000
Government establishments.....	2,000	202,000	191,000
Gas, water, and electricity (under local authorities).....	600	4,000	4,000
Agriculture in Great Britain (permanent labor).....	80,000	23,000	43,000
Transport (excluding tramways under local authorities).....	17,000	72,000	74,000
Tramways (under local authorities).....	1,200	16,000	16,000
Finance and banking.....	9,500	54,000	53,000
Commerce.....	496,000	324,000	328,000
Professions.....	67,500	20,000	21,000
Hotels, public houses, cinemas, theaters, etc.....	176,500	22,000	38,000
Civil service, post office.....	60,500	45,000	51,000
Civil service (other than post office).....	4,500	53,000	48,000
Services under local authorities (other than tramways).....	196,200	29,000	23,000
Total.....	3,295,000	1,382,000	1,354,000
Agriculture in Great Britain (casual labor).....	50,000	39,000	38,000
Grand total.....	3,345,000	1,421,000	1,392,000

The growth since the war in the numbers of women employed in the metal and chemical trades, which cover most of the munition trades, is shown by the following table:

COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

	Numbers employed in metal and chemical trades.	Numbers employed in other industries.	All industries.
July, 1914.....	210,000	1,974,000	2,184,000
December, 1914.....	214,000	1,893,000	2,107,000
July, 1915.....	253,000	2,040,000	2,293,000
December, 1915.....	316,000	2,070,000	2,386,000
July, 1916.....	440,000	2,082,000	2,522,000
January, 1917.....	525,000	2,069,000	2,595,000
July, 1917.....	616,000	2,086,000	2,702,000

The numbers employed in the munition group have been above the prewar level at every date shown in the table, even as early as

¹ The Labour Gazette, London, November, 1917, p. 395.

December, 1914, when the other branches of industry were still suffering from unemployment. This growth in the numbers employed has been continued ever since, but at varying rates. Between December, 1914, and December, 1915, the numbers increased by about 100,000, but this increase for one year was easily surpassed in the following six months alone. Since July, 1916, the increase in the metal and chemical trades has not been maintained at quite the same rate, but, nevertheless, the numbers now employed are nearly 180,000 above those for that date.

It was during the same months (December, 1915, to July, 1916), that the employment of women in Government establishments received its greatest impetus. Thus in the establishments engaged on engineering work the numbers of women rose in that half-year from 2,700 to 32,500.

The position in the nonmunition industries is very different. They recovered from the first shock of war in the early part of 1915 and passed through a period of great activity when there was comparatively little competition for labor from the munition trades; as a result, between December, 1914, and July, 1915, there was an increase of nearly 150,000 in the numbers employed, though during this time the munition trades only increased by 39,000. This is the only period when the nonmunition trades drew in more women than the chemical and metal trades. During the latter half of 1915 and again during the first half of 1916 there was a further, though a quite slight, increase of women in the nonmunition trades, but between July, 1916, and January, 1917, the numbers fell very considerably, and this decrease has only just been made good, the figures for July, 1916, and July, 1917, being approximately equal.

The relation between the growth in the numbers employed and the numbers replacing men is very different in the munition and nonmunition trades. In the metal and chemical trades, in which the volume of work has developed enormously, the increase in the number of women employed is much in excess of the numbers replacing men. The reverse is true for all other industries; that is to say, the number of women employed on what was previously regarded as women's work has declined, and the increase in numbers is due entirely to replacement.

The figures as to employment in the metal and chemical trades in the above table do not show the full extent of the movement of women to munitions work, since all Government-owned establishments are excluded, in which the number employed is now 204,000. The number of women engaged in making munitions can not be stated exactly. The majority of the women in the metal and chemical trades are making munitions, but there are a considerable number

still on private and nonmunition work. On the other hand, there are a certain number in trades other than the metal and chemical trades who are engaged in the manufacture of munitions, and this number can only be roughly estimated. Taking all the relevant factors into consideration, it is believed that about 670,000 are employed on munition work, whilst 632,000 women are engaged on other Government work, such as the manufacture of clothing and food for the troops.

INDUSTRIAL UNREST IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The full report of the British Commission of Inquiry into Industrial Unrest has recently been reproduced in Bulletin 237 of this bureau. The report is presented in eight sections, showing the results of inquiries in eight separate districts of Great Britain. The commission was appointed June 12, 1917, and the completed report was submitted July 17, 1917.

The reports for all the districts emphasize as the leading cause of industrial unrest the fact that the cost of living has increased disproportionately to the advance in wages and that food distribution is unequal. Another cause regarded as particularly serious is the restriction of personal freedom under the Munitions of War Acts, by which workmen have been tied up to particular factories and have been unable to obtain wages in proportion to their skill; in many cases the skilled man's wages were less than those of the unskilled. The requirement of leaving certificates was reported as one of the chief causes of dissatisfaction, but this restriction has been abolished by an order of the minister of munitions, effective October 15, 1917, under which any munitions worker may leave his present employment for other war work by giving a week's notice, or such longer notice as is provided for in his existing contract of service.

Dilution of labor and lack of confidence in the Government growing out of the surrender of trade-union customs and the fear that promises regarding the restoration of prewar conditions will not be kept are given special attention. It is stated that the irritation caused by the withdrawal of the trade-card scheme under the military service acts has subsided, but there remains much anxiety regarding the working of the schedule of protected occupations. All the reports refer to the lack of coordination between Government departments in dealing with labor, and considerable complaint on account of the delay in dealing with disputes and the difficulty of securing prompt awards is reported.

Besides the more general causes of industrial unrest certain causes, such as inadequate housing, liquor restrictions, and industrial fatigue,

are mentioned as acute in some districts. Mention is also made of lack of proper organization among the unions, inconsiderate treatment of women as regards wages, delay in granting pensions to soldiers, and inadequacy of compensation under the workmen's compensation act.

A number of recommendations are made by the commissioners. Of these the first is that there should be an immediate reduction in food prices, the increased cost of food to be borne to some extent by the Government, and that there should be a better system of distribution. The necessity of reducing hours, readjusting wages to a fairer basis for skilled as against unskilled workmen, the fuller use of trade-union machinery, and renewal by the Government of the declaration that trade-union rights and privileges which have been interfered with on account of the war shall be restored after the war are insisted upon. The commissioners strongly urge the adoption of the principle of the Whitley report for the establishment of industrial councils for each of the organized trades, such councils to be composed equally of employers and employees. This report, otherwise known as the interim report of the reconstruction committee on joint standing industrial councils, is reproduced in full in the bulletin under review. Regarding the settlement of disputes various suggestions are offered, to the effect that one central authority should be constituted, that local arbitration tribunals should be formed, that local commissioners with technical knowledge to settle disputes should be appointed, and that workshop committees should be established.

Other recommendations are that compensation under the workmen's compensation act should be increased, that announcement should be made of the Government's policy as regards housing, that pensions committees should have larger discretion in their treatment of men discharged from the army, that the recruiting system should have most careful handling, that the work of Government departments dealing with labor should be more thoroughly coordinated, and that when an agreement is drawn up between representatives of employers' federations and trade-unions it should be binding on all in the trade concerned.

While the report shows very clearly the prevalence and the nature of industrial unrest in Great Britain, it at the same time indicates that "there is a strong feeling of patriotism on the part of employers and employed throughout the country and they are determined to help the State in its present crisis."

PRECAUTIONS TO BE OBSERVED IN THE EMPLOYMENT OF FEMALE LABOR IN WAR INDUSTRIES IN FRANCE.¹

The minister of munitions, under date of July 1, 1917, issued the following instructions relative to the employment of female workers in establishments engaged in the manufacture of war materials:

Age limits.—Girls having completed their thirteenth year may be employed, except in unhealthful shops. Females under 18 years of age may not be employed in dangerous working places or where considerable physical effort is required. They may be employed in powder factories only after reaching their sixteenth year, after medical examination, only in daywork and where their health is not in jeopardy.

Hours of work.—The hours of daily labor shall not exceed 10, with one or more rest periods amounting to one hour at least. The hours may be increased under stress of conditions, but not so as to include persons under 18 years of age.

Any person over 18 years of age may be employed at nightwork. Persons under that age shall not be employed between 9 p. m. and 5 a. m. Between the ages of 18 and 21 years, workers shall be selected according to their physical ability and family necessities.

Weekly rest days.—One rest day per week is recommended whenever possible. Sunday is preferable. In shops where continuous work is a necessity, the day of rest shall be accorded by turns, and where the three-shift system is in operation, 24 consecutive hours of rest shall be permitted if possible.

Maternity.—In cases of approaching maternity a change of work must be arranged for unless the work being performed permits the prohibition of nightwork and extra hours. Of the systems of working hours in use, that of the eight-hour shift is most suitable, but daywork on half time is still better. Constant standing in one position is prohibited, and work must be given which permits a continuous or predominantly sitting position. Great physical effort must be avoided. Harmful positions of the members or trunk of the body are prohibited. Protection against concussions, shocks, jars, and vibration, especially of the abdomen, must be provided. One month's rest immediately before maternity, or earlier, if prescribed by a physician, and a period of four weeks after must be granted. None of the measures for protection of women employees approaching maternity shall cause reduction of earnings. Periodic physical examination by physicians or midwives under the supervision of a physician shall be assured.

Nursing rooms, etc.—Nursing rooms, day nurseries, and infants' guard rooms are required as recommended by the committee on

¹ Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. June-July, 1917, p. 63.

female labor. Every establishment engaged in the manufacture of materials for national defense is required to provide a nursing room supplied with cradles, reserved exclusively for breast-fed babies. Here the babies shall be kept during working hours, and the mother shall be permitted without loss of earnings to leave her work for one-half an hour in the morning and one-half an hour in the afternoon for the purpose of nursing her child. Such mothers shall work in a sitting position and at daywork only. For children fed from the bottle an infants' room with cribs, and for children from 1 to 4 years of age a children's room shall be provided. Daily examination of children as they reach these rooms to discover contagious diseases is required, and all "doubtful" cases must be isolated and placed under individual care.

Mothers' allowances.—Every mother, whether paid by the day or otherwise, nursing her infant at the breast shall receive a bonus of 10 francs (\$1.93) per month and also a premium of 25 per cent of her basic wage, but absences under these arrangements shall not exceed 1½ hours on any one day.

Supervision.—The establishment of a local advisory committee having a majority of its members female employees is recommended. This committee shall supervise the well-being of female workers, and designate one woman, preferably a mother, of unquestioned morality, cognizant of labor conditions, and of general hygienic requirements, and having the necessary tact and firmness of character to supervise women's work. She shall have special supervisory authority over matters relating to care of cribs, nursing room, infants' rooms, living, clothing, wash, lunch, and sleeping room, and in general all matters pertaining to the welfare of female laborers.

General and industrial hygiene.—When workers are housed in lodgings provided by the employer regular cleaning and moist dusting of floors, walls, and ceilings, frequent renewal of mattresses, disinfection of bedding, provision for suitable ventilation, and of sufficient heat during winter, are specifically required. Attention is also called to the necessity of an abundant supply of pure water, and the desirability of adequate lavatory and laundry facilities. It is also desirable to make special employees responsible for the cleanliness and hygienic condition of these cantonments.

Employers are urged not to confine their attention to the housing conditions of the workers lodged on their premises alone, but to consider also those who lodge elsewhere. They should take an active and helpful interest in all matters relating to the welfare of their employees, including lodgings, food, transportation, and any other matters upon which the employees' health and comfort depend.

Sweeping, etc.—Dry sweeping in workrooms is condemned. When toxic substances are handled frequent cleaning with abundant water is required. In establishments not under continuous operation such cleaning is recommended immediately after ceasing work. A thorough cleaning of floors, walls, and ceilings is required once each week, at least. Exhaust systems are recommended for the removal of dust.

Crowding.—In relation to overcrowding it is recognized that difficulties are encountered in reconciling intensive production and sufficient working space, but overcrowding must not be permitted. The law provides a minimum space which in practice should be increased. Continuous currents of air when the generation of dust is suspected, double windows preventing intake of exterior dust, and ventilating chimneys or other efficient methods of artificial ventilation must be provided.

Lunch rooms—Drinking water.—Laws are in force prohibiting lunching in workrooms, and derogations of this law will not be permitted unless upon substantial reasons and after a thorough investigation by the minister of munitions. If lunch must necessarily be eaten in the establishment an appropriate room separated from the workrooms is suggested. Lunches may be here deposited in individual lockers closed with a key or clasp. Either stoves or steam tables for heating lunches must be provided.

Frequent analysis or other adequate examination of the condition of the water supplied for drinking is required, and should impurities be found immediate measures must be taken to sterilize and purify it. Occasionally the supply of pure drinking water may be temporarily interrupted, or the milk usually supplied to workers in toxic substances may run short. In either case the difficulty may be met by supplying boiled water, preferably with a slight infusion of some aromatic substance—tea, for instance.

Clothing.—Precautions regarding noninflammable and durable clothing for men engaged in dangerous work must be applied as well to women so engaged, the form, quality, and character depending always on the work in which engaged. Flowing garments are prohibited. In some occupations close-fitting blouses fastened at the neck and wrists are suitable, but for women working about machinery overalls are recommended. Caps completely covering the hair should be worn. When leaving the workrooms, work clothing must be deposited in well-ventilated individual lockers. Separate lockers are required for street clothing. Regular cleaning and repair of work clothing is obligatory.

Dressing rooms—washstands—shower baths.—Dressing rooms and washstands with running water should be at once installed in estab-

lishments not already thus equipped. These should be simple but comfortable, and their installation need not involve either much delay or great expense. Especial stress is placed on the installation and the enforced regular use by all employees of shower baths in establishments using chlorates or other toxics.

Water-closets.—Separate closets for women are obligatory and regulations relating to construction, maintenance, and disinfecting formulas are given.

Flies and mosquitoes.—Places in or near cantonments susceptible of breeding flies or mosquitoes must be rendered innocuous by chemicals or fire. Protective measures against their entrance into working places or living rooms are required.

Temperature, etc.—Methods of heating are recommended. A normal temperature must be maintained. Gas, oil, and petroleum heaters may be used only under exceptional conditions. Establishments are required to adopt methods to control the generation of noxious gases and the dissemination of dust, etc.

Dangerous and unhealthy occupations.—Women and young persons are not permitted in places where noxious emanations or deleterious vapors are given off in the manufacture of certain chemicals. Under the observation of special rules relative to hygiene and safety, females over 18 years of age may be employed in the manufacture of certain classes of powder and modern explosives, and, under proper precaution, in the mechanical sifting and barreling of picric acid.

Occupational diseases—Morbidity.—Every director or manager operating under the stress of national demands for national defense is required to make quarterly reports relative to the morbidity of the employees in his establishment—one relating to female, one to colonial, and one to male employees. Every epidemic shall be made the subject of a special report. Every death in the working force due to accident or to industrial poisoning must be reported within 48 hours.

Prophylactic measures, occupational diseases.—The use of certain protective appliances, such as masks, moist nose and mouth sponges or cloths, in addition to those already mentioned, must be insisted upon. Cloths and sponges must be frequently washed in tepid alkaline or acidulated water. Tissot masks are required in all places where there is extreme danger. In certain classes of work, gloves and goggles must be worn.

Accident-prevention devices.—Extra precautions must be observed for places where explosives, detonating gas, or inflammable powder is manufactured or stored. Safety lamps alone may be used. Conductors of electricity should be thoroughly insulated and placed out of reach of the hand, and every device which may emit sparks must

be adequately covered. Special rules have been already issued relative to fire protection.

Frequency of burns.—Burns appear with great frequency in the lists of industrial accidents and are responsible for much loss of time. Methods of handling work should be subject to minute precautions with a view to avoiding such accidents, and whenever possible dangerous operations should be modified or safeguards introduced. The individual worker should be protected against such risks by non-inflammable clothing, gloves, mask, and goggles. In places of special risk, vats of water into which the workers may throw themselves in case of need are recommended.

Medical-aid service.—Consulting offices, adequate first-aid station, a cantonment hospital, and a pharmacy are desirable. The necessity of providing medical service to be utilized in cases of accident and sickness, and in assisting in selection of employees, in making professional visits to the establishment, in supervision of the health of the employees, and in detecting epidemics is urged.

SETTLEMENT OF LABOR DISPUTES IN PRIVATE ESTABLISHMENTS MANUFACTURING WAR MATERIALS IN FRANCE.¹

Under date of September 17, 1917, the minister of war issued a decree relative to the settlement of disputes between employers and employees. The provisions are:

Employers and employees in any establishment engaged in manufacturing arms, munitions, or war material, in which a collective dispute arises, are forbidden to break the contract of employment or to cease work until the question at issue shall have been submitted to conciliation and arbitration.

The minister of war shall designate in such districts as he may deem necessary a permanent conciliation and arbitration committee, consisting of representatives of employers and of employees in equal numbers. The committee shall be composed of at least four members, none of whom shall be subject to mobilization.

A declaration of the question in dispute shall be prepared either by the employer, or his agent, or by an employee duly accredited by at least 20 subscribing employees. This declaration is then forwarded to the official supervising the production of the particular class of goods affected, who shall notify the proper conciliation and arbitration committee. This committee shall meet in the office of the mayor with as little delay as possible. A full hearing shall be granted each party, and an effort made to reconcile the differences. Failing

¹ Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale, August-September, 1917.

in this the committee shall render a decision within 24 hours after the last hearing. This award shall be signed by all members and entered as of record in the committee's minutes of proceedings.

If the members of the arbitration committee fail to agree, the committee shall designate one or more umpires for the purpose of arriving at a decision. Should the members not agree on an umpire or umpires the minister of war shall make such appointment, or call the issue before him for decision.

The umpire or umpires so appointed shall immediately hear the evidence of the former committee and of the interested parties, and within 24 hours after the last hearing shall render a decision and enter it upon record in their minutes.

The arbitral decision rendered by the committee or umpire and approved by the minister, or that made by the minister shall become effective immediately, or upon his order, and be posted by the employer in his workrooms, or if he fails to do so, it shall be posted at his expense.

If the employer refuses to accept the terms of the award the establishment is requisitioned in accordance with present laws.

If the award grants supplemental pay, under whatever title designated, either as wages or otherwise, and the employer refuses to comply with this decision, the administrative personnel of the establishment is requisitioned under the provisions of existing laws, in order to secure the extra payment awarded. The funds necessary to carry the award into effect are advanced by the minister of war, and retained from any sum hereafter due the establishment.

If the laborers refuse to accept the terms of the award, they are placed under requisition in accordance with existing laws.

Whenever any competent official shall receive notice of a collective dispute he shall immediately notify the district military authorities, and in order to maintain discipline and continuity of production, that authority shall place the entire personnel, supervising, administrative, and working forces under requisition until such time as an arbitral decision shall be posted.

The award rendered for one or more establishments, or for one or more classes of laborers, may by order of the minister of war be made applicable to all or any portion of other establishments, or to other occupational classes in the district, provided similar conditions exist therein.

This decree does not apply to mobilized workers, but otherwise applies to all establishments engaged in aeronautics, or engineering, and geographic and central administrations of shops and groups of shops organized or operating in the production of material by contract.

It applies to all yards and shops engaged in production for the commissary or health bureaus only when the work upon which they are engaged is for the use of the minister of munitions or for other bureaus themselves subject to this decree.

This decree is operative only to the date of termination of hostilities.

SATURDAY HALF HOLIDAY FOR WOMEN IN CLOTHING TRADES IN FRANCE.¹

The law, dated 11th June last, which laid down the principle of freedom from work on Saturday afternoons for the duration of the war for women employed in the clothing trades in France (See *The Labor Gazette* for July, 1917, p. 238), provides that the conditions to be laid down for each trade and district shall be prescribed by administrative regulations. The first set of regulations under the act is dated 18th September, and was published in the *Journal Officiel* of 23d September last. It relates to the following occupations carried on in the Seine Department: Dressmaking, tailoring, men and women's underclothing manufacture, corset making, making up furs, fabric glove making, hosiery, and certain accessory trades, also wig and false-hair making. The hours worked on Saturday mornings in these trades must not exceed four, except in the case of wig and false-hair making, where the limit is five, and in all cases work must cease not later than 1 p. m. In certain of the above-named occupations where seasonal or exceptional pressure of work occurs, the Saturday half holiday may be suspended upon a specified number of occasions in the year, but any work done on Saturday afternoon under such circumstances must be paid for at the overtime rates usual in the occupation.

USE OF ALCOHOLIC LIQUORS AS RELATED TO INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS IN FRANCE.

The interministerial committee on manual labor in France recently presented its report on an investigation of the effects of the use of alcoholic liquors as beverages.² The report says that in consideration of present conditions, which require the exercise to the fullest capacity of every industrial factor, and especially in so far as they relate to manual labor, the question of alcoholism becomes one of almost vital importance.

¹ *The Labour Gazette*, London, November, 1917, p. 402.

² *Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale*. June-July, 1917, p. 275.

It was early recognized that alcoholism was a source of national weakness and shortened industrial production. Reliable reports indicate that a large percentage of absence from work is due to the use of intoxicating liquor; that in the coal mines, at the time the report was submitted, absences amounted to 13 or 14 per cent of possible days of labor, and that this was largely due to intemperance. It is estimated that coal production is decreased for this reason alone by 5 per cent. It is said "The day that liquor traffic is regulated in mining centers then will the question of absence from work be solved." There is not an industry which has not been compelled to report the effects of liquor drinking on production. "Women seem to be particularly affected. Brought into new surroundings, and influenced by unaccustomed conditions, they more readily fall into temptations."

While the law of March 16, 1915, prohibits the sale, either wholesale or retail, of absinthe and similar liquors, this provision is not universally enforced, and in some localities it is openly violated.

The law of March 8, 1917, forbids any person to carry into or to distribute, or any employer, manager, or person in authority as overseer, to permit to be carried into or distributed in any establishment subject to articles 65, Book II of the Labor Code, any spirituous liquors to be drunk on the premises, except wine, beer, cider, pear cider, and hydromel to which alcohol has not been added. Private distillation in excess of 10 liters (10.56 quarts) per year, for family use, of products grown by the distiller, is prohibited. This law is effective for one year after cessation of hostilities.

Recognizing the menace to national industry, the State has attempted, through orders issued by local and military authority, to interdict the sale of alcohol in various districts. The restrictions so ordered have in some cases met with such strong protest that important modifications permitting the sale in determined hours only have been made. Certain commanding generals have issued orders forbidding the sale to mobilized laborers, women, and colonial and foreign laborers.

Both employers and labor organizations have recognized the importance of this question on production. Some laborers' conventions have unanimously petitioned in favor of entirely prohibitive measures. Employers' associations have emphatically expressed the opinion that the liquor traffic is a menace, not only from an economic viewpoint, but to civilization, leading to moral, mental, and physical degeneracy.

The following statement is made by the committee on manual labor:

In a greater degree than ever the future will demand a population ever increasing in strength and numbers and in its aptitude for industrial labor.

The sale, distribution, or clandestine storing of alcoholic, as well as all other spirituous liquor for drink should be prohibited during the war.

Existing laws regulating places where such liquors are sold as beverages, the suppression of public drunkenness, and the sale and manufacture of absinthe should be rigorously enforced; and the use of alcohol for industrial purposes should be intensified to its fullest possible extent.

INTOXICATING LIQUORS IN GOVERNMENT-CONTROLLED SHOPS.¹

According to a circular of August 5, 1917, the use of intoxicating liquors as a beverage was still a cause of deep concern with the War Office. The minister of munitions addressing the labor controllers said, "While there is no penalty provided by law which seems efficacious against the pernicious influence of places where liquors are dispensed, yet the state of war provides measures which no one in authority should hesitate to employ, i. e., the closing of such places as are convicted of contravention."

The controllers are required to report to the minister all cases where abuse is noticed, and to call upon military authority to immediately close the offending selling place. They are also required to report all action taken, and all penalties imposed by them.

"It being indispensable that drunkenness be repressed with great severity, especially repeated intoxication, controllers are required to report all such cases to the minister in order that he shall suggest the penalties to be imposed, and it is ordered that notices of such penalties shall be posted for the information of laborers."

¹ Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. August-September, 1917, p. 95*.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES.

The retail price of food as a whole shows a decrease of 1 per cent in November, 1917, as compared with the month previous. Of the 27 articles for which prices are reported to the Bureau of Labor Statistics 12 decreased in price, 4 remained the same, and 11 articles showed an increase as compared with October.

Pork chops decreased 11 per cent; hens, 5 per cent; sirloin and round steak, 4 per cent each; flour, 3 per cent; and sugar, 2 per cent. Onions increased in price 18 per cent; lard and butter, 4 per cent each; eggs, 5 per cent; potatoes, 3 per cent; rice, 2 per cent; and meal, 1 per cent. Beans, bread, ham, and bacon remained the same price as in October.

The following table shows the course of prices in the United States in October and November, 1917:

AVERAGE MONEY RETAIL PRICES AND RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD ON
OCT. 15 AND NOV. 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.	
		Oct. 15, 1917.	Nov. 15, 1917.	Oct. 15, 1917.	Nov. 15, 1917.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound....	\$0.330	\$0.317	121	116
Round steak.....	do.....	.309	.296	126	121
Rib roast.....	do.....	.257	.250	121	113
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.218	.212	127	123
Plate beef.....	do.....	.165	.163	129	127
Pork chops.....	do.....	.388	.345	171	152
Bacon.....	do.....	.482	.452	168	168
Ham.....	do.....	.426	.426	145	145
Lard.....	do.....	.312	.326	178	186
Hens.....	do.....	.312	.295	132	126
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.283	.287	140	142
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.551	.581	147	155
Butter.....	Pound.....	.508	.528	129	134
Cheese.....	do.....	.348	.346	135	134
Milk.....	Quart.....	.127	.128	140	141
Bread.....	16-oz. loaf ¹	.088	.088	135	135
Flour.....	Pound.....	.070	.068	159	155
Corn meal.....	do.....	.070	.071	206	209
Rice.....	do.....	.111	.114	122	125
Potatoes.....	do.....	.031	.032	115	119
Onions.....	do.....	.049	.058	100	118
Beans, navy.....	do.....	.189	.189	172	172
Prunes.....	do.....	.165	.166	123	124
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....	.150	.148	116	115
Sugar.....	do.....	.097	.095	121	119
Coffee.....	do.....	.305	.302	102	101
Tea.....	do.....	.612	.617	112	113
All articles combined.....				138	136

¹ 16 ounces, weight of dough.

In the year from November 15, 1916, to November 15, 1917, prices of food as a whole advanced 23 per cent. Potatoes is the only article that shows a decline in price. Corn meal advanced 87 per cent; bacon 62 per cent; pork chops 48 per cent; beans 39 per cent; salmon 38 per cent; milk 33 per cent; and lard 27 per cent.

Food as a whole was 48 per cent higher on November 15, 1917, than on November 15, 1913, and 46 per cent higher than on November 15, 1914. During this four-year period, corn meal advanced 127 per cent; flour 109 per cent; lard 104 per cent; bacon 77 per cent; sugar 75 per cent; and potatoes 72 per cent. No article declined in price.

Taking November in each of the four years, November, 1915, only shows a decline in price of food as a whole when compared with the same month in a preceding year. For November, 1915, the price of food as a whole was the same as in November, 1913, and was 1 per cent lower than in November, 1914.

A table showing the average and relative retail prices in November of each year from 1913 to 1917 follows:

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

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

Article.	Unit.	Average money price Nov. 15—					Relative price Nov. 15—					
		1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	
Sirloin steak.....	Pound....	\$0.254	\$0.254	\$0.257	\$0.270	\$0.317	93	93	94	99	116	
Round steak.....	do.....	.228	.235	.228	.243	.296	93	96	93	99	121	
Rib roast.....	do.....	.197	.204	.199	.210	.250	93	96	94	99	118	
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.167	.162	.162	.170	.212	97	94	99	123	
Plate beef.....	do.....	.128	.120	.120	.128	.163	100	94	100	127	
Pork chops.....	do.....	.216	.218	.209	.234	.345	95	96	92	103	152
Bacon.....	do.....	.273	.281	.273	.298	.482	95	98	95	104	168
Ham.....	do.....	.270	.273	.268	.332	.426	92	93	91	113	145
Lard.....	do.....	.159	.156	.145	.256	.326	91	89	83	146	186
Hens.....	do.....	.205	.205	.203	.238	.295	87	87	86	101	125
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.198	.198	.208	.287	98	103	142	
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.495	.450	.458	.514	.581	132	120	122	137	155	
Butter.....	Pound.....	.386	.394	.366	.437	.528	98	100	93	111	134
Cheese.....	do.....232	.292	.346	90	113	134
Milk.....	Quart.....	.091	.090	.089	.096	.128	100	99	98	106	141	
Bread.....	16-oz. loaf ¹057	.062	.075	.088	88	95	115	135
Flour.....	Pound.....	.033	.037	.037	.057	.068	74	83	84	129	155
Corn meal.....	do.....	.031	.033	.032	.038	.071	92	96	95	112	209
Rice.....	do.....090	.091	.114	99	100	125
Potatoes.....	do.....	.019	.015	.017	.035	.032	69	54	62	128	119
Onions.....	do.....033	.051	.058	68	105	118
Beans, navy.....	do.....085	.136	.189	77	124	172
Prunes.....	do.....133	.138	.166	99	103	124
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....125	.137	.148	97	106	115
Sugar.....	do.....	.054	.062	.065	.086	.095	68	77	81	107	119
Coffee.....	do.....299	.299	.302	100	100	101
Tea.....	do.....546	.546	.617	100	100	113
All articles combined.....	92	93	92	111	136

¹ 16 ounces, weight of dough.

The two tables which follow give average retail prices for 29 articles in 45 cities.

For 16 cities average prices are shown for November 15, 1913, November 15, 1916, and for October 15 and November 15, 1917.

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AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 29 CITIES ON NOV. 15, 1917.

[The average prices shown below are computed from reports sent monthly to the bureau by retail dealers. As some dealers occasionally fail to report, the number of quotations varies from month to month.]

Article.	Unit.	Average retail prices, Nov. 15, 1917.										
		Birmingham, Ala.	Bridgeport, Conn.	Butte, Mont.	Charleston, S. C.	Cincinnati, Ohio.	Columbus, Ohio.	Dallas, Tex.	Fall River, Mass.	Indianapolis, Ind.	Jacksonville, Fla.	
Sirloin steak.....	Lb....	\$0.340	\$0.396	\$0.303	\$0.275	\$0.258	\$0.321	\$0.304	\$0.420	\$0.312	\$0.312	
Round steak.....	Lb....	.310	.378	.276	.262	.252	.298	.292	.362	.304	.291	
Rib roast.....	Lb....	.250	.312	.243	.247	.227	.251	.248	.272	.228	.238	
Chuck roast.....	Lb....	.202	.257	.200	.192	.183	.233	.213	.228	.213	.193	
Plate beef.....	Lb....	.163	.165	.137	.150	.153	.178	.177		.162	.157	
Pork chops.....	Lb....	.348	.352	.369	.385	.317	.333	.365	.340	.343	.357	
Bacon, sliced.....	Lb....	.530	.513	.575	.486	.451	.457	.525	.441	.484	.491	
Ham, sliced.....	Lb....	.445	.496	.483	.436	.427	.456	.470	.434	.442	.425	
Lard.....	Lb....	.329	.324	.324	.321	.312	.333	.301	.319	.316	.326	
Lamb.....	Lb....	.325	.295	.313	.344	.278	.317	.325	.330	.250	.312	
Hens.....	Lb....	.286	.283	.314	.349	.298	.300	.260	.324	.260	.312	
Salmon, canned.....	Lb....	.278	.341	.373	.262	.262	.269	.280	.277	.233	(1)	
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz....	.488	.745	.708	.513	.518	.502	.491	.729	.519	(1)	
Eggs, storage.....	Doz....	.450	.467	.540	.439	.453	.447	.438	.465	.413	(1)	
Butter.....	Lb....	.561	.504	.550	.525	.512	.507	.498	.501	.518	(1)	
Cheese.....	Lb....	.341	.343	.345	.341	.359	.340	.358	.328	.380	(1)	
Milk.....	Qt....	.152	.140	.150	.160	.120	.110	.150	.128	.103	.150	
Bread.....	16-oz. ²	.094	.093	.105	.094	.080	.087	.087	.085	.084	.090	
Flour.....	Lb....	.071	.073	.075	.077	.072	.067	.066	.077	.069	(1)	
Corn meal.....	Lb....	.050	.087	.081	.068	.068	.066	.074	.080	.065	(1)	
Rice.....	Lb....	.124	.122	.130	.088	.118	.116	.114	.117	.123	(1)	
Potatoes.....	Lb....	.036	.036	.024	.038	.032	.030	.038	.034	.031	(1)	
Onions.....	Lb....	.055	.060	.050	.055	.051	.057	.056	.053	.052	(1)	
Beans, navy.....	Lb....	.194	.188	.190	.172	.185	.192	.181	.181	.203	(1)	
Prunes.....	Lb....	.150	.167	.173	.166	.163	.159	.171	.166	.178	(1)	
Raisins.....	Lb....	.163	.156	.150	.153	.146	.152	.148	.148	.167	(1)	
Sugar.....	Lb....	.104	.100		.098	.094	.099	.097	.105	.099	(1)	
Coffee.....	Lb....	.333	.319	.416	.282	.274	.289	.340	.328	.294	(1)	
Tea.....	Lb....	.739	.629	.782	.630	.700	.716	.808	.506	.833	(1)	

		Kansas City, Mo.	Little Rock, Ark.	Los Angeles, Cal.	Louisville, Ky.	Manchester, N. H.	Memphis, Tenn.	Minneapolis, Minn.	Newark, N. J.	New Haven, Conn.	New Orleans, La.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb....	\$0.311	\$0.300	\$0.265	\$0.286	\$0.435	\$0.284	\$0.228	\$0.348	\$0.398	\$0.273
Round steak.....	Lb....	.286	.273	.240	.268	.398	.268	.213	.352	.365	.238
Rib roast.....	Lb....	.231	.244	.222	.227	.271	.243	.201	.278	.302	.228
Chuck roast.....	Lb....	.197	.195	.189	.202	.237	.203	.167	.237	.268	.186
Plate beef.....	Lb....	.161	.166	.157	.177		.170	.133	.176		.151
Pork chops.....	Lb....	.333	.359	.368	.335	.322	.346	.305	.344	.336	.360
Bacon, sliced.....	Lb....	.494	.509	.527	.507	.452	.483	.467	.441	.498	.530
Ham, sliced.....	Lb....	.440	.415	.522	.439	.417	.432	.433	.324	.500	.450
Lard.....	Lb....	.338	.340	.309	.329	.332	.324	.318	.332	.332	.314
Lamb.....	Lb....	.259	.288	.297	.305	.324	.316	.236	.308	.338	.295
Hens.....	Lb....	.253	.269	.326	.302	.339	.286	.217	.308	.338	.297
Salmon, canned.....	Lb....	.288	.295	.298	.255	.296	.291	.314	.344	.322	.319
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz....	.468	.481	.625	.496	.676	.453	.454	.706	.792	.461
Eggs, storage.....	Doz....	.424	.450	.449	.423	.446	.407	.394	.479	.480	.397
Butter.....	Lb....	.500	.530	.485	.526	.542	.501	.470	.536	.518	.512
Cheese.....	Lb....	.350	.374	.342	.362	.335	.332	.323	.354	.336	.348
Milk.....	Qt....	.123	.165	.120	.123	.124	.150	.102	.140	.128	.136
Bread.....	16-oz. ²	.094	.089	.079	.085	.080	.096	.093	.082	.087	.080
Flour.....	Lb....	.075	.069	.063	.069	.072	.069	.059	.077	.071	.078
Corn meal.....	Lb....	.111	.104		.060	.077	.057	.064	.080	.078	.069
Rice.....	Lb....	.102	.102	.102	.119	.107	.103	.102	.117	.114	.101
Potatoes.....	Lb....	.032	.035	.020	.033	.033	.031	.026	.037	.034	.042
Onions.....	Lb....	.051	.053	.037	.045	.053	.046	.043	.060	.054	.052
Beans, navy.....	Lb....	.193	.187	.173	.201	.187	.195	.193	.182	.191	.173
Prunes.....	Lb....	.148	.183	.151	.165	.159	.173	.157	.169	.172	.170
Raisins.....	Lb....	.154	.149	.133	.161	.150	.145	.145	.147	.152	.155
Sugar.....	Lb....	.099	.091	.084	.102	.101	.102	.091	.100	.098	.096
Coffee.....	Lb....	.262	.328	.303	.276	.342	.302	.310	.298	.335	.274
Tea.....	Lb....	.592	.750	.571	.722	.561	.727	.504	.530	.550	.613

¹ Prices not shown, less than 80 per cent of reports from grocers for November, 1917, received by bureau.

² Loaf; 16 ounces weight of dough.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 29 CITIES ON NOV. 15, 1917—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	Average retail prices, Nov. 15, 1917.								
		Omaha, Nebr.	Portland, Oreg.	Providence, R. I.	Richmond, Va.	Rochester, N. Y.	St. Paul, Minn.	Salt Lake City, Utah.	Scranton, Pa.	Springfield, Ill.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb....	\$0.300	\$0.254	\$0.512	\$0.328	\$0.293	\$0.270	\$0.277	\$0.332	\$0.320
Round steak.....	Lb....	.285	.244	.418	.306	.282	.239	.256	.299	.305
Rib roast.....	Lb....	.228	.236	.327	.253	.248	.220	.233	.271	.232
Chuck roast.....	Lb....	.200	.182	.289	.235	.232	.189	.195	.225	.218
Plate beef.....	Lb....	.150	.145189	.177	.138	.157	.165	.180
Pork chops.....	Lb....	.322	.347	.362	.369	.354	.309	.392	.358	.344
Bacon, sliced.....	Lb....	.481	.513	.474	.479	.453	.452	.511	.476	.485
Ham, sliced.....	Lb....	.446	.455	.506	1.360	.427	.438	.432	.429	.435
Lard.....	Lb....	.332	.330	.339	.328	.324	.334	.345	.319	.330
Lamb.....	Lb....	.296	.277	.350	.308	.288	.228	.290	.324	.342
Hens.....	Lb....	.244	.255	.352	.290	.330	.222	.312	.347	.228
Salmon, canned.....	Lb....	.286	.338	.294	.235	.300	.287	.293	.287	.265
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.....	.465	.650	.707	.507	.643	.446	.554	.625	.486
Eggs, storage.....	Doz.....	.422	.497	.481	.460	.439	.403	.492	.456	.433
Butter.....	Lb....	.497	.548	.536	.550	.517	.471	.542	.507	.524
Cheese.....	Lb....	.349	.317	.340	.355	.343	.334	.339	.325	.377
Milk.....	Qt....	.120	.124	.130	.143	.128	.103	.111	.124	.125
Bread.....	16-oz. ²	.094	.085	.089	.084	.087	.063	.091	.092	.098
Flour.....	Lb....	.063	.057	.072	.072	.069	.061	.054	.074	.067
Corn meal.....	Lb....	.067	.071	.075	.062	.078	.066	.074072
Rice.....	Lb....	.114	.116	.116	.117	.115	.110	.102	.119	.121
Potatoes.....	Lb....	.029	.022	.037	.036	.030	.026	.021	.032	.030
Onions.....	Lb....	.044	.042	.052	.061	.052	.039	.045	.058	.050
Beans, navy.....	Lb....	.180	.163	.185	.211	.198	.201	.194	.190	.211
Prunes.....	Lb....	.168	.138	.176	.158	.180	.163	.156	.167	.175
Raisins.....	Lb....	.160	.135	.145	.148	.150	.144	.146	.147	.168
Sugar.....	Lb....	.092	.088	.099	.101	.101	.094	.092	.100	.094
Coffee.....	Lb....	.309	.325	.339	.280	.295	.321	.350	.318	.300
Tea.....	Lb....	.604	.567	.575	.691	.503	.529	.629	.567	.658

¹ Whole.

² Loaf; 16 ounces weight of dough.

PRICE CHANGES, WHOLESALE AND RETAIL, IN THE UNITED STATES.

Figures compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics furnish a comparison of wholesale and retail price changes among a number of important food articles since 1913. In collecting data for the comparison it was found that in some instances slight differences of grade or quality existed between the articles for which wholesale prices were obtainable and those for which retail prices could be secured. It was found impracticable, also, in most instances to obtain both kinds of quotations for the same date. The retail prices shown are uniformly those prevailing on the 15th of the month, while the wholesale prices are for a variable date, usually several days in advance of the 15th. For these reasons exact comparison of retail with wholesale prices can not be made. The figures are believed to be of interest, however, in showing price variations in the retail as compared with the wholesale markets.

In the table which follows the wholesale price is, in each case, the mean of the high and the low quotations on the date selected, as published in leading trade journals, while the retail price is the average of all prices reported directly to the bureau by retailers for the article

and city in question. To obtain a better comparison of wholesale with retail prices, the list of articles has been revised to some extent since the last issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW. The base period has also been shifted to the year 1913 in order to provide a fairer standard for measuring price changes. The initials W. and R. are used to designate wholesale and retail prices, respectively.

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF IMPORTANT FOOD ARTICLES IN SELECTED CITIES.

[The initials W=wholesale; R=retail.]

Article and city.	Unit.	1913: Average for year.	July.			1917.				
			1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Nov.
Beef:										
Steer loin ends (hips), Chicago.....W..	Lb..	\$0.168	\$0.175	\$0.160	\$0.205	\$0.200	\$0.200	\$0.190	\$0.235	\$0.235
Sirloin steak, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.232	.260	.258	.281	.265	.293	.302	.306	.297
Beef:										
Steer rounds, No. 2, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.131	.145	.143	.145	.120	.155	.170	.190	.180
Round steak, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.202	.233	.228	.241	.227	.256	.266	.273	.265
Beef:										
Steer ribs, No. 2, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.157	.165	.145	.175	.160	.210	.200	.230	.190
Rib roast, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.195	.212	.213	.229	.223	.241	.246	.247	.245
Beef:										
No. 2 loins, city, New York.....W..	Lb..	.158	.183	.170	.200	.180	.190	.190	.275	.220
Sirloin steak, New York.....R..	Lb..	.259	.274	.282	.294	.284	.318	.337	.356	.326
Beef:										
No. 2 rounds, city, New York.....W..	Lb..	.121	.135	.135	.145	.130	.170	.175	.190	.183
Round steak, New York.....R..	Lb..	.249	.270	.271	.289	.275	.315	.337	.360	.335
Beef:										
No. 2 ribs, city, New York.....W..	Lb..	.151	.165	.160	.180	.160	.200	.190	.275	.225
Rib roast, New York.....R..	Lb..	.218	.225	.227	.243	.238	.270	.279	.298	.279
Pork:										
Loins, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.149	.165	.150	.165	.165	.240	.250	.330	.250
Chops, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.190	.204	.201	.217	.227	.285	.292	.358	.312
Pork:										
Loins, Western, New York.....W..	Lb..	.152	.163	.153	.165	.170	.235	.235	.300	.260
Chops, New York.....R..	Lb..	.217	.230	.217	.239	.248	.319	.326	.399	.339
Bacon:										
Short clear sides, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.127	.139	.113	.159	.158	.218	.247	.318	.316
Sliced, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.294	.318	.315	.328	.316	.395	.439	.475	.497
Ham:										
Smoked, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.166	.175	.163	.190	.188	.243	.243	.283	.283
Smoked, sliced, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.266	.338	.328	.349	.333	.382	.414	.439	.445
Lard:										
Prime contract, New York.....W..	Lb..	.110	.104	.080	.133	.159	.215	.201	.246	.280
Pure, tub, New York.....R..	Lb..	.160	.156	.151	.168	.213	.263	.274	.313	.331
Lamb:										
Dressed, round, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.149	.170	.190	.190	.200	.220	.260	.270	.230
Leg of, yearling, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.198	.219	.208	.231	.232	.263	.287	.314	.282
Poultry:										
Dressed fowls, New York.....W..	Lb..	.182	.188	.175	.215	.220	.265	.248	.285	.235
Dressed hens, New York.....R..	Lb..	.214	.220	.219	.256	.261	.293	.287	.323	.295
Butter:										
Creamery, extra, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.310	.265	.265	.275	.370	.440	.375	.435	.438
Creamery, extra, Chicago.....R..	Lb..	.362	.312	.322	.335	.438	.484	.432	.487	.492
Butter:										
Creamery, extra, New York.....W..	Lb..	.323	.280	.270	.285	.395	.459	.395	.443	.445
Creamery, extra, New York.....R..	Lb..	.382	.328	.336	.346	.460	.513	.453	.515	.516
Butter:										
Creamery, extra, San Francisco.....W..	Lb..	.317	.245	.265	.255	.355	.390	.385	.460	.435
Creamery, extra, San Francisco.....R..	Lb..	.388	.329	.338	.333	.425	.452	.455	.545	.501
Cheese:										
Whole milk, American twins, Chicago.....W..	Lb..	.142	.133	.145	.145	.218	.223	.216	.246	.228
Full cream, American, Chicago.....R..	Lb..229	.242	.321	.327	.339	.368	.374
Cheese:										
Whole milk, State, New York.....W..	Lb..	.154	.144	.146	.151	.220	.245	.238	.255	.225
Full cream, American, New York.....R..	Lb..229	.228	.301	.335	.328	.340	.338
Cheese:										
Fancy Cal. flats, San Francisco.....W..	Lb..	.159	.125	.115	.135	.180	.215	.200	.220	.230
Full cream, American, S. F.....R..	Lb..200	.229	.242	.297	.297	.316	.324

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF IMPORTANT FOOD ARTICLES IN SELECTED CITIES—Concluded.

Article and city.	Unit.	1913: Average for year.	July.			1917				
			1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Nov.
Milk:										
Fresh, Chicago.....W..	Qt..	\$0.038	\$0.036	\$0.037	\$0.036	\$0.045	\$0.054	\$0.047	\$0.074	\$0.070
Fresh, bottled, delivered, Chicago..R..	Qt..	.080	.080	.080	.081	.100	.100	.100	.129	.119
Milk:										
Fresh, New York.....W..	Qt..	.035	.030	.030	.031	.051	.049	.050	.072	.077
Fresh, bottled, delivered, N. Y....R..	Qt..	.090	.090	.090	.090	.100	.109	.114	.138	.140
Milk:										
Fresh, San Francisco.....W..	Qt..	.039	.039	.038	.038	.038	.038	.043	.059	.059
Fresh, bottled, delivered, S. F....R..	Qt..	.100	.100	.100	.100	.100	.100	.100	.121	.121
Eggs:										
Fresh, firsts, Chicago.....W..	Doz.	.226	.188	.168	.218	.485	.305	.310	.370	.415
Strictly fresh, Chicago.....R..	Doz.	.292	.261	.248	.296	.525	.376	.406	.469	.496
Eggs:										
Fresh, firsts, New York.....W..	Doz.	.249	.215	.200	.241	.505	.330	.350	.400	.470
Strictly fresh, New York.....R..	Doz.	.397	.333	.326	.372	.667	.424	.477	.627	.647
Eggs:										
Fresh, extra pullets, S. F.....W..	Doz.	.268	.230	.220	.240	.380	.280	.320	.435	.520
Strictly fresh, San Francisco.....R..	Doz.	.373	.338	.310	.333	.430	.374	.392	.608	.638
Flour:										
Winter patent, Kansas City.....W..	Bbl.	4.012	3.550	6.225	4.750	8.950	11.450	11.150	10.500	10.500
Aristos, Kansas City.....R..	Bbl.	5.923	5.733	7.800	6.700	10.600	13.689	13.680	13.066	12.760
Flour:										
Standard patent, Minneapolis....W..	Bbl.	4.584	4.500	7.025	6.050	9.450	11.025	12.000	10.550	10.200
Pillsbury's Best, Minneapolis.....R..	Bbl.	5.600	5.800	8.200	7.000	10.800	13.200	13.424	11.984	11.456
Flour:										
Fancy patent, St. Louis.....W..	Bbl.	4.181	3.700	5.890	4.925	8.675	11.375	11.375	11.250	11.100
Gold Medal, St. Louis.....R..	Bbl.	6.077	6.000	8.187	6.933	10.587	12.853	13.200	13.100	12.267
Meal, corn:										
Fine, yellow, New York.....W..	Lb..	.014	.014	.017	.019	.027	.031	.040	.049	.049
Fine, yellow, New York.....R..	Lb..	.034	.034	.035	.042	.051	.057	.070	.082	.083
Beans:										
Medium, choice, New York.....W..	Lb..	.040	.040	.058	.098	.108	.130	.154	.138
Navy, white, New York.....R..	Lb..081	.113	.149	.162	.188	.185	.187
Potatoes:										
White, good to choice, Chicago....W..	Bu..	.614	1.450	.400	.975	1.750	2.800	2.625	1.135	1.950
White, Chicago.....R..	Bu..	.900	1.640	.700	1.856	2.370	3.455	2.975	1.660	1.623
Rice:										
Head, New Orleans.....W..	Lb..	.050	.064	.049	.046	.048	.049	.071	.077	.078
Head, New Orleans.....R..	Lb..075	.074	.074	.088	.101	.100	.101
Sugar:										
Granulated, New York.....W..	Lb..	.043	.042	.059	.075	.066	.081	.074	.082	.082
Granulated, New York.....R..	Lb..	.049	.046	.063	.079	.074	.087	.084	.097	.100

Relative wholesale and retail prices, expressed as percentages of the average money price for 1913, are contained in the table that follows. A few articles included in the preceding table are omitted from this one, owing to lack of satisfactory data for 1913. It will be seen from the table that since the beginning of the present year the retail prices of most of the commodities included in the exhibit have fluctuated at a relatively lower level as compared with their 1913 base than have the wholesale prices. This is particularly noticeable in the case of bacon, lard, dressed lamb, butter, milk, eggs, flour, corn meal, and potatoes. Comparing November prices with the average for 1913, it is seen that only 3 articles of the 28 included in the table show a larger per cent of increase in the retail than in the wholesale price. These are rib roast at Chicago and dressed poultry and granulated sugar at New York. In most of the other months of 1917 the

retail prices of these articles were relatively lower than were the wholesale prices.

RELATIVE WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF IMPORTANT FOOD ARTICLES IN
SELECTED CITIES (AVERAGE FOR 1913=100).

[The initials W=wholesale; R=retail.]

Article and city.	1913: Average for year.	July—			1917				
		1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Nov.
Beef:									
Steer loin ends (hips), Chicago.....W..	100	104	95	122	119	119	113	140	140
Sirloin steak, Chicago.....R..	100	112	111	121	114	126	130	132	128
Beef:									
Steer rounds, No. 2, Chicago.....W..	100	111	109	111	92	118	130	145	137
Round steak, Chicago.....R..	100	115	113	119	112	127	132	135	131
Beef:									
Steer ribs, No. 2, Chicago.....W..	100	105	92	111	102	134	127	146	121
Rib roast, Chicago.....R..	100	109	109	117	114	124	126	127	126
Beef:									
No. 2 loins, city, New York.....W..	100	116	108	127	114	120	120	174	139
Sirloin steak, New York.....R..	100	106	109	114	110	123	130	137	126
Beef:									
No. 2 rounds, city, New York.....W..	100	112	112	120	107	140	145	157	151
Round steak, New York.....R..	100	108	109	116	110	127	135	145	135
Beef:									
No. 2 ribs, city, New York.....W..	100	109	106	119	106	132	126	182	149
Rib roast, New York.....R..	100	103	104	111	109	124	128	137	128
Pork:									
Loins, Chicago.....W..	100	111	101	111	111	161	168	221	168
Chops, Chicago.....R..	100	107	106	114	119	150	154	188	164
Pork:									
Loins, western, New York.....W..	100	107	101	109	112	155	155	197	171
Chops, New York.....R..	100	106	100	110	114	147	150	184	156
Bacon:									
Short, clear sides, Chicago.....W..	100	109	89	125	124	172	194	250	249
Sliced, Chicago.....R..	100	108	107	112	107	134	149	162	169
Hams:									
Smoked, Chicago.....W..	100	105	98	114	113	146	146	170	170
Rib roast, sliced, Chicago.....R..	100	127	123	131	125	144	156	165	167
Lard:									
Prime, contract, New York.....W..	100	95	73	121	145	195	183	224	255
Pure, tub, New York.....R..	100	98	94	105	133	164	171	196	207
Lamb:									
Dressed, round, Chicago.....W..	100	114	128	128	134	148	174	181	154
Leg of, yearling, Chicago.....R..	100	111	105	117	117	133	145	159	142
Poultry:									
Dressed fowls, New York.....W..	100	103	96	118	121	146	136	157	129
Dressed hens, New York.....R..	100	103	102	120	122	137	134	151	138
Butter:									
Creamery, extra, Chicago.....W..	100	85	85	89	119	142	121	140	141
Creamery, extra, Chicago.....R..	100	86	89	93	121	134	119	135	136
Butter:									
Creamery, extra, New York.....W..	100	87	84	88	122	139	122	137	138
Creamery, extra, New York.....R..	100	86	88	91	120	134	119	135	135
Butter:									
Creamery, extra, San Francisco.....W..	100	77	84	80	112	123	121	145	137
Creamery, extra, San Francisco.....R..	100	85	87	86	110	116	117	140	129
Milk:									
Fresh, Chicago.....W..	100	95	97	95	118	142	124	195	184
Fresh, bottled, delivered, Chicago.....R..	100	100	100	101	125	125	125	161	149
Milk:									
Fresh, New York.....W..	100	86	86	89	146	140	143	206	220
Fresh, bottled, delivered, New York.....R..	100	100	100	100	111	121	127	153	156
Milk:									
Fresh, San Francisco.....W..	100	100	97	97	97	110	111	151	151
Fresh, bottled, delivered, San Francisco.....R..	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	121	121
Eggs:									
Fresh, firsts, Chicago.....W..	100	83	74	96	215	135	137	164	184
Strictly fresh, Chicago.....R..	100	89	85	101	180	129	139	161	170
Eggs:									
Fresh, firsts, New York.....W..	100	86	80	97	203	133	141	161	189
Strictly fresh, New York.....R..	100	89	82	94	168	107	120	158	163
Eggs:									
Fresh, extra pullets, San Francisco.....W..	100	86	82	90	142	105	119	162	194
Strictly fresh, San Francisco.....R..	100	91	83	89	129	100	105	163	171

RELATIVE WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF IMPORTANT FOOD ARTICLES IN
SELECTED CITIES (AVERAGE FOR 1913=100)—Concluded.

Article and city.	1913: Aver- age for year.	July—			1917				
		1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Nov.
Flour:									
Winter patent, Kansas City..... W..	100	89	155	118	223	285	278	262	262
Aristos, Kansas City..... R..	100	97	132	113	179	231	231	221	215
Flour:									
Standard patent, Minneapolis..... W..	100	98	153	132	206	241	262	230	223
Pillsbury's Best, Minneapolis..... R..	100	104	146	125	193	236	240	214	205
Flour:									
Fancy patent, St. Louis..... W..	100	88	139	118	207	272	272	269	265
Gold Medal, St. Louis..... R..	100	99	135	114	174	212	217	216	202
Meal, corn:									
Fine, yellow, New York..... W..	100	100	121	136	193	221	286	350	350
Fine, yellow, New York..... R..	100	100	103	124	150	168	206	241	244
Potatoes:									
White, good to choice, Chicago..... W..	100	236	65	159	285	456	428	185	318
White, Chicago..... R..	100	182	78	151	263	384	331	184	180
Sugar:									
Granulated, New York..... W..	100	98	137	174	153	188	172	191	191
Granulated, New York..... R..	100	94	129	161	151	178	171	198	204

FOOD CONTROL.

GOVERNMENT FOOD CONTROL IN GERMANY.

A report soon to be issued by the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics will deal with the food situation in 1917 in the countries of the allied central powers (Germany, Austria-Hungary, Bulgaria, and Turkey). This report, data for which have been obtained from leading newspapers in these countries, gives a general review of the food situation in each of them, and shows what the prospects are for the 1917 harvest, what measures the Government has adopted in the attempt to control the food supply and to secure as far as possible its equitable distribution among all classes of the population, and in what spirit these regulations have been received by the people. A summary of the food situation in Germany is here given.¹

That the outlook in regard to the food supply in Germany is not overbright is recognized by the German press. The bread-grain harvest is believed to be an average one. Herr Sundermann, editor of the German Agricultural Association's bulletin, states: "The yield is, on the whole, that of a medium harvest; here and there it is below this, although the premature ripening has not assumed the proportions feared in certain districts. In any case there will be no grain to spare, as we might have expected from the first, and we shall have to strain every nerve to make the grain last till the next harvest. The good quality, fortunately, guarantees that the bread will be wholesome and more beneficial." The fresh-fruit supply will not be very good, as much of the late fruit was gathered before it was ripe. Much is hoped for from the potato crop, and some imports are expected from occupied territory. In other respects the prospect is not so hopeful and the authorities hardly attempt to make it appear otherwise.

At present the situation, due to the raising of the bread ration and to a better supply of potatoes and other vegetables and of fruit,

¹ The facts in this article were taken from the following newspapers: Leipziger Volkszeitung, Volksfreund (Brunswick), Europäische Staats- und Wirtschafts-Zeitung, Vossische Zeitung (Berlin), Berliner Tageblatt, Münchner Neueste Nachrichten, Frankfurter Zeitung, Schlesische Zeitung (Breslau), Berliner Lokal-Anzeiger, Vorwärts (Berlin), Deutsche Tageszeitung (Berlin), Fleischer Zeitung (Berlin), Bremer Bürger-Zeitung, Hamburger Fremdenblatt, Darnzeitung (Berlin), Deutsche Landwirtschaftliche Presse, Hannoverscher Kurier, Die Konjunktur (Berlin), Norddeutsche Allgemeine Zeitung (Berlin), and Münchner Post.

is probably easier than it has been for some time. Nevertheless there is in the daily press evidence of very considerable discontent, and that not among the working classes only.

Germany is shown to be confronted with a difficult problem, that of maintaining the proper balance of food supply among the needs of the army, of agriculture, of industry, and of the civilian population. Interesting in this connection, and significant at once of the anxiety of the authorities to obtain fats and of the general shortage of foodstuffs, is an announcement in the Berlin Lokal-Anzeiger for October 3, 1917, that the collecting offices are paying cash or soup cubes for fruit kernels and melon seeds, from which to extract oil for margarine. This payment in soup cubes—which are rated at the cash price of $2\frac{1}{2}$ pfennigs (0.6 cent) per cube—is a special favor.

In regard to the live stock and meat situation, Herr von Waldow, the new secretary of state for the war food bureau, said in a statement to press representatives:

It is obvious that, besides meeting the needs of the army, we must have regard to the maintenance of agricultural production. Hence, before all, agricultural draft animals must be adequately fed. If, as is unfortunately probable, this is incompatible with the provision of sufficient fodder for the fattening of swine and the maintenance of our present stock of cattle, we must proceed to a systematic reduction of our stock of pigs and cattle. Naturally that will have its effect on the supply of meat, milk, and fat. In the case of meat, a temporary increase in the ration would be followed by a decrease. It will be particularly difficult this winter to keep up the supply of milk and butter.

During the past spring and summer many complaints have been made because of the increasing occurrence of the so-called "food excursions." By this was meant the practice among urban dwellers of going out to the rural districts to secure food illicitly. According to a proclamation issued by the commanding general of the Province of Brandenburg: "People now go out, not merely to buy, but to steal food or take it forcibly; they have the effrontery to help themselves to standing field and garden crops, often long before these are ripe. The injury to the farmers and to our future supply is obvious. Robbing the fields and damaging the crops is in war time a crime, and the strongest measures must be taken against it."

The Government regulations controlling each of the principal foodstuffs—meat, potatoes, fats and oils, eggs, milk, butter, vegetables, fruit, sugar, etc.—are not always successful from all points of view. This fall the Government granted various bonuses for the speedy delivery of potatoes. The object of hastening the delivery was attained. The potatoes poured into the towns at a quite embarrassing rate. In some places rations were doubled; in others two or three weeks' rations were issued in a single week. The potatoes were arriving in such quantities that the communes could not handle them.

Nevertheless the Imperial Potato Office ordered that they be accepted. The consequence was that, for want of cartage facilities, the railroad cars could not be unloaded and stood in the freight yards impeding traffic. The potatoes deteriorated and had to be sorted. Potatoes of the first late variety do not keep well, so people could not store them for winter use, and large quantities were therefore lost to the food supply.

The granting of the bonuses also aroused considerable criticism on the score of the resultant high prices to the consumer. According to the *Leipziger Volkszeitung* of September 3, 1917, the consumer's price must cover the basic price of production, agent's commission, speed bonus, loading bonus, and possibly a dispatch bonus—altogether about 7.50 or 8 marks (\$1.78 or \$1.90) per centner (110.23 pounds). There will still remain cost of freight, carriage, and storage, so that the final price may amount to 10 marks (\$2.38) or more per centner.¹

How the food orders are received in some instances is shown by an article in the above-named newspaper on the occasion of the increase in the bread ration which took effect August 13, 1917:

Those entitled to the supply will quickly discover what this new regulation means to them. Instead of the meat supplement, 500 grams [1.1 pounds] of bread will be supplied till October 1. That this is not sufficient compensation need not be pointed out. After October 1, the 500 grams of bread will be omitted and potatoes will be supplied instead. It is impossible to go on substituting one food for another in the hope of making the consumers believe they are being thus compensated.

Figures taken from the same paper showing the prices of certain articles of food in August, 1917, as compared with those prevailing at the outbreak of the war, indicate that along with the decrease in the food supply has gone an enormous rise in food prices. These figures show that the increases in prices of the principal articles are: Bread, 7 per cent; wheat flour, 30 per cent; lard, 371 per cent; first-quality butter, 142 per cent; condensed milk, 209 per cent; eggs, 357 per cent; potatoes, 233 per cent; and salad oil, 250 per cent.

In one section of the report are shown, as far as data on this point could be obtained, the average weekly food rations in 24 representative towns of Germany for the four weeks ending August 26, 1917. Although food rations are generally fixed by the Imperial War Food Bureau for the whole Empire, in practice the rations apportioned to the civilian population vary greatly from locality to locality and are dependent on the actual supply on hand.

As a step toward making the available food suffice to feed the whole populace, war kitchens have been established in all but 56 of

¹ There are 60 pounds in a bushel of potatoes; \$2.38 per centner is equivalent to \$1.30 per bushel.

the 536 communes which have a population of 10,000 or more each. A person fed at a war kitchen is required to surrender to the kitchen a number of food tickets representing the kinds and amounts of foods furnished him by the kitchen. These food tickets are issued by the authorities, and entitle the holder to purchase the articles of food named in the amounts specified. For meat and potatoes, tickets are required in nearly every town, but fat, pulse, farinaceous foods, and flour are more often supplied irrespective of tickets.

The war kitchens in most towns provide only midday meals, but where evening meals are served allowances are made from a fund provided by the King of Bavaria. This fund applies to all Germany.

The comparative popularity of war kitchens is a good index to the actual condition of the food supply. It is interesting, therefore, to find a statement in the *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten* of September 19, 1917, that in spite of the better harvest there will, according to an official intimation, probably be an increase in the number of people who use the kitchens this year, especially if the fat shortage should increase.

The question of grading food prices according to income has recently been much discussed in the German press. Twenty-one of the larger cities, however, have after investigation given up the idea because of the technical difficulties of drawing a just limit. The fluctuations of income within the year, the taxation according to the previous year's income, the number and age of the children, social obligations—all add to the difficulties. In Altona 84 per cent of the population would belong to the poorer classes, who would have to be privileged. In Berlin the number with a taxable income of over 6,000 marks (\$1,428) forms only 1 per cent. In Elberfeld 85 per cent have a taxable income of less than 2,400 marks (\$571.20). In Saarbrücken 87 per cent earn less than 3,000 marks (\$714).

The limited supply of food and the wide use of food substitutes seem to have had an effect on the public health. During the summer of 1917 numerous reports of the prevalence of dysentery in Germany appeared. An article by Prof. Schwalbe states: "Most of the cases must be considered as a result of war conditions—indigestible or deleterious foodstuffs, or fruit obtained in a less fresh condition than formerly. However, the general opinion is that the bread, badly milled and badly baked, is the cause."

The Berlin *Vossische Zeitung* of September 2, 1917, states: "According to current reports last month, one had the impression that every third person was suffering from dysentery. But such was, in reality, not the case. The infectious cases were limited to a small number, and quite a small percentage was fatal." The article ends, however, with the statement: "The total number of cases of dysen-

tery for Prussia during the period August 5 to 11 was 3,806, with 339 deaths."

The Vorwärts for September 5, 1917, states that "the spring months of 1917, following the bad winter months, show a great increase in the number of deaths from phthisis in Berlin. The monthly tables published by the Berlin Statistical Bureau for the time up to May record for the spring months March, April, and May, 500, 542, and 564 (in all 1,606) deaths from phthisis (including laryngeal phthisis), against 375, 331, and 326 (in all 1,032) deaths in the same months of last year. The deaths from pneumonia also greatly increased. In the three months, 366, 362, and 281 deaths (in all 1,009) were reported, as against 260, 192, and 170 (in all 622) last year. From other diseases of the lungs (including pleurisy) there died 106, 128, and 103 (in all 337) persons, as against 86, 57, and 47 (in all 190) last year. The death roll from the three above-named diseases amounted in the spring of 1917 to 2,952 against 1,844 in the spring of 1916. This increase can only partly be explained by the inclemency of the weather."

The above figures, taken from the official report, show a startling condition of affairs. Comparing the mortality figures for lung diseases for the three spring months of 1917 and 1916, we find that deaths from phthisis increased 56 per cent, from pneumonia 62 per cent, from other lung diseases 77 per cent, and from all lung diseases 60 per cent. The observation that these increases "can only partly be explained by the inclemency of the weather" is over-conservative. A more plausible explanation is underfeeding and bad food. Much has been made in this country of the difference between death from actual "starvation" and death from diseases which prove fatal because of underfeeding and improper feeding. The distinction so laboriously made is without a difference. Deaths have increased because food is insufficient. Consumption and other diseases have merely accelerated death from "slow starvation."

The infant mortality rate has also increased. The Vorwärts states that "infant mortality is unusually high this year in Berlin. It is true that the actual number of deaths is below that of recent years, but this is explained by the extraordinary decline in the birth rate. The proportion of the number of infant deaths to the number of births is considerably more unfavorable this year than last." This organ says that there may be several causes for this lamentable increase in infant mortality, but it should be investigated how far the deterioration in the quality of milk is responsible.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

AGRICULTURAL WAGES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

PROVISIONS IN CORN PRODUCTION ACT FOR THEIR REGULATION.¹

Agricultural Wages Board.—The Corn Production Act, 1917, passed on 21st August, provides for the establishment by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, after consultation with the Minister of Labor, of an Agricultural Wages Board for England and Wales. The main object for which the Wages Board is established is the fixing of minimum rates of wages for “workmen” employed in agriculture—that is to say, rates of wages which, in the opinion of the Wages Board, are the lowest which ought to be paid to “workmen” in the district for which the rates are fixed. The term “workmen” includes boys, women, and girls, and employment in agriculture includes work not only on farms, but also on osier land, woodland, orchards, market gardens, and nursery grounds.

The minimum rates when fixed will be legally payable as explained below.

Constitution of the Wages Board.—The Wages Board will consist of three classes of persons: (a) “Appointed members,” that is to say, persons directly appointed by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries who are not necessarily engaged in agriculture, but are expected to form an impartial judgment as between employers’ and workers’ interests; (b) members representing employers; and (c) members representing workers.

The members representing employers and the members representing workers must be equal in number. The appointed members must not be greater in number than one-quarter of the total number of members of the Wages Board.

Minimum rates of wages.—It will be the duty of the Wages Board to fix minimum rates of wages for time-work for all classes of workers, and they may, if they think it necessary or expedient, also fix minimum rates of wages for piecework. These rates, whether for time-work or for piecework, may be fixed so as to apply universally to workers employed in agriculture, or they may be different for different districts, or for different classes of workers, or for

¹ The Labour Gazette, London, September, 1917, p. 314.

different kinds and conditions of employment. In the case of able-bodied men, the minimum rates fixed for time-work must be such as will secure wages which, in the opinion of the Wages Board, are equivalent to payment for an ordinary day's work at a rate of at least 25s. (\$6.08) a week. This provision does not apply in the case of boys, women, and girls. In computing the wages, the value of such customary allowances as are not prohibited by law may be included in so far as the Wages Board may authorize and on a basis of value to be fixed by the Wages Board. Deductions from cash wages in respect of an allowance of intoxicating drink are illegal under the Truck Acts.

Procedure in fixing minimum rates.—Before fixing any minimum rate of wages the Wages Board must give notice of the rate which they propose to fix, and must consider any objections which may be lodged with them within one month; and when a rate has been fixed, notice of such rate must be given by the Wages Board for the information of the employers and workers affected.

Enforcement of minimum rates of wages.—When a minimum rate of wages has been fixed, any agreement for the payment or acceptance of wages at less than the minimum rate is void, and payment of wages at less than the minimum rate renders the employer liable to a fine of not more than £20 (\$97.33) and to a fine not exceeding £1 (\$4.87) for each day on which the offense is continued after conviction therefor, unless he proves that he did not know and could not with reasonable diligence have ascertained that the wages paid were at a rate less than the minimum rate.

In cases, however, where the Wages Board are satisfied that a worker on time-work is affected by any mental or other infirmity or physical injury which renders him incapable of earning the minimum time rate applicable, they may grant the worker a permit of exemption, and so long as any conditions prescribed by the Wages Board on the grant of the permit are complied with, the employer is not liable to penalty for paying the worker wages at less than the minimum rate.

Any worker may complain, or may authorize another person to complain, to the Wages Board that he is being paid wages at less than the minimum rate fixed by the Wages Board, and the Wages Board may, if they think fit, take proceedings on behalf of the worker, either for the recovery of the arrears of wages due to the worker or by way of prosecution of the employer.

Where a worker is employed on piecework, and a minimum time rate, but no minimum piece rate, has been fixed by the Wages Board for the work on which he is employed, the worker may complain, or may authorize another person on his behalf to complain, to the

Wages Board that the piece rate paid to him is so low that the earnings of an ordinary workman paid at such rate would be less than he would have earned for the same work at the minimum time rate applicable to the case; and the Wages Board in that case may direct the employer to pay the difference. The worker may recover from the employer summarily as a civil debt any sum which the Wages Board direct to be paid.

Officers may be appointed for the purpose of investigating complaints and otherwise securing the proper observance of the provisions of the act relating to minimum rates of wages.

*District wages committees.*¹—The Wages Board may, and if required by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries must, establish district wages committees to act for such areas as the Wages Board may determine.

It is the duty of district wages committees to recommend to the Wages Board minimum rates of wages applicable to their districts. Minimum rates of wages can only be fixed, varied, or canceled by the Wages Board itself, but no minimum rate fixed to apply to an area for which a district wages committee has been established, and no variation or cancellation of such rate can have effect in that area unless the district wages committee has either recommended the rate or its variation or cancellation or has had an opportunity of reporting thereon to the Wages Board.

Provisions of the act now in force.—Some time must necessarily elapse before the Wages Board and district committees are set up and the above provisions come into operation. In the meantime an able-bodied man employed on time-work (but no other class of worker to whom Part II of the act applies) who since the commencement of the act, viz, the 21st of August, 1917, has received payment of wages (including allowances) at a rate which, in the opinion of the court, is less than the equivalent for an ordinary day's work of 25s. (\$6.08) a week, will be entitled to recover the difference from his employer as a civil debt, at any time not exceeding three months after a minimum rate applicable to his work is fixed by the Wages Board. The value of allowances in such cases will, in case of dispute, be determined by the court.

It is advisable, therefore, that employers should at once arrange to pay all able-bodied men employed in agriculture, on time-work, wages for an ordinary day's work equivalent to at least 25s. (\$6.08) per week, and should provisionally agree with such workers as to the customary or reasonable value of any allowances which are reckoned

¹ Composed of an equal number of representatives of employers and workers, respectively, and also one or more impartial persons appointed by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries.

as part payment of wages. It is illegal under the Truck Acts to reckon beer or cider or other intoxicants as allowance in part payment of wages.¹

REGULATIONS AS TO CONSTITUTION AND PROCEEDINGS OF AGRICULTURAL WAGES BOARD.²

In the October issue of the British Labor Gazette it is noted that the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries has issued provisional regulations with respect to the constitution and proceedings of the Agricultural Wages Board for England and Wales, which specify that the board shall consist of 39 members, of whom seven shall be "appointed members" selected by the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries and the remainder shall be "representative members," representing employers and workmen, respectively, in equal proportion. It is also provided that the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries may, if deemed necessary for the purpose of securing the proper representation of any classes of employers or workmen, nominate additional representative members up to a number not exceeding four (of whom half must be representatives of employers and half representatives of workmen) to serve for such period, not exceeding three years, as it may determine.

The regulations provide for the retirement, at the end of one year from the date of the establishment of the Wages Board, of five members representing employers and five members representing workmen, and for the retirement of similar numbers at the end of two years. Provision is also made for vacating the seat of any "representative member" who, if representing employers, becomes a workman in agriculture, or, if representing workmen, becomes an employer in agriculture, or who fails, without reasonable cause, to attend one-half of the total number of meetings in a calendar year. If, in the opinion of the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries, any "representative member" is incapable of acting as a member of the Wages Board, the Board of Agriculture and Fisheries may determine his appointment, and he shall thereupon vacate his seat.

The term of office, according to these provisional regulations, will be two years for an "appointed member," and, subject to the above-mentioned regulations as to retirement and vacation of seats and the appointment of "additional" representative members, three years for a "representative member."

¹ In a footnote to this article the following statement is made:

"The information set out above gives a general idea of the provisions of the Corn Production Act relating to the fixing and payment of minimum rates of wages, but it must not be regarded as an authoritative interpretation of the measure, which should be consulted in any case of dispute or uncertainty."

² See Labour Gazette for October, 1917, p. 358.

WAGES AND COST OF LIVING IN FRANCE.

The Bulletin de la Statistique Générale de la France (July, 1917) publishes the results of an investigation of wages and cost of living in France for 1911 and 1916.

A résumé of this report, which is based on information furnished by the various councils of prudhommes, labor inspectors, and other officials, was published in the Bulletin of the Minister of Labor,¹ from which source the following data have been selected as showing the general trend of wages and prices during the period mentioned.

The data furnished by the council of prudhommes, or by mayors in localities where no such council is organized, relate to the smaller industrial establishments. They cover 52 occupations, 47 followed by male and 5 by female workers. Reports were received from 156 cities located in 80 departments, and in addition to estimates of wages they show the average amount paid by unmarried laborers for board and lodging.

The average daily wages of male employees in 38 occupations in 1916 was 5.56 francs (\$1.07), as compared with 4.55 francs (87.8 cents) in 1911; wages of female employees in 7 occupations averaged 2.57 francs (49.6 cents) in 1916, as compared with 2.21 francs (42.7 cents) in 1911.

The average monthly expenditure for board and lodging by an unmarried person was 70 francs (\$13.51) in 1911, and 99 francs (\$19.11) in 1916. In calculating the cost of living the average yearly consumption of a Parisian workman's family of four persons has been used as a base. The quantities adopted are: 700 kilograms (1,543 pounds) of bread, 200 kilograms (441 pounds) of ham, bacon, etc., 20 kilograms (44 pounds) of butter, 20 dozen eggs, 300 liters (317 quarts) of milk, 20 kilograms (44 pounds) of cheese, 250 kilograms (551 pounds) of potatoes, 30 kilograms (66 pounds) of beans, 20 kilograms (44 pounds) of sugar, 10 kilograms (22 pounds) of oil (table), 30 liters (32 quarts) of petroleum, and 10 liters (10.5 quarts) of fuel alcohol.

Assuming that the amounts of food consumed remain unchanged and applying to the fixed quantities of different articles the prices furnished periodically by the mayors, the office of general statistics has calculated that the index numbers showing the expenditures for a working family of four persons, based on 13 principal articles of food, have increased from 1,014 in the first quarter of 1911 to 1,466 in the fourth quarter of 1916.

¹ Bulletin du Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale, August-September, 1917, pp. 353-371.

In the following table are shown average hourly and daily wages, by occupations, in Paris and in other cities, for the years 1911 and 1916, and the per cent of increase for the latter year:

AVERAGE RATES OF WAGES IN PARIS AND OTHER CITIES, 1911 AND 1916, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE, BY OCCUPATIONS.

Occupation.	Average wages in—								Per cent of increase in 1916 over 1911.			
	Paris.				Other cities.				Paris.		Other cities.	
	1911		1916		1911		1916		Per hour.	Per day.	Per hour.	Per day.
	Per hour.	Per day.	Per hour.	Per day.	Per hour.	Per day.	Per hour.	Per day.				
<i>Males.</i>												
Brewers.....	Cts. 8.69	Dolls. 0.97	13.00	1.30	6.95	0.79	9.07	0.95	50	35	31	21
Printers and compositors.....	15.44	1.39	18.34	1.75	10.04	.96	11.77	1.10	19	25	17	15
Binders.....	11.58	1.16	15.44	1.54	9.07	.90	10.80	1.05	33	33	19	17
Tanners.....	12.55	1.25	18.34	1.83	7.72	.77	10.23	1.01	46	46	32	32
Saddlers and harness makers.....	12.55	1.16	12.55	1.25	8.11	.81	10.23	1.02	0	8	26	25
Shoemakers.....	14.48	1.45	16.41	1.64	7.33	.75	10.04	1.03	13	13	37	37
Tailors.....	14.48	1.45	16.41	1.64	8.49	.88	10.42	1.04	13	13	23	15
Dyers and cleaners.....	8.30	.81	10.42	1.01	25	26
Weavers.....	6.37	.62	7.91	.79	24	29
Rope makers.....	6.95	.69	8.49	.82	22	18
Wheelwrights.....	15.44	1.54	16.41	1.64	8.49	.85	10.42	1.04	6	6	23	23
Wood turners.....	9.26	.92	11.39	1.13	23	23
Coopers.....	8.69	.87	10.80	1.06	23	22
Cabinetmakers.....	17.37	1.74	18.34	1.83	9.26	.93	11.19	1.10	6	21
Upholsterers.....	19.30	1.83	19.30	1.93	9.84	.97	11.77	1.17	0	5	20	20
Sawyers.....	8.88	.87	11.00	1.04	23	22
Carpenters.....	19.30	1.74	21.71	1.95	9.84	.99	12.16	1.18	12.5	11	23	19
Joiners.....	15.44	1.54	19.30	1.93	9.07	.91	10.80	1.08	25	25	19	19
Coppersmiths.....	16.41	1.64	18.34	1.83	10.04	1.00	11.97	1.19	12	12	19	19
Tinsmiths.....	15.44	1.54	15.44	1.54	9.07	.90	11.19	1.11	0	0	23	24
Plumbers.....	1.54	9.46	.93	11.39	1.14	25	20	23
Blacksmiths.....	19.30	1.93	19.30	1.93	9.46	.94	11.77	1.18	0	0	25	27
Farriers.....	18.34	1.83	16.41	1.64	8.49	.85	11.00	1.08	10	10	30	30
Stove makers.....	9.65	.97	11.39	1.12	18	16
Locksmiths.....	17.37	1.54	20.27	1.82	8.88	.88	11.77	1.09	11	11	32	24
Metal turners.....	15.92	1.59	20.27	2.03	10.23	1.03	12.74	1.27	27	27	24	23
Watch and clock makers.....	13.51	1.35	21.23	2.12	10.62	1.02	12.55	1.24	57	57	18	21
Quarrymen.....	8.11	.80	10.62	1.02	31	28
Stone dressers, etc.....	19.30	1.74	17.37	1.56	10.23	.98	12.35	1.19	10	10	21	22
Masons.....	18.34	1.65	20.75	1.37	9.46	.92	11.71	1.13	13	13	24	22
Excavators.....	15.44	1.47	18.82	1.69	7.53	.72	9.84	.96	22	16	31	32
Roofers.....	1.54	1.74	10.04	.97	11.97	1.17	12	19
Painters, buildings.....	16.41	1.39	16.41	1.48	10.42	.91	12.55	1.08	0	6	20	20
Sculptors.....	2.08	2.41	12.55	1.18	14.48	1.44	16	15	21
Brickmakers.....	7.91	.75	9.84	.93	24	26
Potters.....	11.58	1.16	14.48	1.35	8.30	.82	9.65	.93	25	17	16	14
Glaziers.....	17.37	1.48	19.30	1.74	9.46	.91	11.39	1.08	11	18	20	19
Day hands.....	9.65	.97	10.62	1.06	6.37	.63	8.49	.82	10	10	34	30
Average.....	15.44	1.50	17.56	1.73	8.88	.88	11.00	1.07	14	15	24	22
<i>Females.</i>												
Ironers.....	7.72	.77	9.65	.97	4.25	.41	5.02	.50	25	25	18	23
Seamstresses.....	6.76	.68	8.69	.87	4.25	.43	5.21	.51	29	29	23	18
Laundresses.....	5.79	.58	8.69	.87	4.05	.40	4.83	.48	50	50	19	21
Vest makers.....	9.65	.97	9.65	.97	4.63	.46	5.40	.54	0	0	17	18
Lace makers.....	4.25	.39	5.02	.46	18	18
Embroiderers.....	4.63	.44	5.40	.46	17	5
Dressmakers.....	4.63	.47	5.40	.52	17	12
Average.....	7.53	.75	9.17	.92	4.44	.43	5.21	.50	22	22	17	16

¹ Decrease.

The questionnaires were not intended to cover all occupations. In many cases rates of wages in occupations other than those called for

are furnished. These show a much greater range in wages than is shown in the foregoing table, varying in different localities from no change in the case of workers in spices, umbrella makers, weavers, spectacle makers, velvet dyers, etc., to increases of 100 per cent for glove makers, 122 per cent for shoemakers, males, and 233 per cent for shoemakers, females. In 3 instances decreased wages are reported as follows: The daily wages of pipe makers decreased from 7.50 francs (\$1.45) in 1911 to 5 francs (96.5 cents) in 1916, of diamond workers from 10 francs (\$1.93) to 5 francs (96.5 cents), and of fasteners from 3.37 francs (65 cents) to 2.77 francs (53.5 cents).

In addition to these estimates reports covering the years 1913 and 1916 have been received from the labor inspectors. These relate to the daily wages in larger industrial establishments, cover 30 occupations—22 known as men's, and 8 as women's—and are based on a 10-hour day. Some are the prevailing wages in certain cities while others are for a department or a district. The table which follows shows these data by occupations:

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF LABORERS AND SKILLED WORKERS, BY SEX AND OCCUPATION, 1913 AND 1916.

Occupation.	Wages in—		Relative wage in 1916 (1913=100).	Occupation.	Wages in—		Relative wage in 1916 (1913=100).
	1913	1916			1913	1916	
<i>Men, laborers.</i>				<i>Men, skilled—Concluded.</i>			
Metal trades	\$0.79	\$1.04	132	Turners, finishers	1.27	1.66	131
Paper and chemicals	.78	1.01	130	Borers	.92	1.22	133
Building	.81	1.08	134	Packers	.89	1.09	122
Woodworking	.79	1.02	129	Average	1.06	1.32	125
Textiles	.70	.86	122	<i>Women, laborers.</i>			
Leather	.82	1.18	145	Not reported	.45	.67	150
Food preparations	.69	.95	137	Metal trades	.46	.74	159
Sundries	.88	1.14	130	Paper and chemicals	.41	.48	117
Not reported	.73	.94	129	Woodworking	.53	.72	137
Average	.78	1.02	132	Textiles	.48	.62	129
<i>Men, skilled.</i>				Leather	.52	.63	122
Millers, grist	.97	1.19	122	Food preparations	.41	.58	141
Weavers	.79	.97	122	Other	.45	.62	136
Tailors, cutters	1.24	1.49	120	Average	.46	.63	137
Cutters, shoes	1.11	1.36	123	<i>Women, skilled.</i>			
Harness makers	1.03	1.28	125	Spinners	.56	.69	123
Saddlers	1.05	1.29	123	Weavers	.60	.72	120
Wheelwrights	1.05	1.31	124	Cutters, ready-made garments	.53	.72	134
Sawyers, mechanical	1.06	1.30	122	Shoemaking	.62	.83	134
Turners, wood	1.17	1.39	119	Turners	.69	1.11	162
Hammersmiths	1.12	1.36	121	Borers	.55	.80	145
Stampers	1.44	1.79	124	Examiners of parts	.60	.85	142
Strikers	.86	1.08	125	Average	.58	.80	138
Blacksmiths	1.17	1.44	123				
Firemen, large boilers	.94	1.16	123				
Engineers, steam	.98	1.19	121				
Electricians, installers	1.17	1.46	125				
Fitters, mechanics	1.16	1.49	128				
Turners, rough	1.06	1.42	134				

If the prices of commodities and the rate of wages before the war be taken as a base, or 100, the index numbers in the following statement will show the relative increase in wages and in cost of living in 1916:

Relative wages of men based on report of—	
Councils of prudhommes (average for 1911=100).....	122
Labor inspectors (average for 1913=100).....	125
Relative wages of women based on report of—	
Councils of prudhommes (average for 1911=100).....	116
Labor inspectors (average for 1913=100).....	138
Relative cost of living (average for 1911=100)—	
Board (by month).....	141
Household necessities (13 articles).....	145

While the cost of living has increased in a proportion relatively greater than the increase shown in wages, the increasing number of members of the family, especially women and young girls, finding employment in industry increases the family income, even though individual wages remain stationary. For this reason the relation between salary and the cost of living is more exactly fixed when the income of the working family instead of the individual salary is considered.

The following data are reported for persons engaged in agricultural labor: Since 1914 daily wages have increased from 3.43 francs (66.2 cents) to 5.15 francs (99.4 cents) when board is not furnished, and from 2.33 francs (45 cents) to 3.52 francs (67.9 cents) when board is furnished, an increase of 50 and 58 per cent, respectively.

Wages paid mine laborers, 1914 and 1916, as reported by the magistrates, show an increase of approximately 18 per cent, but since the wages for 1914 are based upon the normal 8-hour day and those for 1916 are computed upon a 9 to 10 hour day, the estimates for 1916 do not show the workmen's actual gains.

The following table shows average daily wages in various mining districts, 1914 and 1916, and per cent of increase in the latter year:

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES IN VARIOUS MINING DISTRICTS, 1914 AND 1916, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE.

District and mine.	Daily wages in—		Per cent increase, 1916 over 1914.	District and mine.	Daily wages in—		Per cent increase, 1916 over 1914.
	1914	1916			1914	1916	
Ardèche:				Hérault:			
Bannes.....	\$0.84	\$1.00	19	Graissac—			
Neigles-Prades.....	.70	.84	19	Below ground.....	\$1.00	\$1.30	30
Aveyron:				All workers.....	.82	1.10	34
Decazeville—				Loire.....	1.08	1.22	13
Below ground.....	1.09	1.18	6	Haute-Loire:			
Above ground.....	.91	1.03	13	La taupe.....	.89	1.04	17
Campagnac—				Grosménil.....	.88	1.02	15
Below ground.....	1.09	1.19	9	Isère:			
Above ground.....	.90	1.98	9	La Mure.....	1.09	1.32	20
Allier:				Maine-et-Loire:			
Les Ferrières.....	.88	1.11	27	Iron mining—			
Buxières.....	.76	.95	25	Below ground.....	.97	1.16	20
Commentry.....	.77	1.06	37	Above ground.....	.87	.83	(?)
Bezenet.....	.82	1.06	29	Gold mining—			
Saint-Hilaire.....	.74	.95	28	Below ground.....	.92	1.17	26
Noyant.....	.92	1.11	23	Above ground.....	.65	.80	23
Gard:				Slate quarry, d'Angers—			
Bessèges—				Below ground.....	1.06	1.14	7
Below ground.....	1.18	1.33	13	Above ground.....	.75	.90	19
Above ground.....	.79	.91	15	Slate quarry, d'Anjou—			
Rochebelle—				Below ground.....	.90	1.11	23
Below ground.....	1.06	1.29	22	Above ground.....	.82	1.01	23
Above ground.....	.74	.87	18	Nievre:			
Tréllys—				Decize.....	.86	1.04	20
Below ground.....	1.08	1.27	17				
Above ground.....	.76	.87	15	All mines reported....	.90	1.06	18
Portes—							
Below ground.....	1.05	1.17	11				
Above ground.....	.68	.78	14				

¹ Not including monthly allowances of 10 fr. (\$1.93) to men, 8 fr. (\$1.54) to women, and 15 fr. (\$2.90) to children; one-eighth increase in wages, and other benefits for overtime work.
² Decrease of 4.7 per cent.

Average daily wages (based on those reported for the principal cities of various departments) have been calculated for the purpose of showing the general advance in men's wages. Only data applicable to both years, 1911 and 1916, have been used. In the table following are shown average daily wages for men, monthly prices of board, lodging, and food, for single persons, relative cost based upon prices of 13 articles of household necessity, and relative wages in small and large industries in 25 principal cities.

WAGES AND PRICE OF BOARD AND FOOD IN 25 PRINCIPAL CITIES, 1911 AND 1916.

City.	Customary daily wages (males).		Customary price of board (per month).		Index number of retail prices (13 articles of food).		Relative prices, 1916 (1911=100).		Relative wages, 1916 (1911=100).	
	1911	1916	1911	1916	1911	1916	Board.	Food.	Small industries.	Large industries.
Epinal.....	\$0.87	\$1.25	\$13.51	\$15.83	1,051	117	143	138
Rennes.....	.95	1.32	13.70	19.30	989	1,285	141	130	140	118
Bourges.....	.95	1.30	13.90	26.06	998	1,495	187	149	137	130
Saint-Etienne.....	1.06	1.37	15.83	26.44	1,178	1,540	155	131	130	117
Besancon.....	.96	1.22	15.44	22.20	1,020	1,438	144	141	127	132
Rouen.....	1.13	1.43	13.51	28.95	1,063	214	127	129
Evreux.....	.91	1.13	17.37	20.27	1,019	1,529	117	150	124	116
Limoges.....	.87	1.07	14.48	21.23	1,040	1,450	147	139	123	141
Grenoble.....	1.03	1.26	14.96	21.62	967	1,515	144	157	122	117
Angoulême.....	.89	1.07	13.03	16.41	957	1,470	126	154	121	115
Saint-Brieuc.....	.80	.97	12.93	15.44	1,026	1,357	119	132	120	113
Le Puy.....	.78	.93	14.48	21.71	985	1,422	150	144	120	127
Lyon.....	1.20	1.44	17.37	27.99	1,076	1,727	161	161	119	127
Nantes.....	1.11	1.32	15.44	21.23	910	1,567	137	172	119	119
Poitiers.....	.91	1.08	15.44	15.44	1,188	1,489	100	125	118	132
Paris.....	1.50	1.73	26.06	115	128
Macon.....	.94	1.09	14.48	19.30	992	1,405	133	156	115	115
Chambery.....	.93	1.05	11.58	14.48	912	1,434	125	157	114	127
Valence.....	.96	1.06	12.06	17.18	991	1,545	128	156	111	134
Orleans.....	.97	1.06	14.48	22.20	990	1,487	153	150	109	133
Dunkerque.....	1.02	1.09	14.48	20.27	1,117	1,606	140	144	107	114
Blois.....	.99	1.03	13.51	23.16	961	171	104	129
Chateauroux.....	.91	.95	15.92	25.09	969	1,371	158	141	104	106
Marseille.....	1.14	1.17	14.48	24.13	1,119	1,652	167	148	102	121
Bar-le-Duc.....	1.06	1.09	15.15	1,107	1,575	142	103	109

Hourly wages of female garment workers (all occupations combined), working at home, are reported according to the rates fixed by the wage committees established by the law of July 10, 1915.

The difference in rates in the various districts is considerable. In Cantal the average hourly rate is only 0.18 franc (3.5 cents) while in Seine-at-Marne where the highest rate is reported it reaches 0.46 franc (8.8 cents).

INCREASED PAY FOR CIVIL EMPLOYEES OF FRANCE.¹

As a means of meeting the increased cost of living, a law was passed, April 7, 1917, which granted an increase in the salaries of the civil employees of France and which provided for further allowances to cover family expenses by making specific increases according to the number of children living with such employees and dependent upon them.

In accordance with the provisions of this law a decree was signed, May 3, 1917, regulating the granting of such increases and allowances.

The law and the decree were subsequently modified,² and further increases were granted. As the result of an examination of the law

¹ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Aug. 19, 1917, p. 6574.

² Law of Apr. 7, 1917.

of August 4, 1917, the following measures were taken to complete the temporary provisions made for the purpose of enabling civil employees of the State to meet present conditions of the high cost of living. The decree states:

ARTICLE 1. Beginning with July 1, 1917, temporary supplements to salaries not subject to any deductions for pension funds, shall be granted under the conditions herein provided, to all civil employees of the State who belong to the classes mentioned, and who are paid monthly. These employees are as follows:

1. Officials, clerks (*agents*), assistant clerks (*sous-agents*) definitely employed or serving probationary periods, and supernumeraries subject to the provisions of the laws of April 11 and 18, 1831; June 9, 1853, and April 8, 1910 (Article 85).

2. Clerks (*agents*), assistant clerks (*sous-agents*), and employees who are permanently employed in the service of the State, but who belong to a class organized and paid according to a fixed scale.

In no case shall this decree be applicable to (1) clerks under 16 years of age; (2) employees serving ad interim and persons temporarily employed to fill vacancies during hostilities; (3) employees whose public employment partakes of an accessory nature; (4) employees who during their term of employment are permitted to engage in an occupation, in commerce, or in industry.

ART. 2. Yearly increases in salaries shall be fixed as follows: 540 francs [\$104.22] for those employees whose annual salaries do not exceed 3,600 francs [\$694.80]; and 360 francs [\$69.48] for those receiving 3,600 francs and not over 5,000 francs [\$965] per annum. For those receiving between 3,600 francs and 3,780 francs [\$729.54] the increase shall be such as will make the annual income at least 4,180 francs [\$806.74].

Salaries between 5,000 francs [\$965] and 5,360 francs [\$1,034.48] shall be increased but not to exceed the larger amount.

ART. 3. In determining the amount of salary received consideration shall be given to the gratuities, allowances, perquisites, and other compensation of a supplementary character, allowed by the State, provinces, communes, colonies, and public establishments, as well as to all wages or salaries paid by private parties as a regular income from employment. - In all cases allowances for dwellings (*logement*) shall be computed as a part of the salary received.

In cases in which salaries or commissions are variable the income from these sources for the year immediately preceding and for the employee's actual position for that time shall be taken as the base. Deduction shall be made for premiums retained to establish pensions. Commissions, however, shall be exempt in so far as they are subject to deductions for civil pensions. If the employee is furnished free lodgings their value must be considered as a portion of his salary.

ART. 4. Any official, clerk, or assistant clerk receiving a salary not exceeding 5,000 francs [\$965] and having minors under 16 years of age, or incapable of work because of infirmities, dependent upon him shall be entitled to further annual allowances as follows: 100 francs [\$19.30] for each of the first two children; and 200 francs [\$38.60] for each child after the second. A person receiving over 5,000 francs [\$965] shall receive only such an allowance as will make his annual income equal to that of a man receiving 5,000 francs [\$965] and having equal family charges.

Dependents shall be defined as: 1. Children whose care is incumbent upon the parent according to the civil code; 2. Orphaned brothers, sisters, nephews,

or nieces living with the employee; 3. Children of either parent by a former marriage living with the employee. Children in a State institution who are beneficiaries of a fund or other equivalent benefit shall in no case be considered as dependents. This restriction shall not apply to children who have received scholarships only.

When each parent claims the allowances for family charges, they shall be payable only if the larger of the two salaries does not exceed 5,000 francs [\$965], and only one allowance shall be made for each child.

On the first day of each month the allowances for family charges shall be payable for the preceding month.

ART. 5. Temporary and auxiliary clerks, not included in the above provisions, who entered the service before the war, and who have been employed in the same department for five consecutive years, shall be granted annual increases as provided by the decree of May 3, 1917, of 120 francs [\$23.16] for unmarried persons, and 180 francs [\$34.74] for married persons, or for widowed, divorced, or separated persons having children or other dependents under their charge.

They shall also be entitled to compensation for dependents equal to that herein provided for permanent employees, but only under the following conditions: (1) That their salaries do not exceed 5,000 francs [\$965]; and (2) that they do not belong to the excepted class (art. 1).

ART. 6. Special regulations made by each department of the Government shall provide equal increases and allowances for day, job, and piece workers.

Employees attached to services whose administrative officers, taking into account the high cost of living, have, since the outbreak of hostilities, undertaken the betterment of the scale of wages shall be excluded from these benefits.

Persons paid monthly at a day rate, for every day in the year, including Sundays and holidays, shall be considered as monthly employees.

ART. 7. Officials, clerks, and laborers mobilized, and allowed to receive more than one salary (law of Aug. 5, 1914), shall have a right to equal benefits and under similar conditions to temporary allowances, if married, widowed, or divorced, with children legally dependent upon them.

ART. 8. Officials, clerks, and laborers of French nationality paid from the State appropriation, in the foreign or in the colonial service, or in a protectorate shall be allowed temporary increases to be determined by the proper minister and approved by the minister of finance.

FARM LABORERS' WAGES IN HOLLAND.

Relatively very large compensation was paid farm laborers in the Amsterdam consular district during the past harvest season, according to information furnished by the American consul at Amsterdam, under date of October 10. For cutting (with a sickle) and binding wheat or oats, the laborer received per hectare (2.47 acres) 35 to 40 florins (\$14.07 to \$16.08). Twenty years ago, it is said, 6 to 7 florins (\$2.41 to \$2.81) was considered good pay for similar work. During the recent harvest an energetic farm laborer could make as much as 8 florins (\$3.22) per day, and a man, his wife, and two grown children could earn about 125 florins (\$50.25) per week. Wages in other industries, the consul states, have advanced in much less degree than

on the farms, the reason being that other large industries have not made, on the whole, so great an increase of profits on their products as the farmers. "Formerly the Dutch farmer made only a small profit and could afford to pay only corresponding wages. Since the war began his profit has so greatly increased that the present rate of wages is relatively no more to him than the old-time rate, if as much."

WAGES IN THE DOMINICAN REPUBLIC.

The American consul at Puerta Plata, Dominican Republic, states that while there is no fixed scale of wages and no trade-unions in the Republic, there has been considerable advance in the amount paid for different kinds of labor owing to the increased cost of living and the scarcity of workers, most of whom are natives, except during the sugar season, when thousands are brought in from the neighboring islands. The average rates of wages reported by the American consul under date of November 5 were as follows: Day laborers, 60 cents; dock laborers, 80 cents; farm laborers, 50 cents; foremen, \$1.25 to \$2; masons, \$2; blacksmiths, \$1.50 to \$2; carpenters, \$1.50 to \$2; mechanics, \$1.50 to \$3; firemen, \$1.50 to \$2; locomotive engineers, \$2.50 to \$4. Tailors and shoemakers are usually paid by the piece, their earnings ranging from \$2 to \$3 per day. The few factory operatives that are there earn from 50 cents to \$2 per day, depending on their skill and the class of work performed.

EIGHT-HOUR WORKING-DAY BY AGREEMENT IN FINLAND.¹

The second number of the current volume of *Arbetsstatistisk Tidskrift* (the journal of the Finnish Labor Department) contains information with regard to the recent introduction of an eight-hour working-day in various occupations in Finland. Immediately after the revolution the senate passed a resolution introducing an eight-hour working-day in the workshops of the State railways and in the State printing works. Agreements for a like object have been arrived at between employers' associations and trade-unions in the metal, printing, sawmilling, paper and pulp making, and glass industries. Various private employers have also granted a similar working-day to their workpeople; and several municipalities, including Helsingfors, have made the same concession. As the result of this movement it is believed that in the near future the reduced working-day will be operative in most of the industries and in the more important handicrafts of Finland.

¹ The Labour Gazette, London, November, 1917, p. 403.

One of the most important agreements was that arrived at in the metal trade, under which the working hours per week may not exceed 47, the daily hours being eight on ordinary days, and seven on Saturdays and the day before a public holiday, including the 1st of May, which is also to be a holiday. The workpeople undertake to perform overtime work, for which extra payment is to be made at the rate of 50 per cent above ordinary pay for the first two hours, and 100 per cent for subsequent time and for hours worked on Sundays. The pay for work by the job or day is not to be reduced in consequence of the shortened working-day. Where work is done in one shift, this must fall between the hours of 7 a. m. and 5 p. m., one hour interval for meals being permitted.

Two bills relating to the introduction of an eight-hour working-day in industry and in agriculture, respectively, have been put forward by the Social Democratic Party, and are now being considered by the legislature.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

The union scales of wages and hours of labor for 101 of the principal trades in 48 of the leading cities in the United States prevailing in May, 1916, are published in Bulletin No. 214, just issued by this bureau. The scales shown are those of the baking, brewing, building, freight handling, stone, metal, millwork, printing, soft drink, and teaming trades.

Reports of weekly wages were received for 99 trades. In 80 of these trades the average rate of wages, taken collectively, was higher on May 15, 1916, than on May 1, 1915. In 19 trades there was no change, and in no trade was the average rate lower. The bakery trades, collectively, received an advance of 2 per cent. All but one of the 17 brewing trades listed in this report received an increase ranging from 1 to 8 per cent. Thirty of the 37 building trades listed received an increase of from 1 to 11 per cent. Chauffeurs, teamsters, and drivers received an increase of 3 per cent. Freight handlers received the greatest increase in any one occupation—14 per cent. Granite cutters had an increase of 4 per cent. All of the metal trades gained an increase of from 3 to 10 per cent. Millwork painters (hardwood finishers) received an increase of 12 per cent. In book and job printing 9 of the 11 trades received an increase, in no case, however, above 3 per cent. In the soft-drink establishment group the increase was from 1 to 5 per cent in the several occupations.

Considering the rates of wages per hour as distinguished from rates per week of the 101 trades, 83 showed an increase, 18 showed no

change, and for none was the rate lower. Taken collectively, rates per hour in 1916 were 4 per cent higher than in 1915, 5 per cent higher than in 1914, 14 per cent higher than in 1910, and 19 per cent higher than in 1907.

The highest scales per hour paid in May, 1916, in a few of the principal trades were as follows: Bricklayers, 87.5 cents in Dallas, Houston, Denver, and San Francisco; carpenters, 70 cents in Chicago; portable and hoisting engineers, 75 cents in Chicago, Detroit, Newark, New York, St. Louis, and San Francisco; hod carriers, 50 cents in Portland, Oreg., St. Louis, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, and Spokane; inside wiremen, 75 cents in Chicago and St. Louis; painters, 70 cents in Chicago; plasterers, 87.5 cents in Dallas, Houston, and San Francisco; plumbers and gas fitters, 75 cents in Birmingham, Chicago, Dallas, Houston, Kansas City, Portland, Oreg., St. Louis, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, and Seattle; structural-iron workers, 75 cents in San Francisco; granite cutters, 75 cents in Boston; stone cutters, 70 cents in Portland, San Francisco, Seattle, and Spokane; compositors on book and job work, 54.2 cents in Denver and Salt Lake City, and on newspapers printed in English (day-work), 75 cents in Seattle; linotype operators on book and job work and on newspapers printed in English (daywork), 75 cents in Seattle.

As to changes in hours of labor, 31 trades showed a reduction of hours between 1915 and 1916, and 69 trades had no change. Only one trade, machinist-operators in book and job printing, had an increase in working hours in the year.

The hours of labor in the metal trades range from 44 to 63 per week, 54 being the predominant number. The printing trades in the book and job and newspaper offices in nearly all of the cities covered have an 8-hour day or less.

The bulletin further shows by index numbers (percentages) the relative changes between 1907 and 1916 in union wages and hours of labor as compared with retail prices of food and in the purchasing power of wages as measured by food.

LABOR STANDARDS.

SUSPENSION OF EIGHT-HOUR LAW ON CERTAIN GOVERNMENT CONTRACTS IN WASHINGTON, D. C.

Under date of December 6, 1917, the following executive order was issued by the President:¹

In order to effect the more expeditious construction of the extensions, alterations, etc., of buildings numbered 500 to 508, Fourteenth Street N. W., Washington, D. C., the early completion of said buildings for the use of activities of the Treasury Department engaged on work in connection with war measures creating a national emergency, and by virtue of the provisions of the act of Congress approved March 4, 1917, entitled "An act making provisions for the naval service for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1918, and for other purposes" (39 Stat. U. S., 1192), 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 suspend the provisions of law prohibiting more than eight hours of labor in any one day by persons engaged in the extension, alterations, etc., of the above-mentioned buildings belonging to the Government in the block on the west side of Fourteenth Street N. W., between E Street and Pennsylvania Avenue N. W., Washington, D. C. This order will take effect from and after this date.

THE UNITED STATES SHIPPING BOARD AND LABOR STANDARDS.

The output of ships from American shipyards depends more upon a sufficient supply of labor and the continuous employment of that labor than upon any other factor, according to Vice Chairman Stevens of the United States Shipping Board.² To secure that supply and continuous employment of labor the Shipping Board has accepted two definite policies.

In the first place the board has established free schools to teach navigation to sailors, oilers, etc., and to train marine engineers. These schools, beginning in the ports of New England, are now

¹ Official Bulletin, Dec. 7, 1917.

² The Nation's Business, Washington, D. C., 1917. Vol. 5, No. 10 (October), pp. 57-59.

located in all the important ports of the east, south, and west coasts. At the present time over 600 men are learning navigation in these free schools. Already there have been more than a thousand graduates, nearly all of whom have been placed on shipboard.

In the second place, the Shipping Board will urge no lowering of the existing standards of labor. These are Mr. Stevens's words on that point:

“Every provision of law which the National Government has passed for the better protection of the workers I believe ought to stand, unless it is obvious to everybody that it is a serious menace and a serious obstacle to the efficiency of labor. This is brought particularly home to the Shipping Board because a good many men engaged in the shipping business have urged the board to recommend to Congress the suspension of the so-called LaFollette Seamen's Act during this war. Let me say right here, with emphasis, that the Shipping Board does not propose to recommend to Congress the suspension of any act which the American people have passed for the better protection of the safety and the welfare of sailors on the seas.”

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

EMPLOYMENT AND LIVING CONDITIONS OF WOMEN IN CALIFORNIA.

The second biennial report of the California Industrial Welfare Commission, for 1915 and 1916,¹ is devoted largely to studies of the cost of living, of the employment of women and minors in the garment trades and in the laundry industry, to a report on the canning industry, and to a statement of the apprenticeship problem, including an outline of a policy concerning "learners" in industry. It is stated in the introduction that during the biennium the work of the welfare commission had been concentrated on the problem of securing a minimum wage and fixing maximum hours for 20,000 women workers in the canning industry, which had been exempt from all regulative legislation, resulting in excessive hours of labor in many cases. In February, 1916, the commission issued orders fixing minimum wages, hours of labor, and sanitary conditions for women and minors in this industry, and a statement of these rates appears in the present report. It may be said in this connection, however, that these orders have been superseded by new minimum wage rates effective June 16, 1917, and noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW for July, 1917, pages 57 and 58.²

The data on the cost of living is largely a reprint from the first biennial report, in which tables were presented showing the results of a study of this question in San Francisco, Los Angeles, Sacramento, Oakland, and San Diego. From the schedules gathered at that time an estimate of the annual amount actually needed by a woman worker to maintain herself in decency and with some degree of comfort was made, and with this estimate before it the commission early in 1916 established the minimum-wage rates to which

¹ California. Second biennial report of the Industrial Welfare Commission, 1915-16. Sacramento, 1917. 276 pp. Illustrated.

² Further orders covering the fish-canning industry and the laundry industry, effective on January 10 and 15, 1918, respectively, appear on pp. 119 and 120 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

reference has been made. This estimate, made in 1914, is reproduced in the report under review, and somewhat abridged is as follows:

Board and room.....	\$300.00
Clothing, etc.....	112.25
Carfare.....	31.20
Sundries (toilet).....	10.00
Medical and dental.....	20.00
Vacation and amusement.....	15.00
Laundry.....	12.00
	<hr/>
Total.....	500.45
Average per week.....	9.63

In the study of the employment of women and minors in the garment trades in California, which "give employment to more women (approximately 3,000) than any other branch of manufacture in the State save the canning industry," attention was centered on three lines—namely, shirts and workingmen's garments; ladies' cloaks, suits, and skirts; and men's custom tailoring. Emphasis was placed on the rates of pay and earnings of women and children, since hours of labor, matters of sanitation, toilet rooms, etc., had been regulated by statute or by rules of local boards of health. The report first takes up the employment of 1,781 women and children in shirt, overalls, and kindred manufactures, giving tables showing the average output and earnings per year of piece-rate workers and describing the processes involved. Although employers, when asked what an average operator in their factory should earn, almost universally replied 25 cents per hour, the tables apparently indicate that a large number of the workers did not earn even 20 cents per hour on most of the work done. Thus, of 656 women employed steadily on one part of the garment 396, or 60 per cent, were working on fronts, cuffs, and sleeve openings or making and putting on collars, which processes were found quite generally to yield the operatives a rate of less than 20 cents per hour. Average earnings ranged from 5.2 cents per hour to 52.2 cents per hour, depending on the kind of work done. Of 214 time workers it was found that 30.4 per cent were rated at under \$9 per week, while 51 per cent were rated at under \$10. The average was \$10.54 per week. Almost all the women, as well as the employers, indicated a preference for the piece-rate system of payment. The piece-rate earnings of beginners in this industry indicate that it takes 32 weeks before 20 cents an hour can be earned on overalls, and 42 weeks before the same amount can be made on shirts by the average girl, as the industry is now organized.

The investigation into the employment of women and children in the men's ready-made and custom-made clothing industry embraced the three cities of Los Angeles, Oakland, and San Francisco, cover-

ing 156 establishments, 85 of which employed 582¹ women. Of this number 458, or 78.7 per cent, were time-rate workers and 124, or 21.3 per cent, were piece-rate workers. Tables presented in the report show that 63.2 per cent of the 288 time-workers for whom information was obtained on this subject received less than \$9 per week, while 73.6 per cent received less than \$10; and that of the 56 piece-rate workers reporting, 33.9 per cent received less than \$9 and 60.7 per cent less than \$10 per week. The average weekly earnings for all workers was \$9.31. Approximately one-fourth of the women reporting worked the full 52 weeks in the year; 54.6 per cent worked less than 25 weeks during the year.

In the cloak, suit, and skirt industry, 22 establishments in Los Angeles and San Francisco were scheduled, 16 covering the entire year ending October 1, 1915, and 6 covering only the month of October. The method of payment and rates of pay were obtained for 452 women. Approximately 90 per cent of the workers were paid time rates. In these cities it was found that of 403 workers 39.2 per cent were rated at less than \$9 per week, while the actual earnings of 69.7 per cent, based on reports for 430 workers, fell below that amount. Approximately 30 per cent of the workers in the first group were rated at \$12 or more per week, while only 10.8 per cent in the last group earned \$12 or more per week. The average weekly rate was found to be \$10.06 and the average weekly earnings \$8.79.

The report states that in Los Angeles the rates of pay, earnings, weeks employed, and hours were all better in ladies' custom tailoring in 1914-1915 than in the cloak and suit industry in the same city.

In the investigation of the laundries of the State establishments employing both men and women were covered in the cities of San Francisco, Los Angeles, Oakland, Stockton, Fresno, San Jose, Pasadena, Colton, Riverside, and San Bernardino. Transcripts of pay rolls were taken during the four weeks of January, 1916, including rates of pay, occupations, number of hours worked, and actual weekly earnings. Information was obtained for 4,328 women and 1,686 men, a total estimated at more than 50 per cent of the laundry workers in the State. The report calls attention to the rather large amount of shifting within the industry, and also the comparatively low percentage of employees who have been in the work for less than one year, ranging from 2.8 per cent in San Francisco to 38 per cent in Los Angeles. This shifting, it is suggested, also varies by occupations, the highly skilled occupations such as shirt press operators, body ironers, and forewomen showing a very low percentage.

¹ This includes 344 women employed during one year in 19 establishments and 238 women employed in October, 1915, in the 66 establishments having no back records.

Taking up the matter of rates of pay and actual earnings, it is stated that of the 4,328 women employed in the industry, 3,720 were paid on a time or bonus basis. The following table shows the per cent of those receiving each classified rate of pay and earning each classified weekly amount in the several cities included in the investigation:

PER CENT OF LAUNDRY WORKERS ON TIME-RATE BASIS RECEIVING EACH CLASSIFIED WEEKLY RATE OF PAY AND EARNING EACH CLASSIFIED WEEKLY AMOUNT IN CERTAIN CALIFORNIA CITIES.

City.	Number of workers.	Weekly rate of pay.				Actual weekly earnings.				
		Under \$8	\$8 to \$8.99	\$9 to \$9.99	\$10 and over.	Under \$8	\$8 to \$8.99	\$9 to \$9.99	\$10 and over.	Average.
San Francisco.....	1,253	0.2	34.1	21.1	44.6	14.2	32.9	17.4	35.5	\$9.89
Los Angeles.....	1,663	53.4	15.8	15.3	15.5	¹ 61.5	¹ 15.7	¹ 9.4	¹ 13.4	7.78
Oakland.....	504	17.7	34.7	20.0	27.6	² 49.7	² 18.0	² 9.9	² 22.4	8.38
Fresno, Stockton, San Jose.....	272	4.4	18.8	34.2	42.6	³ 29.5	³ 26.1	³ 23.9	³ 20.5	8.94
Pasadena.....	139	18.7	42.5	16.6	22.2	⁴ 37.1	⁴ 27.2	⁴ 16.1	⁴ 19.6	8.47
Colton, Riverside, San Bernardino.....	109	67.9	4.6	14.7	12.8	⁵ 73.4	⁵ 7.5	⁵ 10.8	⁵ 8.3	7.05
All cities.....	3,940	27.8	24.9	18.9	28.4	⁶ 43.8	⁶ 22.0	⁶ 13.0	⁶ 21.2	8.55

¹ Based on 322 piece-rate workers in addition to the 1,663 shown in the first column.

² Based on 9 piece-rate workers in addition to the 504 shown in the first column.

³ Based on 5 piece-rate workers in addition to the 272 shown in the first column.

⁴ Based on 41 piece-rate workers in addition to the 139 shown in the first column.

⁵ Based on 11 piece-rate workers in addition to the 109 shown in the first column.

⁶ Based on 388 piece-rate workers in addition to the 3,940 shown in the first column.

From this table it will be seen that the average weekly earnings in all cities was \$8.55, and that 27.8 per cent of the workers were rated at less than \$8 per week, 43.8 per cent actually earning less than that amount.

The average weekly hours worked is shown to be 44.5 for all women employed on a time basis; 64.8 per cent worked between 44 and 48 hours per week.

A table showing the rates of pay and earnings of the 1,686 men scheduled indicates, for all cities, an average of \$15.05 per week as the rate and \$14.89 per week as the actual earnings.

The report includes a statement of the working conditions in California canneries, and reviews the data submitted to furnish the wage board with information covering the producing power of the normal worker when engaged in putting up peaches, tomatoes, apricots, and pears in order that the board might have a basis upon which to determine equitable rates.

The apprenticeship problem as noted in the report is shown in a group of tables taken from the first biennial report of the commission. It may be gathered from these tables that in San Francisco mercantile establishments, for instance, wages seem to bear a marked relation to the ages of employees, the younger workers receiving the lower

wages; that there is not a very decided increase in wages until after two years' experience; and that nearly one-half of the workers scheduled had completed the eighth grade in school. Among San Francisco and Los Angeles laundry workers it appears that education had very little bearing on wages received.

The outline of a policy concerning "learners" in industry was submitted to the welfare commission by Meyer Bloomfield, head of Industrial Service Department, Division of Labor, U. S. Shipping Board, Emergency Fleet Corporation. In this outline emphasis is placed on the fundamental principle that the problem of the learner must be looked upon primarily as a problem of industrial management and organization rather than a purely individual problem, the solution of which depends wholly upon the brightness, ability, etc., of the employee. "The fact that a slow or unpromising learner in one plant shows, by change to another plant, ability not before revealed is proof that something more than the learner's ability frequently determines advancement in an organization." It is suggested that the nature of the conditions to be imposed by the commission may be well founded on objective standards and considerations as, for instance:

Has the employer any system of careful selection of employees?

Is there any organized opportunity for learning the trade?

What is the actual cost to the employer of teaching an employee?

What method is used to determine the learner's progress in order not to delay the payment of earned wages?

Is it cheaper to carry an indefinite number of learners who come and go than to plan permanence for rapid advancement of the learning force?

In dealing with the beginner or learner in industry provision should be made, it is stated, for the inexperienced minor learner, the experienced minor learner, the experienced adult learner, and the inexperienced adult learner. Since shop conditions and methods vary so widely as to make it impossible to frame a teaching policy that will fit all plants, "the task is to discover what is the actual learning procedure in the shops, what is a genuine learning opportunity, and to establish a less-than-minimum wage based on the opportunity or lack of it; that is, the better the opportunity in a given place the smaller the wage, the poorer the opportunity, the smaller the exemption from the regular minimum."

To put a premium on learning opportunity after defining for all employers what such opportunity involves, and to penalize lack of opportunity is to raise the standard of shop management, equalize conditions, and thus advance the best interests of both employer and employee alike.

Several schedules are suggested to be used by the commission in order to arrive at a definition of learning opportunity, these to be filled out by employers and workers, or by the commission's investigators.

MINIMUM WAGES AND MAXIMUM HOURS FOR WOMEN AND MINORS IN THE LAUNDRY AND FISH-CANNING INDUSTRIES OF CALIFORNIA.

In the month of November, 1917, the Industrial Welfare Commission of California issued two important orders establishing minimum wages and maximum hours of labor for women and minors in the laundry industry and in the fish-canning industry of that State. The essential features of these orders are as follows:

LAUNDRY INDUSTRY.

1. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit an experienced woman or minor to be employed in the laundry and dry-cleaning industry in California at a rate of wages less than \$10 per week.

An experienced woman or minor is one who has been employed in the industry fifteen (15) months or more.

2. The rate of wages for learners may be less than the minimum rate prescribed for experienced workers, provided:

(a) That learners shall be paid not less than \$8 per week for the first six (6) months of employment; not less than \$9 per week for the second six (6) months of employment; not less than \$9.50 per week for the following three (3) months of employment; and thereafter shall be considered experienced workers and shall be paid not less than the minimum rate prescribed for experienced workers.

(b) That all learners shall be registered by the commission. Application for registration as a learner shall be filed by the employer with the commission not later than two (2) weeks from the date of starting employment. Pending receipt of certificate of registration the learner shall be paid not less than the minimum rate for the wage group in which she belongs.

3. The total number of female learners in any establishment shall not exceed twenty-five (25) per cent of the total number of females employed; except that the Industrial Welfare Commission reserves to itself the right, during the continuance of the present war, to grant special permission to increase the percentage of learners in cases where actual emergency is shown.

4. Where payment of wages is made upon a commission, bonus, or piece-rate basis the weekly earnings shall not be less than the minimum time rate for the wage group in which the worker belongs.

5. All women and minors now employed in the laundry and dry-cleaning industry must be rated and paid in accordance with their period of employment as specified in section 2 (a).

6. Every person, firm, or corporation employing women or minors in the laundry and dry-cleaning industry shall keep a record of the names and addresses, the hours worked, and the amounts earned by such women and minors. Such records shall be kept in a form and manner approved by the Industrial Welfare Commission.

* * * * *

8. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any woman or minor to work in the laundry and dry-cleaning industry more than eight (8) hours in any one day, or more than forty-eight (48) hours in any week.

9. A license may be issued by the commission to a woman physically disabled by age or otherwise authorizing the employment of such licensee for a wage less than the legal minimum wage; and the commission shall fix a special minimum for such a woman.

* * * * *

This order shall become effective sixty (60) days from the date hereof.

Dated November 15, 1917.

FISH-CANNING INDUSTRY.

1. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit any woman or minor to work in the fish-canning industry in California at a rate of wages less than \$10 per week of 48 hours; or if employed less than 48 hours no woman or minor shall be paid less than 25 cents per hour.

2. Where payment of wages is made upon a piece-rate, bonus, or commission basis the worker shall be paid not less than the minimum time rate for the number of hours employed.

3. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit an adult woman, eighteen years of age or over, to work in the fish-canning industry more than eight hours in any one day, except in case of emergency: *Provided, however,* That the provisions of this section shall not apply to those occupations coming under the provisions of the Statutes of California, 1917, chapter 582, "An act limiting the hours of work of females," etc.

4. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit an adult woman to work in the fish-canning industry in case of emergency more than eight hours in any one day at a wage less than one and one-fourth times the rate of wages paid during regular time.

5. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit any woman or minor to work in the fish-canning industry more than six days in any one week except in case of emergency.

6. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit any woman or minor to work in case of emergency on the seventh consecutive day in any week at a rate of wages less than one and one-half times the rate of wages paid during regular time.

Emergency work shall be all work performed by any adult woman after eight hours in any one day, or all work performed by any woman or minor on the seventh consecutive day of work in any week.

7. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit a minor to work in the fish-canning industry more than eight (8) hours in any one day, or more than forty-eight (48) hours in any one week.

8. Every person, firm, or corporation employing women or minors in the fish-canning industry shall keep a record of the names and addresses, the hours worked, and the amounts earned by such women and minors. Such records shall be kept in a form and manner approved by the Industrial Welfare Commission.

* * * * *

10. A license may be issued by the commission to a woman physically disabled by age or otherwise authorizing the employment of such licensee for a wage less than the legal minimum wage; and the commission shall fix a special minimum wage for such a woman.

* * * * *

This order shall become effective sixty (60) days from the date hereof.

Dated November 10, 1917.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

WORK OF FEDERAL, STATE, AND MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND OF PROVINCIAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN CANADA.

Data are presented in the following table showing the operations of the public employment offices for the month of November, 1917, and in cases where figures are available, for the month of November, 1916. For the United States figures are given from public employment offices in 41 States and the District of Columbia, Federal employment offices in 32 States, Federal-State employment offices in 4 States, a Federal-State-county-municipal employment office in 2 States, Federal-municipal employment offices in 1 State, State employment offices in 16 States, State-municipal employment offices in 3 States, municipal employment offices in 9 States, and a municipal-private employment office in 1 State. Figures from Canadian employment offices are also given.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917.

UNITED STATES.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applica- tions from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New regi- strations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
Alabama:												
Mobile (Federal).....		1		4	6	15	(1)	(1)		1		1
Arizona:												
Phoenix (Federal).....		401		1,124		1,146		(1)		1,016		966
Arkansas:												
Little Rock (State).....		79		1,583		2,495		(1)		511		507
California:												
Fresno (State).....		579		1,369		2,848		(1)		1,383		1,260
Fresno (municipal).....												
Los Angeles (Fed- eral).....	4	(1)	8	(1)	103	(1)	(1)	(1)	9	(1)	6	(1)
Los Angeles (State- municipal).....	2,622	3,594	4,298	6,020	2,060	2,897	(1)	(1)	4,611	6,185	4,042	5,648
Oakland (State).....	706	1,125	953	1,913	510	1,025	393	(1)	984	1,859	753	1,460
Sacramento (Fed- eral).....		3		11		32		(1)		11		11
Sacramento (State)	312	399	760	1,222	490	2,516	245	(1)	717	1,149	637	1,009
Sacramento (muni- cipal).....	(1)	(1)	253	(1)	60	(1)	(1)	(1)	253	(1)	253	(1)
San Diego (Fed- eral).....	486	(1)	1,446	(1)	715	(1)	(1)	(1)	1,203	(1)	909	(1)
San Francisco (Federal).....	345	577	790	2,239	1,146	2,512			588	2,006	325	1,602
San Francisco (State).....	1,032	2,123	1,941	4,407	2,110	2,730	817	(1)	2,180	4,849	1,915	4,100
Total.....									10,545	17,442	8,840	15,090

¹ Not reported.

² Number applying for work.

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OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917—Continued.

UNITED STATES—Continued.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applications from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New registrations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
Colorado:												
Colorado Springs (State).....		552		552		1 496		(2)		(2)		430
Denver (Federal).....	18	16	18	2,791	77	149	(2)	(2)	21	142	19	74
Denver No. 1 (State).....		513		513		11,495		(2)		(2)		408
Denver No. 2 (State).....		524		524		1 527		(2)		(2)		337
Denver (municipal).....												
Pueblo (State).....		621		621		1 624		(2)		(2)		588
Total.....									21	142	19	1,837
Connecticut:												
Bridgeport (Federal).....		538		668		859		(2)		627		627
Bridgeport (State).....	820	(2)	(2)	668	(2)	1 859	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	706	627
Hartford (State).....	1,189	(2)	(2)	1,343	(2)	11,572	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	961	1,221
New Haven (State).....	977	(2)	(2)	826	(2)	1 920	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	803	685
Norwich (State).....	178	(2)	(2)	251	(2)	1 281	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	152	237
Waterbury (State).....	162	(2)	(2)	158	(2)	1 190	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)	117	124
Total.....									(2)	627	2,739	2,894
Delaware:												
Wilmington (Federal).....	14	15		800	61	460			67	398	42	387
District of Columbia:												
Washington (Federal).....		237		759		1,405		(2)		1,319		1,161
Florida:												
Jacksonville (Federal).....		5		240	87	146			19	130	19	91
Miami (Federal).....	7	12	9	48	58	60			10	35	6	29
Pensacola (Federal).....		(2)		(2)		4		(2)		(2)		(2)
Tampa (Federal).....		(2)		(2)		57		(2)		(2)		(2)
Total.....									29	3 165	25	3 120
Georgia:												
Savannah (Federal).....	2	4	35	100	79	160			36	37	21	19
Idaho:												
Boise (municipal).....	45	37	139	159	1 88	1 97	(2)	(2)	88	97	81	94
Moscow (Federal).....		5		500		114		(2)		114		114
Total.....									88	211	81	208
Illinois:												
Chicago (Federal).....	448	315	2,202	1,944	2,263	2,077	(2)	(2)	2,141	1,599	2,101	1,434
Chicago (State).....	4,239	3,953	10,793	14,729	8,897	13,158	3,007	1,371	11,454	14,011	8,531	11,553
East St. Louis (State).....	607	667	1,252	1,045	611	461	513	516	1,086	969	948	932
Peoria (State).....	796	956	1,314	1,508	223	406	748	859	921	1,245	919	1,234
Rock Island-Moline (State).....	(2)	1,019	596	3,739	572	1,396	(2)	933	(2)	2,235	514	2,081
Rockford (State).....	778	809	1,220	1,216	735	1,038	247	219	819	868	779	755
Springfield (State).....	516	591	717	1,032	199	314	401	529	545	776	506	599
Total.....									16,966	21,703	14,298	18,588

¹ Number applying for work.

² Not reported.

³ Not including two offices not reporting.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917—Continued.

UNITED STATES—Continued.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applications from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New registrations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
Indiana:												
Evansville (State).....	505	87	506	365	114	438	206	61	456	465	494	365
Fort Wayne (State).....	166	379	238	702	167	153	30	541	197	694	183	635
Indianapolis (Federal).....	178	165	427	633	623	1,857	(1)	(1)	430	580	347	486
Indianapolis (State).....	479	1,720	484	1,741	2,397	1,503	(1)	131	397	1,705	397	1,634
South Bend (State).....	235	177	921	247	496	185	76	108	491	275	430	241
Terre Haute (State).....	120	287	175	43	218	217
Total.....	1,971	3,937	1,851	3,578
Iowa:												
Des Moines (Federal-State).....	30	63	145	468	148	356	44	35	157	377	111	271
Kansas:												
Topeka (State).....	63	378	70	802	98	263	6	76	230	64	222
Kentucky:												
Louisville (State).....	468	156	460	152	2,670	2,191	(1)	(1)	460	152	460	152
Louisville (municipal-private).....	(1)	224	238	341	323	250	677	476	258	390	93	214
Total.....	718	542	553	366
Louisiana:												
New Orleans (Federal-State).....	46	106	56	631	184	201	(1)	(1)	147	600	27	446
Maine:												
Portland (Federal).....	4	20	8	(1)	(1)
Maryland:												
Baltimore (Federal).....	125	78	176	492	214	350	(1)	(1)	160	387	160	255
Massachusetts:												
Boston (Federal).....	175	2,250	51	3,465	(1)	(1)	6	2,016	6	1,033
Boston (State).....	1,891	1,436	2,153	1,776	2,124	1,166	(1)	(1)	3,389	2,825	1,500	1,475
Springfield (State).....	953	753	1,193	1,042	3,489	2,439	(1)	(1)	4,184	1,387	899	850
Worcester (State).....	976	853	1,256	1,126	2,570	2,531	(1)	(1)	4,145	1,250	711	727
Total.....	6,330	7,478	3,116	4,085
Michigan:												
Battle Creek (State).....	56	189	194	464	2,115	2,605	(1)	(1)	93	464	93	464
Bay City (State).....	68	47	229	101	2,211	2,215	(1)	(1)	171	182	171	162
Detroit (Federal).....	153	1,099	762	(1)	(1)	762	729
Detroit (State).....	500	1,121	5,678	4,386	2,545	2,436	(1)	(1)	5,452	4,386	5,452	4,376
Flint (State).....	709	188	709	596	2,709	1,044	(1)	(1)	709	591	709	542
Grand Rapids (State).....	488	378	747	661	2,747	2,831	(1)	(1)	731	747	731	747
Jackson (State).....	322	385	701	556	2,765	2,685	(1)	(1)	693	685	687	545
Kalamazoo (State).....	203	270	335	390	2,480	2,743	(1)	(1)	393	385	393	334
Lansing (State).....	47	91	162	603	2,172	1,025	(1)	(1)	153	603	153	603
Muskegon (State).....	59	41	262	241	2,205	2,301	(1)	(1)	188	214	173	214
Saginaw (State).....	146	132	837	522	2,714	2,452	(1)	(1)	714	452	714	452
Sault Ste. Marie (Federal).....	3	1	40	40	37	40	23	23	23	21
Total.....	10,082	8,732	10,028	8,460

1 Not reported.

2 Number applying for work.

3 Number who were registered.

4 Number of offers and positions.

124 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917—Continued.

UNITED STATES—Continued.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applications from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New registrations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
Minnesota:												
Duluth (State).....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	1,181	1,495
Minneapolis (Federal).....	12	7	15	11	36	202	(1)	(1)	10	1	10	1
Minneapolis (State).....	(1)	(1)	(1)	2,950	(1)	2,918	(1)	(1)	(1)	2,701	1,951	2,100
St. Paul (State).....	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	1,118	828
Total.....									10	2,702	4,260	4,424
Mississippi:												
Gulfport (Federal).....		3		500	43	677	(1)	(1)	10	321	9	319
Missouri:												
Kansas City (Federal-State).....	579	1,005	1,495	2,433	1,393	2,411	351	120	1,744	1,999	1,462	1,808
St. Joseph (State).....	618	534	1,032	877	1,030	805	6	9	1,035	814	1,032	811
St. Louis (Federal-State).....	387	260	624	2,015	483	1,918	44	18	418	1,850	388	1,706
Total.....									3,197	4,663	2,882	4,325
Montana:												
Butte (Municipal).....	300	(1)	430	562	380	2,562	(1)	(1)	400	(1)	390	520
Nebraska:												
Lincoln (Federal).....		228		476		441		(2)			413	380
Omaha (Federal-State - county - municipal).....		946		1,678		804		602			1,170	1,087
Total.....										1,583		1,467
Nevada:												
Reno (Federal).....	12	53	81	125	76	108	(1)	(1)	77	108	76	108
New Jersey:												
Jersey City (Federal-State).....	80	93	511	851	413	823			341	521	257	448
Newark ³ (Federal-State).....	1,469	1,490	2,505	6,620	2,572	1,457			2,180	4,282	1,610	5,823
Orange (Federal-State).....	220	245	235	792	110	152			102	310	85	262
Total.....									2,623	5,113	1,952	6,533
New Mexico:												
Albuquerque (Federal).....					3							
New York:												
Albany (State).....	511	540	687	825	551	554	278	408	816	918	449	567
Buffalo (Federal).....	139	1,235	1,869	1,826	930	1,643			991	2,063	803	1,441
Buffalo (State).....	981	1,160	2,345	1,817	1,599	1,430	125	213	2,006	2,059	1,472	1,439
New York City (Federal).....	99	2,593	587	11,668	970	8,821			561	4,483	427	3,069
New York City (State).....	1,722	2,130	2,388	2,667	1,181	1,641	577	978	2,522	2,786	1,477	1,594
New York City (municipal).....	2,820	2,364	3,166	2,487	2,269	2,401	(1)	2,047	4,197	3,517	2,546	2,231
Rochester (State).....	1,295	1,206	1,747	1,719	792	844	335	590	1,617	1,587	922	1,045
Syracuse (State).....	818	773	1,206	1,348	693	751	133	241	1,152	1,378	905	947
Total.....									13,952	9,268	9,001	5,817

¹ Not reported.² Number applying for work.³ Tentative assignment as a zone, pending permanent organization as a zone.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917—Continued.

UNITED STATES—Continued.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applications from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New registrations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
North Dakota: Bismarck (Federal)												
Ohio:												
Akron (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	2,305	2,335	906	948	1,621	1,739	1,783	1,794	1,491	1,467
Athens (State-municipal)		(1)		131		44		99		139		86
Canton (State-municipal)		(1)		517		482		246		515		329
Chillicothe (State-municipal)		(1)		648		533		307		638		561
Cincinnati (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	1,722	2,626	1,612	2,014	2,247	3,151	1,980	2,758	1,277	2,178
Cleveland (Federal)	15	27	60	395	78	340	(1)	(1)	66	145	16	91
Cleveland (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	6,791	7,014	2,665	2,774	7,249	8,411	6,259	6,650	5,104	5,680
Columbus (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	2,275	3,537	724	1,402	2,446	3,137	2,114	3,469	1,763	2,531
Dayton (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	1,013	1,948	753	1,527	991	1,441	914	1,777	814	1,457
Hamilton (State-municipal)		(1)		359		299		90		357		286
Lima (State-municipal)		(1)		375		342		110		375		340
Mansfield (State-municipal)		(1)		214		160		97		218		173
Marietta (State-municipal)		(1)		159		171		85		204		183
Marion (State-municipal)		(1)		335		348		182		419		311
Portsmouth (State-municipal)		(1)		508		404		135		433		315
Sandusky (State-municipal)		(1)		224		209		112		268		186
Springfield (State-municipal)		(1)		189		252		138		209		148
Stuebenville (State-municipal)		(1)		661		320		365		611		492
Tiffin (State-municipal)		(1)		401		234		126		275		199
Toledo (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	3,197	4,806	1,542	2,706	2,491	4,898	2,567	4,814	2,192	4,283
Washington C. H. (State-municipal)		(1)		101		63		44		76		56
Youngstown (State-municipal)	(1)	(1)	1,160	1,761	612	950	1,030	1,247	1,104	1,571	944	1,421
Zanesville (State-municipal)		(1)		153		176		79		184		114
Total						16,787		27,899		13,601		22,887
Oklahoma:												
Enid (State)	89	88	(1)	117	(1)	2 137	(1)	(1)	(1)	113	79	102
Muskogee (State)	(1)	349	(1)	558	343	2 404	(1)	(1)	(1)	383	224	299
Oklahoma City (State)	485	275	(1)	594	(1)	2 563	(1)	(1)	(1)	534	428	463
Tulsa (State)	(1)	810	(1)	1,620	844	2 1,389	(1)	(1)	(1)	1,332	772	1,312
Total									(1)	2,362	1,503	2,176
Oregon:												
Astoria (Federal)	43		126		2 452		(1)		130		122	
Portland (Federal)	962		1,566		2,040		(1)	(1)	1,602	(1)	1,521	
Portland (municipal)	761	1,190	1,393	3,187	520	2 84	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	1,285	2,707
Total									1,732	(1)	3,928	2,707

¹ Not reported.

² Number applying for work.

126 MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917—Continued.

UNITED STATES—Continued.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applications from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New registrations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
Pennsylvania:												
Altoona (State).....	(1)	13	83	215	30	74	2	63	21	64	21	63
Erie (State).....		182		625		174		67		209		200
Harrisburg (State).....	(1)	150	494	374	300	232	101	117	302	274	255	249
Johnstown (State).....	(1)	75	352	142	71	88	23	18	80	98	67	90
Philadelphia (Federal).....	114	142	530	5,991	295	1,037	(1)	(1)	286	1,057	223	955
Philadelphia (State).....	(1)	435	1,327	4,940	933	5,881	792	454	1,393	4,843	1,153	4,678
Pittsburgh (Federal).....	22	32	86	602	865	518			466	490	402	457
Pittsburgh (State).....	(1)	47	1,239	2,787	741	1,143	200	335	754	1,179	703	1,128
Scranton (State).....		63		126		124		2		60		59
Williamsport (State).....		40		160		306		141		228		202
Total.....									3,302	8,192	2,824	8,391
Rhode Island:												
Providence (Federal).....		13		510		959				469		352
Providence (State).....	177	170	208	335	30	270	13	108	208	335	208	335
Total.....									208	804	208	687
South Carolina:												
Charleston (Federal).....	1	7	50	57	12	264	(1)	(1)	5	242	5	242
Tennessee:												
Memphis (Federal).....		5		50		1,242	(1)	(1)		279		279
Texas:												
Dallas (municipal).....	219	79	388	228	1,060	(1)	10	(1)	352	320	300	251
El Paso (Federal).....		51		78		90		(1)		70		17
Fort Worth (Federal).....		14		1,200		2,611		(1)		1,082		(1)
Fort Worth (municipal).....	124	116	284	360	219	522	26	1	196		190	
Galveston (Federal).....	9		110		24	55	(1)	(1)	14	470	6	401
Houston (Federal).....	2		2		6	44	(1)	(1)		33		29
Total.....									562	1,975	496	698
Virginia:												
Norfolk (Federal).....	10	10	243	212	170	221	(1)	(1)	92	174	45	27
Richmond (municipal).....	283	254	433	408	365	448	(1)	(1)	524	488	214	201
Total.....									616	662	259	228
Washington:												
Aberdeen (Federal).....		8		38		92		(1)		38		38
Bellingham (Federal-municipal).....	78	72	184	196	4203	4199	(1)	(1)	170	164	158	154
Everett (municipal).....	(1)	(1)	(1)	254	(1)	4603	(1)	(1)	(1)	425	281	254
North Yakima (Federal).....		422		867		1,586		(1)		810		766
Seattle (Federal).....		119		1,831		3,819		(1)		1,314		1,262
Seattle (municipal).....	2,495	2,969	4,269	5,870	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	4,320	5,945	3,948	5,450
Spokane (Federal).....		42		161		274		(1)		132		124

¹ Not reported.

² Includes all casual and transient applicants.

³ Includes 235 transients.

⁴ Number applying for work.

OPERATIONS OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1916 AND 1917—Concluded.

UNITED STATES—Concluded.

State, city, and kind of office.	Applications from employers.		Persons asked for by employers.		Persons applying for work.				Persons referred to positions.		Positions filled.	
					New registrations.		Renewals.					
	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.	Nov., 1916.	Nov., 1917.
Washington—Concl. Spokane (municipal).....	2,025	1,442	2,614	1,850	2,510	1,820	2,442	1,795
Tacoma (Federal-municipal).....	551	1,388	2,396	1,342	1,280
Walla Walla (Federal).....	265	325	255	(²)	141	127
Total.....	7,001	2,131	6,829	1,250
Wisconsin:												
La Crosse (State-municipal).....	159	130	115	108	231	206	(²)	(²)	145	138	69	107
Milwaukee (Federal-State-county-municipal).....	3,547	4,171	1,600	1,682	3,297	3,970	(²)	(²)	3,450	3,968	2,625	2,734
Oshkosh (State-municipal).....	116	108	106	125	204	184	(²)	(²)	106	127	86	103
Superior (State-municipal).....	816	397	296	1,263	640	913	(²)	(²)	688	928	540	592
Total.....	4,389	5,161	3,320	3,536
Grand total.....	118,562	132,474	105,629	122,610

CANADA.

Quebec:												
Montreal (provincial).....	301	166	1,011	545	³ 580	³ 403	(¹)	(¹)	639	493	529	418
Quebec (provincial)	(¹)	34	100	124	³ 90	³ 155	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	137	59	123
Total.....	4 639	630	588	541

¹ 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.

² Not reported.

³ Number applying for work.

⁴ Exclusive of Quebec, not reported.

REPORT OF EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND) FOR FIVE WEEKS ENDING OCTOBER 12, 1917.

As reported by the British Labor Gazette of November, 1917, the total number of workpeople remaining on the registers of the 383 British employment offices on October 12, 1917, was 107,914, compared with 109,216 on September 7, 1917, and with 115,399 on October 13, 1916. These figures comprise workers in professional, commercial, and clerical, as well as industrial occupations.

The operations of the employment exchanges for the five weeks are summarized as follows:

Item.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
On register on Sept. 7, 1917.....	28,247	64,667	7,033	9,377	109,324
Number of individuals registered during period.....	98,728	162,979	25,569	24,344	311,620
Total.....	126,975	227,646	32,602	33,721	420,944
Re-registrations during period.....	4,249	4,592	528	444	9,813
On register on Oct. 12, 1917.....	28,572	63,985	7,030	8,327	107,914
Vacancies notified during period.....	88,471	73,968	14,535	13,513	190,487
Vacancies filled during period.....	57,859	62,397	11,897	10,231	142,384
Applicants placed in other districts.....	14,374	13,027	1,958	1,316	30,705

The average daily number of registrations and of vacancies filled for the five weeks ending October 12, 1917, is shown in the following table, together with comparative figures for the periods ending September 7 1917, and October 13, 1916:

Department.	Average registration per day in period ending—			Average vacancies filled in period ending—		
	Oct. 12, 1917.	Sept. 7, 1917.	Oct. 13, 1916.	Oct. 12, 1917.	Sept. 7, 1917.	Oct. 13, 1916.
Men.....	3,432	3,338	3,596	1,929	1,858	1,947
Women.....	5,586	5,969	6,190	2,080	2,291	2,383
Boys.....	870	894	781	396	402	370
Girls.....	826	916	859	341	343	368
Total.....	10,714	11,117	11,426	4,746	4,894	5,068

EMPLOYMENT IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN NOVEMBER, 1917.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics received reports concerning the volume of employment in November, 1917, from representative manufacturing establishments in 13 industries. Comparing the data for November, 1917, with those from identical establishments for November, 1916, it is shown that in six industries there was an increase in the number of employees and in seven a decrease. The cigar-manufacturing industry shows the greatest increase—11 per cent—while car building and repairing shows the greatest decrease—7.9 per cent.

Each of the 13 industries canvassed showed an increase in the total amount of the pay roll for November, 1917, as compared with November, 1916. The greatest increase indicated—49.3 per cent—was in the iron and steel industry. There was an increase of 45.6 per cent in woolen manufacturing.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN NOVEMBER, 1916, AND NOVEMBER, 1917.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for November, both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in November—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	Amount of pay roll in November—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			1916	1917		1916	1917	
Boots and shoes.....	65	1 week..	52,842	50,707	- 4.0	\$731,685	\$769,187	+ 5.1
Cotton manufacturing.....	53	..do....	44,072	43,395	- 1.5	420,695	538,535	+28.0
Cotton finishing.....	17	..do....	14,700	14,870	+ 1.2	188,340	238,515	+26.6
Hosiery and underwear.....	50	..do....	30,744	30,586	- 0.5	315,870	388,220	+22.9
Woolen.....	45	..do....	39,792	42,625	+ 7.1	490,901	714,909	+45.6
Silk.....	37	2 weeks..	12,525	11,615	- 7.3	262,673	282,321	+ 7.5
Men's ready-made clothing..	34	1 week..	20,314	20,980	+ 3.3	294,071	358,829	+22.0
Iron and steel.....	110	½ month..	177,070	193,857	+ 9.5	7,044,369	10,517,074	+49.3
Car building and repairing..	21	..do....	28,619	26,356	- 7.9	959,004	1,093,955	+14.1
Cigar manufacturing.....	57	1 week..	18,135	20,129	+11.0	209,222	258,904	+23.7
Automobile manufacturing..	40	..do....	107,479	101,365	- 5.7	2,375,177	2,529,603	+ 6.5
Leather manufacturing.....	33	..do....	14,878	14,563	- 2.1	212,026	253,903	+19.8
Paper making.....	50	..do....	23,724	25,955	+ 9.	347,320	450,603	+29.7

The following table shows the number of persons actually working on the last full day of the reported pay period in November, 1916, and November, 1917. Many establishments do not keep a record of this fact, and consequently the number reporting such data is small. This should be taken into consideration when using these figures.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON LAST FULL DAY'S OPERATION IN NOVEMBER, 1916, AND NOVEMBER, 1917.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for November, both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of reported pay period in November—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			1916	1917	
Boots and shoes.....	13	1 week....	5,114	4,809	- 6.0
Cotton manufacturing.....	32	..do....	25,653	24,574	- 4.2
Cotton finishing.....	13	..do....	10,483	10,646	+ 1.6
Hosiery and underwear.....	8	..do....	10,760	10,632	- 1.2
Woolen.....	36	..do....	32,178	35,439	+10.1
Silk.....	20	2 weeks..	7,427	6,632	-10.7
Men's ready-made clothing..	4	1 week....	7,781	6,222	-20.0
Iron and steel.....	91	½ month..	141,459	154,492	+ 9.2
Car building and repairing..	20	..do....	24,920	23,317	- 6.4
Cigar manufacturing.....	12	1 week....	2,334	2,586	+10.8
Automobile manufacturing..	17	..do....	68,210	61,432	- 9.9
Leather manufacturing.....	14	..do....	8,830	8,803	- 0.3
Paper making.....	12	..do....	8,213	9,085	+10.6

The figures in the table below show that in 12 of the 13 industries there were more persons on the pay roll in November, 1917, than in October, 1917. The 7.9 per cent increase in the boot and shoe industry was the greatest. The only decrease—3.4 per cent—was in the automobile-manufacturing industry.

All of the 13 industries reporting show an increase in the total amount of the pay roll when comparing November, 1917, with Octo-

ber, 1917. The greatest increase—13.2 per cent—is shown in the cotton-manufacturing industry. There was an increase of 13 per cent for the boot and shoe industry. The silk industry shows the smallest increase—less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN OCTOBER, 1917, AND NOVEMBER, 1917.

Industry.	Es- tab- lish- ments re- port- ing for Octo- ber and Novem- ber.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	Amount of pay roll in—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).
			Octo- ber, 1917.	Novem- ber, 1917.		October, 1917.	November, 1917.	
Boots and shoes.....	68	1 week..	48,407	52,249	+7.9	\$700,951	\$792,346	+13.0
Cotton manufacturing.....	54	...do....	42,579	43,474	+2.1	475,584	538,414	+13.2
Cotton finishing.....	18	...do....	14,693	15,131	+3.0	221,606	242,749	+9.5
Hosiery and underwear.....	47	...do....	28,358	28,537	+ .7	338,370	364,794	+7.8
Woolen.....	45	...do....	41,923	42,992	+2.5	665,626	720,612	+8.3
Silk.....	35	2 weeks..	11,133	11,230	+ .9	273,447	273,517	(1)
Men's ready-made clothing..	34	1 week..	19,135	19,847	+3.7	307,556	341,477	+11.0
Iron and steel.....	110	½ month.	198,418	198,766	+ .2	10,664,992	10,794,996	+ 1.2
Car building and repairing..	16	...do....	20,317	21,356	+5.1	810,919	881,417	+ 8.7
Cigar manufacturing.....	61	1 week..	19,727	20,777	+5.3	250,809	269,527	+ 7.5
Automobile manufacturing..	41	...do....	111,895	108,057	-3.4	2,640,039	2,721,291	+ 3.1
Leather manufacturing.....	30	...do....	11,016	11,752	+6.7	186,762	204,227	+ 9.4
Paper making.....	48	...do....	25,438	25,504	+ .6	408,463	444,747	+ 8.9

¹ Less than one-tenth of 1 per cent.

A very much smaller number of establishments reported as to the number of persons actually working on the last full day of the reported pay period. The following table gives in comparable form the figures for October and November of this year. The small number of establishments represented should be noted when using the figures.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON LAST FULL DAY'S OPERATION IN OCTOBER, 1917, AND NOVEMBER, 1917.

Industry.	Establish- ments reported for October and November.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually work- ing on last full day of reported pay period in—		Per cent of increase (+) or de- crease (-).
			October, 1917.	November, 1917.	
Boots and shoes.....	24	1 week...	10,581	10,365	-2.0
Cotton manufacturing.....	35	...do....	25,268	25,865	+2.4
Cotton finishing.....	13	...do....	9,702	10,124	+4.3
Hosiery and underwear.....	12	...do....	11,547	11,532	- .1
Woolen.....	36	...do....	34,719	35,587	+2.5
Silk.....	22	2 weeks..	7,676	7,713	+ .5
Men's ready-made clothing..	5	1 week..	6,603	6,322	-4.3
Iron and steel.....	91	½ month..	155,642	157,236	+1.0
Car building and repairing..	16	...do....	18,395	19,300	+4.9
Cigar manufacturing.....	21	1 week..	4,178	4,269	+2.2
Automobile manufacturing..	23	...do....	70,406	67,516	-4.1
Leather manufacturing.....	12	...do....	5,632	6,097	+8.3
Paper making.....	14	...do....	9,132	9,608	+5.2

CHANGES IN WAGE RATES.

Of the 13 industries reporting, all except that of men's ready-made clothing show that changes in the wage rates were made during the period October 15 to November 15, 1917. A number of the establishments did not answer the inquiry relating to the wage rate changes, but in such cases it is probably safe to assume that no changes were made.

In the iron and steel industry, 19 plants report an increase in the wage rates. One plant reports an increase of 11 per cent to about 60 per cent of its employees; three plants report an increase of 10 per cent to all employees; while a fourth reports a like increase to time workers only. One plant reports an increase of 7 per cent to two-thirds of its men. Three plants report an increase of $6\frac{1}{4}$ per cent to 40 per cent of their employees, and a fourth one a like increase to 10 per cent of its force. Three plants report an increase of 5.97 per cent to 50 per cent of their employees, while a fourth reports a like increase to 15 per cent of its force. Two plants report an increase of 5 per cent to 50 per cent and 60 per cent, respectively, of their employees. One plant reports $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent increase to 60 per cent of the force; one plant reports an increase of 1.6 per cent to 23 per cent of its employees; and one plant reports an increase of 25 cents per turn to all employees.

Increases in wage rates were reported by 14 plants in the cotton-manufacturing industry. Ten plants reported a 10 per cent increase as follows: Three to all employees, one to approximately all, three a "general" increase, one to all except office force, one to 90 per cent of force, and one does not report the part of the force affected. One plant reports 8 per cent to all employees; two plants, an increase of 5 per cent to all employees; and one an increase of 5 per cent to 14 per cent of its employees.

Increase of wage rates were reported by 10 plants in the cotton-finishing industry. Two plants show an increase of 10 per cent to all employees; one shows 10 per cent increase to 98 per cent of its force; and five show a 10 per cent increase to 95 per cent of their employees.

Increases in the wage rates are reported by 6 plants in the paper-making industry. One plant reports an increase of 25 per cent to 90 per cent of the force; one an increase of 15 per cent to male and 10 per cent to female employees; one reports an increase of 20 per cent, but does not state the part of the force affected; and three report an increase of 10 per cent to all employees.

In the hosiery and underwear industry two establishments report an increase of 10 per cent to all employees and a third one 10 per cent to 25 per cent of its employees.

Two plants in the woolen industry granted a 10 per cent increase to all employees, while another granted 10 per cent to all except overseers.

One plant in car building and repairing reported 15 per cent increase to carmen and 10 per cent to foremen; one gave an increase of 2 cents per hour to organized men and 1½ cents per hour to unorganized men; a third reports 10 per cent increase to its clerks.

In the automobile industry one plant reports an increase of 10 per cent to all employees, and one reports an increase of .03 in the productive average hourly rate.

One establishment in the boot-and-shoe industry reports an increase of 10 per cent to 5 per cent of the force.

In the silk industry one plant reports an increase of 10 per cent to 50 per cent of its force.

In the cigar-manufacturing industry one plant reports an increase of 8 per cent to its salaried men—about 2 per cent of the force.

In leather manufacturing, one plant reports an increase of 10 per cent to 95 per cent of its employees.

EMPLOYMENT IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK.

The Bureau of Employment of the New York State Industrial Commission on December 1 issued the following statement concerning the labor market in New York:

A comparison of the figures of the work done by the State Bureau of Employment for the months of November and October, 1917, shows that there was a decided falling off along all the lines, not only in applications for work, but also in requests for help, and of placements. It is very interesting to note that the requests for help for the month of November, 1916, slightly exceeded the number of requests for help in the same month, 1917.

Publication throughout the country of an alleged labor shortage still continues, some of these reports being given out by reliable financial institutions. What is really meant in many of the references to shortage is "turnover." On account of the restlessness of workers in many places, this "turnover" has very largely increased in the past few months. This bureau has a report from one large plant in a neighboring State, where there has been a complete change in a force of several thousand workers in the period of one month. There is, at this time, of course, the usual restlessness among all classes of people, due to the fact that we are at war, and are beginning to realize that we are taking an important part in it. This is perfectly natural, and needs a little time for the cure. But, in addition to this, and contributing more largely to the restlessness than anything else, is the constant repetition of the shortage of labor and the frequent publication about abnormal earnings, especially in munition factories. A worker reading of this labor shortage, and these large earnings, gets restless, quits his present job, and goes hunting the elusive one paying very high wages. The different offices of the bureau throughout the

State report a total of several hundred seekers of jobs every day. Many of these refuse to take the available jobs at the wages offered. One branch of the State Bureau of Employment had available over 500 jewelry workers just now laid off by jewelry manufacturers. Notice to this effect was sent to 55 of the largest employers in Greater New York, the notice being sent to those who might be in need of workers with this sort of experience. Only 5 firms out of the 55 answered the communication.

It is time for more sanity on the part of both the employer and employee regarding the present labor conditions. Let us take the figures relating to the actual situation in New York State. The State census of 1915 showed a total population of 9,687,000. Calculating on the percentage basis used by the United States census, there are at the present time in the State of New York about 3,300,000 persons engaged in gainful occupations. On the other hand, from the figures given out, as well as from liberal estimates made, the Army, Navy, and the Red Cross have taken about 140,000 men out of this total of over 3,000,000 workers. Another heavy military draft will have to be made before the labor power of the State is materially affected.

Contributing also to this apparent shortage is the fact that we are confronted with the need in the next few months for a great number of workers to do the technical work coming into existence through the needs of the war. Industry in this country has not heretofore called for such a high number of technically trained men. To solve this need, it will be necessary for employers to get together and decide on the number of workers each one should train to supply this coming need. This should be done in each industrial community through the cooperation of employers needing any kind of technically trained men. The United States is just now teaching thousands of men how to shoot a gun and handle a bayonet. Is it not just as desirable to teach men in this emergency how to handle a tool and a machine? Many thousands of soldiers are at this time just as unfamiliar with the rifle and the bayonet as are thousands of workers with the tool and the machine. We have great numbers of men available for the training. Let us train these now and later absorb them into the industries needing them before we consider the use of large numbers of untrained women.

EMPLOYMENT IN HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT.

The following statement of the condition of employment in Hartford, Conn., as indicated by the work of the State Free Employment Office, is taken from the labor market letter for November, 1917, issued by that office. The work done during the month of November, 1917, the last month in the statistical year, shows a larger number of placements than in any other month during the history of the employment office.

The increase in business was due to the tremendous call for laborers, the number of men placed reaching the high total of 1,025. Twenty-three laborers helped to meet the street department's needs for men to handle ashes; 126 men to work on farms were used, compared with 42 in November, 1916. Little change was noted in

the requirements for culinary help over that of a year ago. For nursery work 41 men were hired.

There were 23 nationalities represented among those who secured positions. A slight falling off in the number of colored male applicants was noted, but the large number of colored women placed (80) gave the colored race third rank in the order of nationality. An unexpected decrease in the number of German applicants was observed, there being but 18, which is less than half of the customary number. The big drive for workers came in the early part of the month, falling off as colder weather approached. The average number of daily placements was 48.8, compared with 46 last month, and 38.4 in November, 1916.

VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND) IN OCTOBER, 1917.

The table below pertaining to the condition of employment in Great Britain and Ireland was compiled from a report published in the British Labor Gazette of November, 1917.

Few important changes relating to the number of employees in October, 1917, as compared with September, 1917, are shown. Seamen show an increase of 11.6 per cent in the number of men; tin plate, steel, and galvanized sheet trades show an increase of 8.2 per cent in the number of mills in operation; white dock and riverside labor shows a decrease of 7.2 per cent in the number of employees. In comparing October, 1917, with October, 1916, on this point, more important changes are seen. Dock and riverside labor shows a decrease of 28.3 per cent, seamen show a decrease of 23 per cent, food preparation shows an increase of 14 per cent, dressmaking and millinery a decrease of 12.2 per cent; while quarrying, tin plate, steel, and galvanized sheet trades, cotton trade, and cement trade, show a decline of more than 10 per cent each.

Earnings show more important changes in the periods under consideration. Comparing October, 1917, with September, 1917, the tailoring trades show an increase of 12 per cent, while food preparation shows an increase of 5.1 per cent. All the other industries show small increases in earnings of employees except the cement trade, which shows no change, and the linen trade, which shows a decrease of 1 per cent.

In comparing October, 1917, with October, 1916, on the question of earnings of employees more important changes are shown, all of them being increases, except the cotton trade which shows a decrease of 1.8 per cent. The linen trade shows the greatest increase—33.5

per cent. Tailoring shows an increase of 31.2 per cent. Eight trades show increases ranging from 11.5 per cent to 19.5 per cent, while the other trades reporting increases of earnings of employees show percentages ranging below 10 per cent.

VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND) IN OCTOBER, 1917, AS COMPARED WITH SEPTEMBER, 1917, AND OCTOBER, 1916.

[Compiled from figures in the Labor Gazette (London), November, 1917.]

Industries and basis of comparison.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in October, 1917, as compared with—		Industries and basis of comparison.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in October, 1917, as compared with—	
	Sep-tember, 1917.	Octo-ber, 1916.		Sep-tember, 1917.	Octo-ber, 1916.
Coal mining: Average number of days worked.....	-0.7	-4.9	Shirt and collar trade:		
Iron mining: Average number of days worked.....	-1.0	+2.1	Number of employees.....	-1.0	-8.8
Quarrying: Number of employees.	-0.2	-11.5	Earnings of employees.....	+0.5	+4.9
Pig iron: Number of furnaces in blast.....	+0.7	+3.1	Other clothing trades:		
Iron and steel works:			Dressmaking and millinery—		
Number of employees.....	+0.8	+8.0	Number of employees....	+2.0	-12.2
Number of shifts worked.....	+0.9	+8.2	Wholesale, mantle, costume, blouse, etc.—		
Engineering trades: Number of employees.....	-.03	-.29	Number of employees—		
Shipbuilding trades: Number of employees.....	-.08	-.12	London.....	-3.4	-3.2
Tinplate, steel and galvanized sheet trades: Number of mills in operation.....	+8.2	-11.9	Number of employees—		
Cotton trade:			Manchester.....	+1.8	-3.6
Number of employees.....	-0.3	-11.5	Number of employees—		
Earnings of employees.....	+1.0	-1.8	Glasgow.....	+2.6	-3.4
Woolen trade:			Corset trade: Number of employees.....	+1.3	-11.2
Number of employees.....	+0.1	-4.1	Building and construction of works: Number of employees....	-0.01	+0.1
Earnings of employees.....	+0.9	+13.4	Sawmilling and machining: Num-ber of employees.....	+0.2	(¹)
Worsted trade:			Brick trade:		
Number of employees.....	+0.6	-1.1	Number of employees.....	-1.1	-0.5
Earnings of employees.....	+0.6	+16.8	Earnings of employees.....	+1.9	+19.5
Hosiery trade:			Cement trade:		
Number of employees.....	-0.4	-4.8	Number of employees.....	+0.3	-10.6
Earnings of employees.....	+0.1	+8.7	Earnings of employees.....	(¹)	+5.6
Jute trade:			Printing, bookbinding, and paper trades:		
Number of employees.....	+0.1	+1.2	Printing trades—		
Earnings of employees.....	+0.1	+11.5	Number of employees re-ported by trade-unions..	+0.2	+0.3
Linen trade:			Number of employees re-ported by employers....	+0.3	-9.7
Number of employees.....	-0.2	+3.2	Earnings of employees re-ported by employers....	+3.6	+1.5
Earnings of employees.....	-1.0	+33.5	Paper trades: Number of em-ployees.....	+0.6	-1.5
Silk trade:			Bookbinding trades—		
Number of employees.....	-0.2	-2.1	Number of employees re-ported by trade-unions..	(¹)	-0.2
Earnings of employees.....	+1.6	+17.5	Number of employees re-ported by employers....	+0.9	-7.1
Carpet trade:			Earnings of employees re-ported by employers....	+1.6	+7.2
Number of employees.....	+1.8	-0.3	Pottery trades:		
Earnings of employees.....	+3.2	+17.9	Number of employees.....	-0.5	-1.8
Lace trade:			Earnings of employees.....	+3.1	+17.8
Number of employees.....	+0.5	-7.5	Glass trades:		
Earnings of employees.....	+1.3	+3.0	Number of employees.....	+0.1	-1.8
Bleaching, printing, dyeing and finishing:			Earnings of employees.....	+0.8	+7.4
Number of employees.....	-0.1	-4.0	Food preparation trades:		
Earnings of employees.....	+0.7	+14.4	Number of employees.....	+0.3	+14.0
Boot and shoe trade:			Earnings of employees.....	+5.1	+5.9
Number of employees.....	-0.2	-5.2	Dock and riverside labor: Num-ber of employees.....	-7.2	-28.3
Earnings of employees.....	+0.8	+6.5	Seamen: Number of employees....	+11.6	-23.0
Leather trades: Number of employees.....	-0.6	+0.2			
Tailoring trades:					
Number of employees.....	+2.1	+0.6			
Earnings of employees.....	+12.0	+31.2			

¹ No change.

The extent of unemployment in Great Britain during the five weeks ending October 12, 1917, is indicated by the following table, which shows the operations of the Ministry of Labor employment exchanges for that period:

INDIVIDUALS REGISTERED, VACANCIES NOTIFIED, AND VACANCIES FILLED IN THE 5 WEEKS ENDED OCT. 12, 1917.

A.—Insured trades.

Occupation group. ¹	Adults.						Juveniles.			
	Individuals registered during period.		Vacancies notified during period.		Vacancies filled during period.		Vacancies notified during period.		Vacancies filled during period.	
	Men.	Wom-en.	Men.	Wom-en.	Men.	Wom-en.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Building:										
Carpenters, joiners, etc....	3,729	360	4,510	81	2,444	73	74	1	62
Bricklayers.....	1,820	3,661	1,277	4	2
Masons.....	391	1	116	2	62	1	1	4	2
Plasterers.....	611	317	220	3	1
Painters, decorators, etc....	2,252	308	2,318	439	1,536	437	34	7	17	8
Plumbers, glaziers.....	522	1	582	271	1	42	26
Other skilled occupations...	53	4	71	14	12	1	5	1
Laborers.....	6,863	90	7,105	59	4,320	48	227	22	174	22
Works of construction.....	7,297	43	10,509	30	6,375	13	24	6	24	6
Sawmilling.....	1,097	1,742	970	1,509	505	1,454	257	148	231	143
Shipbuilding:										
Platers, riveters.....	1,153	19	1,563	10	705	7	18	36
Shipwrights.....	362	558	4	371	4	9	12
Laborers.....	2,161	350	1,821	136	1,391	137	115	8	119	8
Engineering:										
Molders.....	848	170	829	144	441	126	63	42	52	36
Smiths.....	699	92	604	135	330	118	25	14	24	11
Erectors, fitters, turners...	7,057	1,977	7,035	1,040	5,229	1,011	958	43	902	42
Metal machinists.....	2,596	8,497	2,036	8,662	1,340	8,237	705	338	680	302
Wiremen.....	710	75	744	157	460	123	72	11	69	11
Other skilled occupations...	2,738	5,913	2,489	2,950	1,437	3,234	321	245	267	210
Laborers.....	10,013	2,784	8,989	2,413	8,315	2,631	485	108	473	106
Construction of vehicles.....	837	220	615	201	340	242	67	15	54	14
Cabinetmaking, etc.....	222	122	207	64	60	51	25	14	19	8
Miscellaneous metal trades...	2,078	2,397	2,495	1,218	1,535	1,119	322	451	237	406
Precious metals, etc.....	139	293	230	281	88	257	88	107	68	95
Bricks and cement.....	74	49	176	66	94	36	10	8	13	4
Chemicals, etc.....	788	1,052	1,002	914	844	943	151	92	134	92
Rubber and waterproof goods...	222	991	164	682	136	695	56	83	48	78
Ammunition and explosives...	3,376	39,770	2,747	13,576	2,344	12,592	469	554	448	512
Leather, boots and shoes.....	254	325	240	146	113	90	69	34	62	25
Leather, excluding boots and shoes.....	192	743	150	293	78	234	41	123	30	95
Total.....	61,134	68,388	64,853	35,213	42,675	33,914	4,747	2,479	4,289	2,237
Total, males and females.	129,542	100,066	76,589	7,726	6,526
4 weeks ending Sept. 7, 1917....	108,899	79,942	63,887	5,518	4,815

¹ Occupations are grouped according to the industry with which they are mainly connected, and applicants are registered according to the work desired by them.

B.—Uninsured trades.

Occupation group. ¹	Adults.						Juvencils.			
	Individuals registered during period.		Vacancies notified during period.		Vacancies filled during period.		Vacancies notified during period.		Vacancies filled during period.	
	Men.	Wom-en.	Men.	Wom-en.	Men.	Wom-en.	Boys.	Girls.	Boys.	Girls.
Mining and quarrying.....	390	13	435	22	275	13	23	4	24	5
Textile:										
Cotton.....	501	2,114	484	799	194	484	123	139	90	94
Wool and worsted.....	205	398	261	188	143	147	63	87	50	58
Silk, flax, linen, etc.....	254	1,624	333	654	145	504	162	298	114	208
Dress:										
Tailors and tailoresses.....	161	818	139	518	21	395	43	211	28	164
Dressmakers and milliners.....		639		286		156		298		171
Seamstresses.....		1,204		601		490		248		193
Others.....	95	1,503	52	822	22	809	40	162	20	147
Conveyance of men, goods, etc.:										
On railways.....	203	361	530	231	284	186	144	4	114	1
On roads, seas, rivers, etc.....	10,601	3,825	7,143	1,327	4,911	1,124	2,941	1,581	2,081	1,047
Agriculture:										
Fruit, etc., pickers.....	284	1,418	167	800	266	860				
Others.....	805	1,576	861	1,346	309	896	205	77	139	71
Paper, prints, books and stationery.....	210	870	345	680	140	558	247	537	166	403
Wood, furniture, fittings, etc.....	17	98	98	74	16	70	118	77	88	66
Pottery and glass.....	117	271	228	121	60	81	77	74	73	46
Food, tobacco, drink, and lodging:										
Bread and biscuit, etc, makers.....	176	336	164	304	44	262	84	195	58	176
Waiters.....	116	2,126	99	1,076	48	816	11	55	7	44
Others (jam, cocoa, tobacco, etc.).....	166	891	351	851	166	738	108	272	82	238
Brushes, brooms, etc.....	6	37	22	55	9	18	19	41	16	22
Gas, water, electrical supply, and sanitary service.....	70	70	867	153	391	119	22		22	
Commercial and clerical.....	4,077	11,708	1,779	3,993	1,131	3,266	1,092	1,453	827	1,252
Domestic:										
Laundry and washing service.....		1,086		1,194		880		129		86
Private indoor servants.....		2,412		3,040		781		354		142
Other indoor servants.....	1,692	8,520	1,648	6,518	754	4,210	593	449	380	280
Charwomen, day girls, day servants.....		15,423		9,302		7,477		1,551		835
Others.....		487		275		207		37		25
General laborers.....	13,827	12,006	5,495	964	4,661	861	768	588	679	519
Shop assistants.....	552	4,427	340	828	110	483	238	820	134	570
Government, defense, and professional.....	1,330	6,078	888	1,415	602	1,343	167	378	144	328
All others.....	1,719	12,252	889	318	482	249	2,500	915	2,272	803
Total.....	37,574	94,591	23,618	38,755	15,184	28,483	9,788	11,034	7,608	7,994
Total, males and females.....	132,165		62,373		43,667		20,822		15,602	
4 weeks ending Sept. 7, 1917.....	108,134		50,348		35,693		16,723		13,059	
Casual employment (men only).....	225				1,838					

¹ Occupations are grouped according to the industry with which they are mainly connected and applicants are registered according to the work desired by them.

This table shows that, during the period, in the insured trades 129,542 adults registered for work—61,154 men and 68,388 women. There were 107,292 vacancies reported—64,853 men, 35,213 women, 4,747 boys, and 2,479 girls. The number of positions filled was 83,115—42,675 men, 33,914 women, 4,289 boys, and 2,237 girls. The occupation groups in which the largest numbers of positions were

filled by adults were: Ammunition and explosives, 14,936; laborers, engineering, 10,946; metal machinists, 9,577; works of construction, 6,388; erectors, fitters, and turners, 6,240; other skilled occupations, engineering, 4,671; laborers, building, 4,368.

In the uninsured trades there were 132,165 registrations—37,574 men and 94,591 women. The number of vacancies reported was 83,195—23,618 men, 38,755 women, 9,788 boys, and 11,034 girls. The total number of positions filled was 59,269—15,184 men, 28,483 women, 7,608 boys, and 7,994 girls. The occupation groups in the uninsured trades in which the largest numbers of positions were filled by adults were: Domestic service, 14,309; conveyance of men, goods, etc., 6,505; general laborers, 5,522; commercial and clerical, 4,397.

The totals show that the number of positions filled by adults in both the insured and the uninsured trades during the five weeks ending October 12, 1917, was 20.8 per cent greater than during the preceding four weeks. The number of positions filled by men was 29.7 per cent greater and by women 13.5 per cent greater. Much the largest number of women were employed in the manufacture of ammunition and explosives and in domestic service.

No comparison can be made of the number of registrations in the employment exchanges of Great Britain with the number of applications for work reported by the employment offices of the United States, owing to the differences in method of registering applicants. It is possible, however, to make a comparison of positions filled by the offices in the two countries. The figures show the following results:

	Number of offices.	Positions filled.		
		Total.	Average per day.	Average per day each office.
Great Britain.....	383	142,384	4,746	12.4
United States.....	138	99,723	3,989	28.9

The above figures are significant in view of the fact that a very large percentage, if not practically all, of the employment office work of Great Britain is done through the free employment exchanges, while in the United States but a very small proportion of the placements is made through the public employment offices, the much greater proportion being handled by the private employment agencies.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

THIRTY-SEVENTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF THE AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.

In some respects, chiefly owing to labor conditions as affected by the war, the thirty-seventh annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, held at Buffalo, November 12 to 24, 1917, inclusive, was the most important gathering of representatives of organized labor ever held in this country. For the first time in its history the federation was addressed by the President of the United States, excerpts from whose address are noted hereafter.

The report of the executive council showed an unusually successful year for the federation. At September 30, 1917, the total membership was 2,371,434, an increase of 14.4 per cent over the preceding year, affiliated with 26,761 local unions in 111 national and international unions and 845 local trade and Federal local unions. The treasurer reported receipts amounting to \$412,047.76 and expenditures amounting to \$402,440.40, with a cash balance on hand, September 30, 1917, of \$98,967.84. Five hundred and fifty-nine charters were issued to national and international, central, local trade, and Federal labor unions. In reporting the distribution of benefits to members it is explained that in every trade local unions have existed prior to the formation of the international union, and almost without exception they provide death, sick, out-of-work, etc., benefits for their members. In these instances benefit features have thus become identified and recognized as belonging to the jurisdiction of the local union. The amounts given hereafter as having been expended by the international unions on account of various benefits in the past year are, in the majority of cases, those paid directly by the internationals, and therefore the totals represent but a small proportion of the aggregate sum paid by trade-unions in the way of benefits. In most instances benefits paid by internationals are supplemental relief paid to members in addition to the benefits provided by their local unions. The benefits paid to members by affiliated organizations during the year were as follows:

Death benefits.....	\$3, 034, 586. 36
Death benefits, members' wives.....	77, 423. 50
Sick benefits.....	838, 606. 91
Unemployed benefits.....	30, 316. 43
Traveling benefits and tool insurance.....	4, 136. 71
Total.....	3, 985, 069. 91

Reports from 75 national and international organizations and from local unions directly affiliated with the American Federation of Labor show that there were 1,417 strikes in which 194,802 people were involved, the cost of these strikes being \$2,291,086.85, to which should be added \$139,846.26 given by unions for financial assistance to other unions. As a result of demands, 215,019 persons secured improved conditions; 897 strikes were won, 120 were compromised, 86 were lost, and 314 were pending at the close of the year.

In the report of the executive council much attention was devoted to the war, satisfaction being expressed at the representation which labor has been accorded on Government boards. Commenting upon the benefits to labor derived through agreements with the Government, which are set forth at length, the council said:

It is with great gratification we report specific developments showing that the American labor movement has secured the best agreements with the Government that have been secured in any other warring countries. The agreements and the relations between the workers and the American Government established a new period in the industrial world—a period in which the Government has sanctioned standards based upon principles of human welfare and has substituted these standards for the old system under which profits were paramount.

Further continuing its discussion of the war and its relation to labor the council urged the adoption of the following declarations as the basis upon which peace must be negotiated:

1. The combination of the free peoples of the world in a common covenant for genuine and practical cooperation to secure justice and therefore peace in relations between nations.
2. Governments derive their just power from the consent of the governed.
3. No political or economic restrictions meant to benefit some nations and to cripple or embarrass others.
4. No indemnities or reprisals based upon vindictive purposes or deliberate desire to injure, but to right manifest wrongs.
5. Recognition of the rights of small nations and of the principle "No people must be forced under sovereignty under which it does not wish to live."
6. No territorial changes or adjustment of power except in furtherance of the welfare of the peoples affected and in furtherance of world peace.

In addition to these basic principles which are based upon declarations of our President of these United States, there should be incorporated in the treaty that shall constitute the guide of nations in the new period and conditions into which we enter at the close of the war the following declarations, fundamental to the best interests of all nations and of vital importance to wage earners:

1. No article or commodity shall be shipped or delivered in international commerce in the production of which children under the age of 16 have been employed or permitted to work.

2. It shall be declared that the basic workday in industry and commerce shall not exceed eight hours.

3. Involuntary servitude shall not exist except as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted.

4. Establishment of trial by jury.

An extended account of the visit of the British labor commission to this country is included in the report of the council, which also devoted considerable space to mention of the organization of the American Alliance for Labor and Democracy. This subject was discussed in its various phases during an entire session on the seventh day of the convention, and following the debate that portion of the council's report recommending full indorsement of "the patriotic work which has been undertaken" by that organization was adopted by a vote of 21,602 to 402, being the only occasion on which there was a line up by vote on a war question. Some of the other matters touched upon in the executive council's report were labor legislation, compulsory arbitration laws, the eight-hour day, high cost of living, the President's commission to investigate labor conditions on the Pacific coast and in the Mountain region, distribution of labor, and women in industry.

The President of the United States addressed the federation at the opening session. In his remarks President Wilson dwelt upon labor's relation to the great struggle, suggesting that the duty of all Americans is to "stand together night and day until the job is finished." In part, the President said:

If we are true friends of freedom of our own or anybody else's, we will see that the power of this country and the productivity of this country is raised to its absolute maximum, and that absolutely nobody is allowed to stand in the way of it. When I say that nobody is allowed to stand in the way I do not mean that they shall be prevented by the power of the Government, but by the power of the American spirit. Our duty, if we are to do this great thing and show America to be what we believe her to be—the greatest hope and energy of the world—is to stand together night and day until the job is finished.

While we are fighting for freedom, we must see among other things that labor is free, and that means a number of interesting things. It means not only that we must do what we have declared our purpose to do, see that the conditions of labor are not rendered more onerous by the war, but also that we shall see to it that the instrumentalities by which the conditions of labor are improved are not blocked or checked.

Nobody has a right to stop the processes of labor until all the methods of conciliation and settlement have been exhausted. And I might as well say right here that I am not talking to you alone. You sometimes stop the courses of labor, but there are others who do the same; and I believe that I am speaking

from my own experience not only but from the experience of others when I say that you are reasonable in a larger number of cases than the capitalists.

Moreover, a settlement is always hard to avoid when the parties can be brought face to face. I can differ from a man much more radically when he is not in the room than I can when he is in the room, because then the awkward thing is he can come back at me and answer what I say. It is always dangerous for a man to have the floor entirely to himself. Therefore, we must insist in every instance that the parties come into each other's presence and there discuss the issues between them and not separately in places which have no communication with each other.

Fraternal delegates from the British Trades Union Congress, John Hill and Arthur Hayday, and fraternal delegate William Lodge, from the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, made addresses which were confined largely to war conditions among working classes of their respective countries. Maj. R. Réquin, member of the French general staff, and François Monod, chief of cabinet to the French High Commission in the United States, also spoke to the delegates, each dwelling upon the democratic organization of the French Army and the tendency toward democracy throughout French State organizations generally.

At the opening of the congress a telegram from Hon. W. B. Wilson, Secretary of the United States Department of Labor, was read as follows:

I regret that the pressure of public business prevents my being present at the Buffalo convention of the American Federation of Labor. Please permit me to express my highest appreciation and warmest thanks for the splendid work you have been and are doing for your country and the toiling masses in the hour of our Nation's need. As you know, I have been a trade unionist for nearly half a century. I have been in the heat of the struggle during all of that time and I thank God we have a country where we can struggle within the limitations and rules laid down by laws of our own making for our own guidance. In other countries they have not that privilege. And if the power of the kaiser is imposed upon us, those of us who have struggled during all these years will have lost that which we struggled for, and lost far more than that, the privilege of struggling in a legitimate and honest way. To me the one prime necessity is to lay aside our family quarrels until we have disposed of the enemy from without.

Convey to the convention my best wishes and my profound faith that its action at this time will demonstrate to the world that labor is awake to the necessity of preserving institutions which will enable it to work out its own destiny.

About 180 resolutions were offered, many referring to matters of organization, of "jurisdiction" between unions, of grievances, and of conditions of employment. A special committee was appointed by the convention to report upon the alleged scarcity of labor throughout the country. This committee's report, containing substances of reports from more than 100 central labor unions and international trade-unions, together with testimony from other sources,

was to the effect that there is an enormous reservoir of unemployed or partially employed labor in the country taken as a whole, while in certain localities and especially in certain war services there is more or less of a shortage.

Space can not be devoted to a summary or even mention of all the resolutions adopted by the convention, but reference to the subject matter of a few of the more important seems justified:

Resolutions Nos. 23 and 133 recommend pensions for public-school teachers in the District of Columbia.

Resolution No. 38 calls attention to "the reactionary attitude" of the Washington State Supreme Court in rendering a decision which it was declared amounted to a direction to all lower courts to enjoin all strikers who engage in picketing, peaceful or otherwise, singly or in groups, and which subjects all union members to liability for damages. In this connection the convention reaffirmed the following declaration made a year ago:

That any injunction dealing with the relationship of employer and employee, and based upon the dictum "labor is property," be held and absolutely treated as usurpation, and disregarded, let the consequences be what they may.

Resolutions Nos. 41 and 53 call for increases of wages of Government employees.

Resolution No. 48 calls for a reduction in nightwork in the Postal Service, and resolution No. 51 calls for "an equitable retirement law for superannuated Government employees."

Resolution No. 50 provides for organizing the Mexican workers in the United States.

Resolution No. 55 asks Congress to provide for the retention of the civil-service status of officers of unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor and their reinstatement in the service in the same position and at the same salary as they enjoyed when they left the Government service. The resolution was referred to the president of the American Federation of Labor for such action as seems to be appropriate to carry out its purpose.

Resolution No. 59 opposes the employment of children under 16 years of age.

Resolution No. 60 would bring all railroad employees under the provisions of the Adamson law.

Resolution No. 69 calls for abolition of private employment bureaus and the employment of labor through a national free employment bureau of the Department of Labor.¹ This was referred to the executive council with instructions to submit a report at the next conven-

¹ The creation of such a bureau is recommended in the report of the Secretary of Labor, noted on pp. 40 to 47.

tion, recommending how the purpose of the resolution may be effectuated.

Resolution No. 90 calls for a bill providing a 48-hour week for women and minors employed on products which enter into interstate commerce.

Resolution No. 113 demands the right of employees to a hearing and an appeal from the judgment of officials in cases involving demotion or dismissal.

Resolution No. 122 calls for the appointment of experienced women organizers for the purpose of bringing into the unions the women called to war work. This matter was referred to the executive council for appropriate action.

Resolution No. 128 favors home rule in the District of Columbia.

Resolution No. 140 favors the introduction in Congress of a bill establishing Government ownership of the street railways of the District of Columbia.

Resolution No. 141 reaffirms the federation's "consistent stand in favor of woman suffrage," and demands "that Congress * * * shall submit to the States the Federal woman suffrage amendment."

Resolution No. 144 places the federation "on record as being in favor of legislation or the entering into of treaties with our allies that will compel these aliens to bear arms in defense of our country, or to join the forces of their own country, or to be deported from our country."

Resolution No. 154, relating to the training of men for emergency war service, agreements as to their wages and hours, and to an emergency labor supply commission connected with the Department of Labor, was adopted upon approval by the committee on resolutions, which recommended that the matter be referred to the executive council with instruction to cooperate with the presidents of affiliated organizations in working out such problems, relative to the distribution of labor to be employed upon war material, as will arise, and confer with the Government in connection with the development of the national employment bureau.

Resolution No. 157 demands the amendment of the naturalization laws so that foreign-born loyal residents who have entered our Army or Navy shall be granted full citizenship.

Resolution No. 165 approves the resolution pending in Congress prohibiting the United States Supreme Court from declaring unconstitutional laws passed by Congress.

Resolution No. 173 protests against any proposed attempt to import Chinese coolies to work as farm hands or otherwise in America.

The committee on resolutions reported in favor of the daylight saving movement, and the convention approved.

The convention restated the federation's position with regard to vocational and prevocational training which "shall be for educational purposes only, and under no circumstances shall it be commercialized through the manufacture of products for sale."

The following is the text of resolution No. 175 adopted at the close of the convention:

Resolved, That we, the delegates to this thirty-seventh annual convention of the American Federation of Labor, herewith and hereby convey to the Hon. Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States, our profound appreciation of his presence upon the opening day of the convention and for the direct frankness with which he addressed us.

Resolved, That there is particular gratification in the fact that the first President of the United States to honor and inspire by his presence a convention of the American Federation of Labor should be so staunch a defender and so able an interpreter of the fundamental principles of practical democracy.

Resolved, That after sober, serious-minded consideration of the industrial problems arising as the result of our country's participation in the war for human rights and the perpetuation of democratic institutions, we pledge to him our undivided support in carrying the war to a successful conclusion, in supporting him in his efforts to apply the principles of democracy to the solution of the problems which arise in industry, and in conducting the war so that it shall be a war of the people, continued in defense of the fundamental institutions for human liberty transmitted to us by the forefathers of our country.

The committee on international relations submitted an extended report. One of its declarations was:

We concur in the action of the executive council in refusing to be led into a premature peace conference, whether emanating from Germany or originating with her sympathizers here or elsewhere, and congratulate them upon their sagacious judgment in refusing to participate or become involved in any schemes of this character.

The members of the executive council of the federation were re-elected, with one exception. Daniel J. Tobin was elected treasurer to succeed John B. Lennon.

President.....	Samuel Gompers.
First vice president.....	James Duncan.
Second vice president.....	James O'Connell
Third vice president.....	Joseph F. Valentine.
Fourth vice president.....	John R. Alpine.
Fifth vice president.....	H. B. Perham.
Sixth vice president.....	Frank Duffy.
Seventh vice president.....	William Green.
Eighth vice president.....	W. D. Mahon.
Treasurer.....	Daniel J. Tobin.
Secretary.....	Frank Morrison.

The next convention will be held at St. Paul, Minn., beginning the second Monday in June, 1918.

UNIONIZING EMPLOYEES UNDER CONTRACT DECLARED ILLEGAL
BY UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.

An important decision of the Supreme Court, rendered December 10, 1917, brings to an end a protracted discussion as to the rights of union organizers to carry on their work among workmen under contract to maintain nonunion conditions. The net effect appears to be that outside parties, whether or not they be organizers of labor unions, may be prevented from interfering with a contract of employment under which the employees have agreed not to join a union during the service, and the employer has agreed that the establishment shall be maintained as an open shop; and this although the contract of employment is not for a definite term, but at will. The case (*Hitchman Coal & Coke Co. v. Mitchell et al.*) arose out of conditions and occurrences in the coal mines of West Virginia, and has been in the courts since 1907, when a temporary restraining order was granted on the petition of the company, this order to be in force until the next regular term of court in January, 1908. After some postponements the defendants announced that they "did not desire to be heard in opposition to said motion so far as the granting of a temporary injunction at the time was concerned, and not consenting, but objecting thereto." A temporary injunction was thereupon immediately granted in the terms of the restraining order, and the next step was a motion on the part of the defendants to dissolve the injunction in so far as it restrained them, or any of them, from the use of argument, reason, and persuasion to induce the employees of the plaintiff company, or any of them, to become members of the United Mine Workers of America, or any of its subordinate branches; also in so far as it restrained them from interfering with or talking to employees or prospective employees, to secure their membership, in a peaceable and law-abiding manner, without intimidation, force, threat, violence, or coercion. Other points objected to were the prohibition against visiting the homes of plaintiff's employees or going near the premises of the plaintiff for the purpose of inducing workmen to become members of the union, and forbidding attempts at unionizing the plaintiff's mine, "if by unionizing is meant action on the part of the defendants to induce the employees of plaintiff to become members of the United Mine Workers of America by the use of argument, persuasion, and reason, unaccompanied by force, violence, coercion, or intimidation. This motion was argued on April 7, 1909, and was decided in September of the same year, Judge Dayton delivering the opinion, which is reported in 172 Federal Reporter, page 963. The injunction was continued without modification, the court pointing out that "The right of labor to organize

for mutual benefit and protection is as well settled and determined by law as the right of capital to organize for the same purpose." The solicitation of membership was also held legal as a general proposition, and the right of employees to leave service, whether individually or collectively. In the case in hand, however, it was held that the fact that there was no controversy between the plaintiff and his employees, that there was between them a contract to maintain an "open shop," and no strike was desired or threatened by them, removed this case from the field of controversy affecting the rights of members of unions. "It is not a case where the labor union has longer any legitimate interest or concern."

From this decision an appeal was taken to the circuit court of appeals, which was, however, dismissed in March, 1910, for want of jurisdiction. The case was then taken up before the district court for final hearing. A great bulk of evidence was submitted with extensive briefs, and Judge Dayton himself prepared an opinion going at great length into the history of labor organizations and the principles governing their activities. The opinion recited in detail the history of the difficulties which had attended the operation of the mine from its beginning, including the period when it was run as a closed union mine, during which time three strikes were called involving in all a loss of approximately \$50,000 and a full half year of working time. In this opinion the union was declared to be a combination in restraint of trade under the common-law doctrines of conspiracy; as well as a violation of the Sherman antitrust law, and the injunction was made perpetual (202 Fed. 512).

The case was then taken to the circuit court of appeals, where the decision of the court below was reversed and instructions were given to dismiss the suit (May, 1914, 214 Fed. 685); but this order was stayed pending an application to the Supreme Court of the United States for a writ of certiorari. The circuit court of appeals afterwards allowed an appeal, which the Supreme Court dismissed, but granted the writ of certiorari.

Mr. Justice Pitney delivered the opinion of the court, from which three justices dissented. The history of the case is given with considerable fullness, including an account of the original difficulties which led to the determination to operate the mine under nonunion conditions, with individual contracts with each employee, by which it was agreed that during his term of employment the mine should be nonunion, and that if he desired to join a union he was free to do so, though the action would amount to a termination of his contract of employment with the company. Similar agreements were made with reference to the Glendale mine, operated by the same management as the Hitchman; another mine a few miles north was

likewise run nonunion. The motives that led the United Mine Workers of America to desire especially the unionization of the mines in this so-called Panhandle district of West Virginia were developed by quotations from the minutes of the annual international convention of the U. M. W. A. held in January, 1907, at which time the method of unionizing that had been in use was approved, it being agreed that this field "would not be thoroughly organized except as the result of a successful strike." The methods of the organizer sent into the field were described, the plan being to secure agreements from individual miners that they would join the organization, the organizer at one time stating that "they had 60 men who had signed up or had agreed to join the organization at Hitchman, and that they were going to shut the mine down as soon as they got a few more men." It was known to this organizer, Hughes by name, that membership in the union was inconsistent with the terms of employment at the three mines named above, and a violation of express provisions of the contract of employment at the Hitchman and Glendale mines. Furthermore, "there is clear and uncontradicted evidence that he did not confine himself to mere persuasion, but resorted to deception and abuse." Such activities continued until it became possible to shut down the Richland mine, and it remained closed until a restraining order was allowed by the court, after which it immediately resumed operations as a nonunion mine.

In view of these facts and others cited, the court found that "if there be any practical distinction between organizing the miners and organizing the mine it has no application to this case. * * * The evidence shows, without any dispute, that defendants contemplated no halfway measures, but were bent on organizing the mine, the 'consent' of plaintiff to be procured through such a control of its employees as would render any further independent operation of the mine out of the question."

In view of the facts recited, which "are either admitted or else proved by clear and undisputed evidence and indubitable inferences therefrom," the question remained as to their legal consequences. It was first pointed out that there was no question that the plaintiff company "was acting within its legal rights in employing its men only upon terms of continuing nonmembership in the United Mine Workers of America. * * * The same liberty which enables men to form unions and through the union to enter into agreements with employers willing to agree, entitles other men to remain independent of the union and other employers to agree with them to employ no man who owes any allegiance or obligation to the union. * * * Plaintiff, having in the exercise of its undoubted rights established a working agreement between it and its employees, with the free as-

sent of the latter, is entitled to be protected in the enjoyment of the result of the status as in the enjoyment of any other legal right."

It was pointed out that the fact that the employment was at will and terminable by either party at any time was of no consequence, Mr. Justice Pitney quoting from an opinion in a somewhat earlier case, *Truax v. Raich* (239 U. S. 33), in which it was said that "the fact that employment is at the will of the parties, respectively, does not make it one at the will of others. * * * The unjustified interference of third persons is actionable, although the employment is at will."

An interesting basis for the views taken was then announced, citing various cases, among them that of *Jersey City Printing Co. v. Cassidy* (1903) (63 N. J. Eq. 759, 53 Atl. 230), in which Vice Chancellor Stevenson had adopted the term "probable expectancies" from an opinion recently delivered by Lord Ellenborough, of the House of Lords, suggesting "that the natural expectancy of employers in relation to the labor market, and the natural expectancy of merchants in respect to the merchandise market must be recognized to the same extent by courts of law and courts of equity." The language used by Mr. Justice Pitney is as follows:

In short, plaintiff was and is entitled to the good will of its employees precisely as a merchant is entitled to the good will of his customers, although they are under no obligation to continue to deal with him. The value of the relation lies in the reasonable probability that by properly treating its employees, and paying them fair wages, and avoiding reasonable grounds of complaint, it will be able to retain them in its employ, and to fill vacancies occurring from time to time by the employment of other men on the same terms. The pecuniary value of such reasonable probabilities is incalculably great, and is recognized by the law in a variety of relations. (Cases cited.)

Mr. Justice Pitney followed Judge Dayton in declaring that "The case involves no question of the rights of employees. Defendants have no agency for plaintiff's employees, nor do they assert any disagreement or grievance in their behalf. In fact, there is none; but, if there were, defendants could not, without agency, set up any rights that employees might have. The right of the latter to strike would not give to defendants the right to instigate a strike. The difference is fundamental."

Taking up then the claim of the unions to a right to a larger membership by solicitation, it was said that "The right is freely conceded, provided the objects of the union be proper and legitimate, which we assume to be true, in a general sense, with respect to the union here in question." This right was held to be subject, however, to coexisting rights of others, and as every Hitchman miner who agreed to join the union permitting his name to be entered upon the organizer's list was guilty of a breach of his contract, it was de-

terminated that the right of solicitation under such circumstances did not exist. A workman making such an agreement was said to have "acted a lie whenever he thereafter entered plaintiff's mine to work. Hughes not only connived at this, but must be deemed to have caused and procured it. * * * True, it is suggested that under the existing contract an employee was not called upon to leave plaintiff's employ until he actually joined the union, and that the evidence shows only an attempt by Hughes to induce the men to *agree* to join, but no attempt to induce them to violate their contract by failing to withdraw from plaintiff's employment after *actually joining*. But in a court of equity, which looks to the substance and essence of things and disregards matters of form and technical nicety, it is sufficient to say that to induce men to agree to join is but a mode of inducing them to join."

That the object in unionizing the men was not to enlarge the membership of the union so much as to secure the organization of the mines was maintained, since "without this, the new members would be added to the number of men competing for jobs in the organized districts, while nonunion men would take their places in the Panhandle mines. * * * In any aspect of the matter, it can not be said that defendants were pursuing their object by lawful means. The question of their intentions—of their bona fides—can not be ignored. It enters into the question of malice. * * * And we can not deem the proffered excuse to be a 'just cause or excuse,' where it is based, as in this case, upon an assertion of conflicting rights that are sought to be attained by unfair methods, and for the very purpose of interfering with plaintiff's rights, of which defendants have full notice. Another fundamental error in defendants' position consists in the assumption that all measures that may be resorted to are lawful if they are 'peaceable'—that is, if they stop short of physical violence, or coercion through fear of it. In our opinion, any violation of plaintiff's legal rights contrived by defendants for the purpose of inflicting damage, or having that as its necessary effect, is as plainly inhibited by the law as if it involved a breach of the peace. A combination to procure concerted breaches of contract by plaintiff's employees constitutes such a violation."

It was further said that if a strike should be called and a complete new gang of men required "there might be a reasonable apprehension of violence at the hands of the strikers and their sympathizers. The disordered condition of a mining town in time of strike is matter of common knowledge. It was this kind of intimidation, as well as that resulting from the large organized membership of the union, that defendants sought to exert upon plaintiff. * * * Upon all the facts, we are constrained to hold that the purpose entertained by de-

defendants to bring about a strike at plaintiff's mine in order to compel plaintiff, through fear of financial loss, to consent to the unionization of the mine as the lesser evil, was an unlawful purpose, and that the methods resorted to by Hughes—the inducing of employees to unite with the union in an effort to subvert the system of employment at the mine by concerted breaches of the contracts of employment known to be in force there, not to mention misrepresentation, deceptive statements, and threats of pecuniary loss communicated by Hughes to the men—were unlawful and malicious methods, and not to be justified as a fair exercise of the right to increase the membership of the union.”

It was held, therefore, that the plaintiff was entitled to relief by injunction as to the defendants who answered, while as to others named as defendants, but not served with process, the decree of the district court was held to be erroneous. The injunction as issued by Judge Dayton was sustained in so far as it restrains interfering or attempting to interfere with the company's employees for the purpose of unionizing the mine without its consent, or restrains the knowing and willful bringing about of the breaking of contracts by the plaintiff's employees, the trespassing on the grounds or premises of the plaintiff for the purpose of interfering therewith or hindering or obstructing its business, “or with the purpose of compelling or inducing, by threats, intimidation, violent or abusive language, or persuasion, any of plaintiff's employees to refuse or fail to perform their duties as such.” Similar interference with prospective employees was also restrained, except as to the use of the word “persuasion.”

Inasmuch as there was no evidence of picketing or acts of physical violence, an injunction against these forms of interference was held not to be warranted, and these were directed to be eliminated from the injunction, unless proof should be offered to the effect that their inclusion was warranted.

A dissenting opinion prepared by Mr. Justice Brandeis was concurred in by Mr. Justice Holmes and Mr. Justice Clarke. Much of the evidence adduced in the final hearing before the district court and reviewed in the opinion of the Supreme Court was declared not to be admissible, on the ground that there was no foundation for the conspiracy charged, though the majority opinion recited it as indicating the cooperation of the various agencies and the purpose of the specific activities engaged in. In his opinion Mr. Justice Brandeis took up some points in the opinion of Judge Dayton which were not touched upon in the majority opinion, as the alleged illegality of the United Mine Workers of America under the law of West Vir-

ginia and under the Federal antitrust act. He then reached the conclusion that there was no conspiracy proved against the West Virginia mines, nor was there any undertaking to unionize the plaintiff's mine without its consent, citing the testimony of a witness that "Under the constitution and methods of the United Mine Workers, a mine can not be organized without its consent, and it is not the object or purpose of the United Mine Workers to do so, and never has been." It was also maintained that there was no attempt to induce employees to violate their contracts, and that an agreement on the part of the employee to join the union did not call upon him to leave the plaintiff's employ. He also maintained that "merely persuading employees to leave the plaintiff's employ or not to enter it was not unlawful," and further that there was no "threat, violence, or intimidation."

When this suit was filed no right of the plaintiff had been infringed and there was no reasonable ground to believe that any of its rights would be interfered with; and, in my opinion, the circuit court of appeals properly reversed the decree of the district court, and directed that the bill be dismissed.

Another opinion which was delivered on the same day involved very similar principles, the plaintiff being the Eagle Glass & Manufacturing Co., in court for the purpose of the maintenance of an injunction granted against the American Plate Glass Workers' Union and its officers and members to prevent attempts to unionize its factories. The same court of appeals had passed upon this case as passed upon the Hitchman case, and it directed the dissolution of a temporary injunction that had been issued, and the dismissal of the bill, saying that "All the questions involved in the merits of the appeal were decided adversely to the appellee by this court in *Mitchell v. Hitchman Coal & Coke Co.* (214 Fed. 685)." For the same reasons as given in the Hitchman case, Justice Pitney ruled that the plaintiff was entitled to be protected by law from interference with the good-will of its employees, that outside parties were not interested and had no right to instigate a strike, and that the methods used were not lawful. The use of money by the organizer and threats to use dynamite were differences in circumstances, but otherwise the cases were practically identical. The decision of the court of appeals dissolving the temporary injunction was affirmed, on the ground of insufficient evidence to sustain the charges of the plaintiff, but in so far as a dismissal of the appeal had been directed, that decision was reversed, and the case remanded to the district court for further proceedings in conformity with the opinion of the Supreme Court. Here, also, Mr. Justice Brandeis dissented, Justices Holmes and Clarke joining in the dissent, the reasons being the same as those stated in the Hitchman case.

TRADE-UNIONS IN THE GOVERNMENT SERVICE.

The annual report of the Postmaster General for the fiscal year 1917 discusses at considerable length the history and policy of permitting organization of postal employees. He characterizes many of the grievances of organized postal employees as "imaginary," and declares that the service—citing a special instance—suffers generally from "too much unionism." The activities of postal employees in attempting to influence legislation in their behalf, he states, have resulted in embarrassment to the department. He reviews the history of the order of 1895 which attempted to prohibit, under penalty of dismissal, postal employees from visiting Washington for the purpose of influencing legislation; and of the later order of 1902, issued by President Roosevelt, forbidding all officers or employees of the United States, individually or through associations, to solicit an increase of pay, or to influence in any way matters of legislation. He favors the repeal of the provision of the act of August 24, 1912, which removed the above disabilities and permits postal employees to organize in so far as such organizations do not obligate their members to engage or assist in a strike against the United States. These organizations, he concludes, "are fast becoming a menace to public welfare and should no longer be tolerated."

The Postmaster General, on the other hand, recognizes the necessity for employees in private industries "to protect themselves against the selfishness of private employers;" but in the Government service the conditions are different, he contends. "The relations between the employee and the Government are always matters of public information, and the interests of the employee will always be protected by public sentiment. * * * [Employees] can always depend upon public opinion to insure their enjoyment of their full rights under their employment."

The following is quoted at length from the report in question:

The need for this cooperation was never greater than at the present time, when the Nation is engaged in a world war to maintain the right of liberty and self-government. The success of this war will depend, to a large extent, upon the closest cooperation. All kinds of business and of labor will be severely taxed, and each must make its own sacrifices. It will be necessary for the Nation to furnish its quota of men, and for capital and labor to produce, and to produce quickly, the funds, material, and services necessary for the successful conduct of the war. Great sacrifices will be required, not only of those who go to the front but of capital and of labor as well, and necessarily the interests of the individual must for the time being be subordinated to those of our country. Normal working conditions can not prevail, and the war can not be won nor the world rebuilt under normal conditions. Notwithstanding this fact, and at this critical period in our Nation's history,

it is regrettable to state that the organized postal employees are making many selfish demands and insisting that they shall not be required or permitted to work in excess of the usual number of hours; also that their salaries be permanently increased, although they are justly compensated, receiving more than three times as much as those fighting in the trenches, who must of necessity suffer the hardships of warfare and sacrifice their all if necessary.

Efforts of these organizations along other lines have been severely criticised by men in public life, as they attempt to control political as well as legislative matters and openly boast of the influence they claim to exert in the furtherance of their selfish interests.

An outside organization has during the past several years attempted to unionize Government employees, including those in the Postal Service, and a large number of postal employees are now affiliated with it, and others soon will be, notwithstanding the fact that such affiliation is believed to be contrary to the act of August 24, 1912. The advisability of permitting Government employees to affiliate with an outside organization and use the strike and boycott as a last resort to enforce their demands is seriously questioned by those interested in the public welfare.

Such a policy, however, does not gainsay the propriety of permitting organization for the social benefit of postal employees. The Secretary continues in the following vein:

They should be permitted to form organizations for their social and mutual welfare, appear before committees of Congress when requested, and give any information concerning the Postal Service of which they may have knowledge; but the forming of organizations for other purposes, such as interfering with the discipline and administration of the service, and the control of the election of persons nominated for public office, or enactment of legislation for their selfish interests and not for the welfare of the public, should cease. If by combining Government employees are enabled to unduly influence Members of Congress and others seeking election to public office, the situation will naturally arise, if it has not already arisen, where Congress will be unduly influenced by such combinations, the appropriations for the salaries of such employees will be greatly increased, and economic provision for the conduct of the service impossible. The conduct of these organizations at this time is incompatible with the principles of civil service and with good administration of the Postal Service. They are fast becoming a menace to public welfare and should no longer be tolerated or condoned.

LOSS OF MEMBERSHIP OF AUSTRIAN TRADE-UNIONS DURING THE WAR.¹

The following statistics illustrate the effect of mobilization upon the membership of Austrian trade-unions. They are reproduced by Vorwärts of September 5 from the report of the Central Federation of Austrian Social-Democratic Trade-Unions for 1916.

¹The Labour Gazette, London, November, 1917, p. 403.

Year.	Membership at end of year.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.
1913.....	372, 216	42, 979	415, 195
1914.....	210, 421	30, 260	240, 681
1915.....	151, 424	25, 689	177, 113
1916.....	138, 789	28, 148	166, 937

The loss in membership between 1913 and 1916, taking both sexes together, has been continuous throughout the period covered by these figures, and by the end of 1916 amounted to 248,258, or 60 per cent. The number of male members during the same period declined by 233,427, or 63 per cent, principally owing to men being called up for military service.

By the end of 1915 the number of unionists called up was about 200,000. Since then the extension of military age (in 1916) from 42 to 50 has caused the loss of several thousand members, while the constant enrollment of younger men and the comparatively few discharges from the army have also combined to reduce the membership. The writer in *Vorwärts* expresses the opinion that the number of men called to the colors far exceeds the loss of membership.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND SOLDIERS' PENSIONS.

FIRST ANNUAL REPORT OF UNITED STATES EMPLOYEES' COMPENSATION COMMISSION.

On September 7, 1916, Congress enacted a law providing compensation for all civil employees of the United States suffering injuries while in the performance of their duties. This law superseded the limited workmen's compensation act of 1908 and its subsequent amendments. An Employees' Compensation Commission was also created to administer the new law, except that the administration of the act was transferred to the Governor of the Panama Canal and to the Alaska Engineering Commission as regards employees under their respective jurisdictions.

The commission has just issued its first annual report reviewing the operation of the law from the date of its enactment (Sept. 7, 1916) to June 30, 1917.

PROVISIONS OF THE ACT.

The Federal act provides compensation for all personal injuries causing death or resulting in disability of more than three days and covers all civil employees of the United States. The compensation scale is 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of wages, the maximum wage, for the purpose of computing compensation, being limited to \$100 a month. Payments continue during disability and in fatal cases until the death or remarriage of the widow. Reasonable medical and hospital services are furnished in addition to compensation benefits. Such services are provided by the United States medical officers and hospitals wherever practicable. The burden of payment is borne by the Federal Government through a special compensation fund appropriated by Congress.

COMPENSATION COSTS.

The amount paid out in compensation benefits and medical services during the period covered by the report was as follows: United States Employees' Compensation Commission, \$122,806.07; Panama Canal, \$29,806.73; Alaska Engineering Commission, \$7,317.31; total, \$159,930.11. The amount paid out by the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, however, does not show the total losses

incurred during this period. It covers only those cases which had been approved by the commission at the close of the period and includes only two of the 121 fatal cases reported.

INJURIES REPORTED.

The injuries reported to the commission during the period September 7, 1916, to June 30, 1917, numbered 7,832, of which 121 were deaths, 5,697 resulted in disability of over three days, 718 resulted in disability of from one to three days, while the remainder include those in which no time was lost except on the day of injury and those in which the particulars received were not sufficiently complete for tabulation.

The following table shows the tabulatable injuries for each department and establishment classified by extent of disability:

NUMBER OF INJURIES BY EXTENT OF DISABILITY FOR EACH DEPARTMENT OR ESTABLISHMENT, SEPT. 7, 1916, TO JUNE 30, 1917.

Department or establishment.	Total injuries.	Number of injuries resulting in—					
		Death.	Temporary disability of—				
			Over 1 to 3 days.	Over 3 to 7 days.	Over 7 to 14 days.	Over 14 to 28 days.	Over 28 days.
Agriculture.....	105	5	18	20	21	21	18
Commerce.....	110	14	12	24	21	19	20
Interior.....	229	9	22	28	58	62	50
Justice.....	15
Labor.....	15
Navy.....	2,805	20	195	650	671	763	506
Post Office.....	1,289	24	108	203	282	275	397
State.....	1
Treasury.....	222	4	60	53	32	37	36
War.....	1,704	43	299	385	316	363	298
Government Printing Office.....	57	1	2	14	18	10	12
Other.....	1	1
Total, all departments.....	16,536	121	718	1,380	1,422	1,552	1,343
Panama Canal.....	1,209	31	397	279	213	167	122

¹ This total does not agree with the sum of the items shown.
² Including 5 cases of permanent partial disability.

The commission has ruled that occupational diseases as well as accidents are compensable under the Federal law. In view of this fact it is of interest to note that of 6,760 injuries tabulated as to nature of injury nearly 60 were of this character. This number included 23 cases of lead poisoning, 2 of which were fatal; 16 cases of dermatitis and conjunctivitis from fulminate of mercury; 2 cases of brass poisoning; 2 cases of acid poisoning from acid fumes; 2 cases of creosote poisoning; and single cases of dermatitis from acid, and from benzine irritation, bronchitis and laryngitis from acid fumes, dermatitis from cement water, eczema of the hands from potassium

bichromate, temporary paralysis of the right arm from use of the pneumatic hammer, zinc poisoning from fumes given off in welding galvanized iron, and typhoid fever from handling typhoid bacilli in making vaccine.

ACCIDENT PREVENTION.

The law makes no specific provision for accident-prevention work. The commission, however, has recommended that the act be amended to provide for such prevention work and for the appointment of a safety expert. At the outset the commission recognized the necessity of having knowledge of the conditions under which the work in Government establishments was carried on. As the best means to this end the commission accepted the services of the National Safety Council and of the National Museum of Safety for a safety survey of the various Government establishments with the cooperation of the various Government departments and an advisory committee representing them. As a result of this survey safety engineers for all the important navy yards and arsenals have been appointed by the Secretaries of the Navy and of War.

COST OF COMPENSATION DURING 1915-16.

The cost of compensation for the injuries occurring during the period of July 1, 1915, to September 6, 1917, under the act of May 30, 1908, and its amendments, as administered by the Department of Labor and later by the Employees' Compensation Commission, was \$518,017.46, paid on account of 3,859 injuries.

The following table shows the number of injuries reported, number of claims paid, and amount of compensation paid, by departments, during this period:

NUMBER OF INJURIES REPORTED AND NUMBER AND AMOUNT OF CLAIMS PAID ON ACCOUNT OF INJURIES OCCURRING DURING PERIOD JULY 1, 1915, TO SEPT. 6, 1917.

Department or establishment.	Number of injuries reported.	Number of claims paid.	Amount of compensation paid.
Agriculture.....	268	104	\$24,184.16
Commerce.....	163	73	17,681.07
Interior.....	455	207	32,051.41
Justice.....			
Labor.....	14		
Navy.....	3,295	2,089	265,874.11
Post Office.....	1,504	14	1,199.10
State.....			
Treasury.....	326	106	20,932.51
War.....	2,395	1,220	151,576.59
Government Printing Office.....	86	55	5,468.51
Miscellaneous.....	3	1	50.00
Total.....	8,509	3,859	1,518,017.46

¹ Does not include compensation paid to employees of Panama Canal (\$67,036.92) and to employees of Post Office Department (\$134,500 appropriated) for fiscal year ending June 30, 1916.

The figures showing number of claims approved are not in agreement in several tables of the report, and other errors of detail are apparent. These discrepancies are in part explainable as clerical or typographical errors which were not discovered in the proof reading; in other instances they can not be so explained.

MILITARY PENSION SYSTEMS IN THE UNITED STATES AND FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

The entrance of the United States into the war immediately brought into relief the inadequacy of our military pension system and the necessity of supplementing existing legislation with a compensation and insurance system adequate to provide for our disabled military forces and take care of their dependents during their period of service. The existing pension laws in the United States were confessedly inadequate to meet the situation developed by the war, and the urgent need for such legislation made an extensive investigation of the systems adopted in foreign countries impossible. To meet the immediate demand for information a compilation and analysis of the pension and insurance laws in operation in some of the more important countries¹ was prepared and published by the Children's Bureau² of the United States Department of Labor.

This report briefly summarizes the military pension systems in effect in the several countries and includes the governmental provisions relating to military pay, separation allowances, disability pensions, survivors' or dependents' pensions, retirement and service pensions, insurance, special relief measures, and methods of administration. Each country is treated separately and the various pension schedules of each nation are reproduced with brief descriptions and connotations. Comparative schedules, however, of the several more important provisions have been collated.

Three types of pension laws, says the report, were in existence in the United States at the time of our entrance into the war.³

A. The retirement systems of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Coast Guard provide, with certain marked limitations, for officers

¹ United States, Australia, Austria, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Russia, South Africa, and Switzerland.

² United States Department of Labor, Children's Bureau. Governmental provisions in the United States and foreign countries for members of the military forces and their dependents (bureau publication No. 28), 1917, 237 pp.

³ Since then Congress has enacted a new military compensation and insurance law (Oct. 6, 1917) to meet the situation developed by the war. This law, in providing for separation allowances, compensation in case of disability or death, and in offering Government insurance opportunities, marks a notable departure from the former pension policy of the Government. For a brief summary and text of the new law (Public, No. 90) see MONTHLY REVIEW for November, 1917, pp. 183 to 199.

and men of the regular establishment. Except in the Coast Guard, no allowance is made for an enlisted man who has served less than 30 years.

B. The general pension laws administered by the Pension Bureau of the Department of the Interior, which provide for military and naval officers disabled in the Federal service who are not a part of the regular establishment and, therefore, not eligible for retirement, for enlisted men who are disabled in the Federal service, and for the dependents of officers and enlisted men who are killed in the Federal service, except that widows of officers and enlisted men in the Coast Guard are not eligible for pension.

C. The service-pension laws, also administered by the Pension Bureau, which provide for men who had served in specified wars for specific periods, and for their widows and children, without reference to any disability incurred in the service or to the cause of the death.

A comparison of these American laws with the provisions for soldiers' dependents in certain European countries and British dominions, says the report, reveals various tendencies or types of provision with which American laws have not hitherto been concerned. These tendencies are summarized in the report as follows:¹

Possibly the most striking difference from American laws is the almost universal provision for separation allowances paid to the families of men on active service. In Great Britain and the British colonies and in Russia an allowance is paid to the wife and children of every enlisted man; in many cases this varies according to the size of the family. Elsewhere such an allowance is granted only in case of need or, as in Holland, the amount is graded not by the size of the family but by its economic status. In addition, Great Britain and the British colonies require allotment to the wife of part of the pay of the enlisted man. Alone among the belligerent countries studied the United States is making no allowance whatever for the families of men in active service; the United States permits but does not require an allotment of pay.²

The amounts of the separation allowances vary widely. In Germany, for example, the stated allowance is frankly a minimum, which may be increased for each community at the discretion of the local distributive agencies. In fact, it is frequently supplemented from State or municipal funds. Germany also grades the amount of the income which a family may possess without forfeiting separation allowance according to the type of community in which the family lives. Russia gives the case equivalent or specified food staples and their cash value is determined for each Province separately. Practically every country has increased the amount of its allowances since the outbreak of the war. * * *

Both France and Germany have since the war extended to all wives who are receiving separation allowances the maternity benefits already provided in the German system of social insurance and in France the maternity benefit law of

¹ Pages 26 to 33.

² The new military pension act of Oct. 6, 1917, makes provision for separation allowances, and also requires an allotment of pay.

1913. In Great Britain a new provision of the national insurance act requires that every man who joins the army or navy be insured and his premiums deducted from his pay. His wife then becomes eligible for a maternity benefit of 30 shillings (\$7.30) for each confinement. In other ways also new efforts are everywhere evident to adapt the allowances and pensions to the actual needs of the situation. For example, the illegitimate child who has been acknowledged by the father is now almost everywhere entitled to benefits, and Great Britain gives the unmarried wife a separation allowance in certain circumstances, provided the man chooses to allot his pay to her. In Germany the unmarried woman is entitled to a maternity benefit if she has already an illegitimate child on whose behalf she is drawing an allowance.

England has recently provided that special allowances may be paid to enable men to meet financial obligations contracted before they entered the service for the following purposes: To buy furniture or real property, to pay rent or taxes, to meet payments on loans or mortgages, or to pay for children's schooling. The need for financial assistance must be proved and the amount paid by the State can not exceed £104 (\$506.12) per annum.

Several countries permit the pension for a partially disabled man or for the widow of a man killed in service to be commuted into a lump-sum payment, provided the pensioner can satisfy the authorities that this will better serve his needs. Great Britain, again, and certain of the colonies, make substantial variations in the pensions allowed for total disability according to the number of the man's dependents.

Practically all countries vary their disability pensions and pensions to widows and other dependents of men killed in service according to the military rank of the man. Switzerland, on the other hand, has related her military compensation to her civil insurance scheme and bases the allowances for disability and death on the man's civil earnings up to specified maxima. England allows a disabled man or a widow to receive, under certain conditions, a pension based not on disability but on prewar income. If the enlisted man can prove, for example, that the disability pension, including the additional allowance for children, and his present average earnings amount to less than his prewar earnings, he may be granted a pension which, together with his average earnings, will equal but not exceed his prewar earnings up to a maximum of 50 shillings (\$12.17) a week, and half of any prewar earnings between 50 and 100 shillings (\$12.17 and \$24.33) a week.

The new pension law in Italy and the proposed law in France include detailed categories of injuries which aim to measure the extent of disability not in terms of military usefulness but in terms of civil usefulness and earning power. Fine adjustments of the relation of the injury to the individual's occupation have not been attempted even in Germany. And nowhere are the pensions granted to a disabled man lowered or withdrawn if he is able to increase his earning power by special training.

Various methods have been devised to provide for a disabled man and his dependents during his reeducation. In Canada the disabled man can be re-enlisted for industrial training, and during the period of training his family receives allotted pay and separation allowances. Great Britain and Italy enforce plans for reeducation by withholding their part of the pension from a man who refuses to undergo treatment or training certified as necessary for his interest.

The ages up to which children are eligible to pensions or separation allowances vary from 12 years for separation allowances in Italy to 21 years in Great

Britain for pensions to children of soldiers or sailors if they are attending school or receiving technical training. Austria regards as the "normal age" at which allowances and pensions are withdrawn 16 years for boys and 14 years for girls. Germany grants separation allowances only until 15 but pensions until 18 years of age. The new Italian law gives pensions also until 18.

In general, parents or brothers and sisters, are eligible for benefits only in the absence of both widow and children, and only if the parents or brothers and sisters were dependent upon the deceased. Italy's new law includes a generous definition of this dependency and Great Britain has added to the dependency provision the alternative that the deceased son or brother was apprenticed at a recognized trade or receiving training at school or artied for a profession.

The report does not, except in case of the United States, show the number of pensioners in each country nor does it cover the question of cost. Of value also in this connection would be a comparison of the military with the industrial compensation systems, supplemented with a study of the governmental provisions in each country for rehabilitating and reeducating disabled men, industrial as well as military.

OPERATION OF THE PENNSYLVANIA STATE WORKMEN'S INSURANCE FUND IN 1916.

The report of the Pennsylvania State workmen's insurance fund¹ for the year ending December 31, 1916, the first year of its operation, shows a gross income of \$885,876.27, of which \$785,006.59 represents net premiums, a deduction of \$100,869.68 being made for merit rating. It is estimated that the premium income during 1917 will amount to \$1,250,000. The expenses of the fund, which are paid by the State until July 1, 1919, were, in 1916, \$138,125.24, or 17.6 per cent of the annual premium income.

If this 17.6 per cent ratio had been calculated on the 100 per cent rate basis charged by the casualty companies instead of on a premium income 10 per cent less, for the same business, the annual expense ratio would have been 15.8 per cent. The expense cost is lower than shown by any other compensation insurance carrier operating in Pennsylvania.²

According to the report the claim cost, including the setting up of reserves to carry claims to maturity based on estimates set forth by the Pennsylvania insurance department, produces a loss ratio of 69.4 per cent, and it is suggested that if this claim cost is computed on 100 per cent premium rates, as explained in the expense ratio, the result would be a loss ratio of 62.4 per cent, which may be compared

¹ Annual report of the State Workmen's Insurance Fund of Pennsylvania. Harrisburg, [1917]. 29 pp.

² The average expense ratio, as taken from the official records of the insurance department, was 35.8 per cent.

to 61.3 per cent given as the average loss ratio for all carriers of compensation in the State during 1916.

Taking up the matter of claims, the report states that 9,407 accident reports were received by the claims division during 1916. Of these 111 were death cases, 40 dismemberment cases, and 2,596 compensable cases other than death and dismemberment. Of the 111 death claims, 64 (58.6 per cent) involved dependency; of the 40 dismemberment cases, 26 (65 per cent) involved loss of eye. At the end of the year compensation was being paid to 12 dependent parents, 37 widows, and 92 orphan children. Reserves to carry all outstanding claims to maturity were set aside and charged against the year's income.

Owing to an increase in the number of accidents and the resulting addition in the cost for insurance, it was found that the initial rates approved by the insurance department were inadequate and on August 1, 1917, an increase of rates became effective to apply to policies written after that date.

The present rate differential of 10 per cent below casualty company rates remains in force and employers insured in the State fund also have the privilege of participating in dividends from profits. With the continuation of such advantages, even with the increase in rates, policyholders in the State fund obtain their insurance much cheaper than it can be obtained from casualty companies.

The State fund declared a dividend on the business transacted in 1916, according to the report, 10 per cent being paid to the group of coal-mine risks and 15 per cent to the group containing all other risks. The amount of this dividend was \$93,162.04.

The following statement shows the income and disbursements for 1916:

INCOME.		
Premiums written		\$764, 386. 13
Premium audit additions.....	\$163, 510. 32	
Premium audit reductions.....	42, 020. 18	
	-----	121, 490. 14

		885, 876. 27
Merit rating reductions.....	109, 949. 65	
Merit rating increases.....	9, 079. 97	
	-----	100, 869. 68

		785, 006. 59
Interest received and accrued on investments and de- posits		18, 526. 31
Total		803, 532. 90
		=====

DISBURSEMENTS.

Losses paid:	
Medical	\$51, 447. 20
Temporary total	66, 315. 33
Dismemberment	5, 805. 67
Temporary partial	364. 87
Death dependency	9, 362. 75
Funeral expenses	6, 840. 63
	\$140, 136. 45
Miscellaneous claim expenses	47. 53
Reinsurance and return premiums	19, 929. 86
Reserves:	
Losses	\$404, 825. 55
Reinsurance	2, 377. 35
Catastrophe	68, 049. 84
	475, 252. 74
Dividends paid to policyholders	93, 162. 04
Surplus to policyholders	75, 004. 28
	803, 532. 90

CONSTITUTIONALITY OF COMPENSATION LAW OF HAWAII.¹

A very unexpected check in the movement for the establishment of the system of compensation for industrial injuries appears in a decision by Judge Ashford of the circuit court for the first circuit of the Territory of Hawaii, this decision being rendered on June 28, 1917. The case was an action for damages brought by one Carroll against the Marconi Wireless Telegraph Co. of America, the complaint charging negligence. The company demurred to the complaint on the ground that the compensation law of the Territory (Act 221 of the Laws of 1915) swept away rights of action previously existing, and substituted a single method for the determination of all cases of this nature. The matter of constitutionality was at once brought into question, and by this court decided adversely, with considerable reference to the position taken by the Court of Appeals of New York in the Ives case (201 N. Y. 271, 94 N. E. 431).

Judge Ashford had withheld judgment until the decision rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States on March 6, 1917, upholding the constitutionality of the compensation laws of Iowa, New York, and Washington, and consideration was given to the opinions in those cases. The court concluded, however, that inasmuch as the Hawaiian statute was a compulsory law, seeking to "wipe out and utterly abolish rights of action by an employee falling

¹ After this summary of the decision declaring the law unconstitutional was put into type information was received that the decision had been reversed. See note on p. 166.

within any of the classes covered by the statute, to recover damages for injuries arising in the course of his employment," there should be such hearings as would fairly and fully compensate for the loss of the right of trial by jury—provisions which the court held to be lacking. It also regarded as distinctly vicious in character the fact that no compensation is to be allowed for an injury caused by the employee's willful intention to injure himself or another, or by his intoxication, while there was no provision such as appears in many of the State statutes permitting suit for damages where the injury results from the willful or malicious act of the employer or his representative. This was held to be a patent inequality, "which might bear heavily to the prejudice of employees."

The chief emphasis, however, was placed upon the lack of due process of law in the matter of determination of claims. The act provides that where compensation is not settled by agreement, either party may apply for the formation of a committee of arbitration, one member of which is to be nominated by each of the two parties, the third to be a member of the industrial accident board. This committee is to "make such inquiries and investigations as it shall deem necessary. The hearings of the committee, unless otherwise agreed, shall be held in the city or town where the injury occurred if within this Territory;" and a copy of the award is to be immediately sent to the parties, and is enforceable unless a claim for review is filed by either party within 10 days after the sending of the award. The court held that the omission of any provision for the sending of notice to both parties of the holding of the hearings was fatal, and that it was not enough that there might be notice given, but that it must be absolutely safeguarded that notice shall be given. It was not regarded as sufficient that the parties were to be called upon to nominate members of the committee, nor that they were to be given the privilege of demanding a review. "Neither the committee of arbitration nor the board can have a constitutional jurisdiction to proceed to a hearing and award without notice to the parties involved, and this notice must, of necessity, be provided for in the statute itself."

It is of interest to observe that the Hawaiian statute follows with practical exactness the provisions of the laws of Iowa and Massachusetts in regard to the formation of boards of arbitration and the assumption that the holding of hearings involves notice to the parties, without formal provision requiring that such notice be given. The New York law requires the commission to "order a hearing," and it may require the claimant to appear before an arbitration committee, but does not in form direct notice to both parties to appear.

The law of Michigan on this point is practically identical with that of Hawaii, while that of Oklahoma varies but little, notice not being specifically provided for, but the presence of both parties being assumed. On the other hand, the laws of a number of States are specific in directing that notice shall be given to both parties of any hearing that is to be held. It is evident that in a number of important States no difficulty has been found in the procedure under a law of corresponding or identical provisions with the provision adopted by the Hawaiian legislature, but that in any case the point involved is not a substantive one, and is easily remedied by legislative action, the principle of compensation being in no way affected.

Another point raised by the court was that of the right of trial by jury, which was held to be guaranteed to the citizens of Hawaii by a specific Federal constitutional provision, which "can not be ignored or set aside by the Territorial legislature." It was held not to be sufficient that there might be an appeal to the circuit court, with a trial by jury, following the award, since the matters that might be carried to the court on such an appeal were limited, and the jury would not have authority to determine the amount of damages or compensation to be allowed the claimant, citing the Ives case, and distinguishing the situation existing in Hawaii from that in New York, whose law is said to be in this respect substantially similar to that of Hawaii, and which was upheld as constitutional by the Supreme Court. While the discussion on this point is much less extensive than that relating to the matter of notice, it is obvious that the defect, if held to be such by the higher court, will be much more difficult to remedy by new legislation, inasmuch as it involves one of the important factors in procedure under compensation laws.

It is interesting to observe the authorities on which this decision rests and to note that difficulties are discovered which the courts of the States have overlooked in determining their laws constitutional. The case will doubtless be passed upon as promptly as possible by the supreme court of the Territory, and students of the compensation situation will await with interest the opinion of this court in its choice of precedents and interpretation of the law to be followed.

NOTE.

A letter from the secretary of the Industrial Accident Board, city and county of Honolulu, under date of December 20, 1917, states that a decision of the Supreme Court of the Territory of Hawaii handed down on December 11 reversed the decision summarized above, and pronounced the Territorial workmen's compensation act of Hawaii constitutional and valid.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND DISEASES.

UNIFORM STANDARDS FOR THE MANUFACTURE AND TRANSPORTATION OF HIGH EXPLOSIVES.¹

BY LEWIS T. BRYANT, COMMISSIONER OF LABOR, NEW JERSEY.

In discussing the subject assigned to me, I shall treat the matter of transportation of high explosives before that of their manufacture.

The necessity for uniform standards in the matter of transportation has been so apparent that the problem seems to have been solved in an excellent manner through the regulations issued by the Interstate Commerce Commission. These regulations have been formulated upon the recommendations of the Bureau for the Transportation of Explosives and Inflammable Material.

Before these recommendations were made by the bureau, consultations were held with the manufacturers and shippers of high explosives and the railroads which were to perform the transportation service. Types of containers have been specifically designated for both solids and liquids and the directions for shipment outlined in minute detail.

Naturally the jurisdiction of the Interstate Commerce Commission confines itself exclusively to shipments between States, and the matter of intrastate shipment is not included within their regulations. I understand, however, that in most States the transportation companies have insisted upon a compliance with rules substantially the same as those insisted upon by the Interstate Commerce Commission.

Previous to this action on the part of the Interstate Commerce Commission, which was encouraged by the Institute of Makers of Explosives, the different States enacted regulations which were framed without regard to the requirements in other States, and as a consequence were entirely lacking in uniformity. This state of affairs made it necessary for shippers to be conversant with a variety of laws, which were at times confusing and difficult to observe.

If it should be thought advisable to enact State regulations for the transportation upon railroads of high explosives and other

¹ This paper was prepared for the Government section of the sixth congress of the National Safety Council, held in New York in September, 1917, but was not read.

dangerous articles, the regulations provided by the Interstate Commerce Commission might well form the basis for such standards. As these rules are based on a long period of experience and have been tested for that mission, it is unlikely that State officials with a limited range of experience could add much to their value.

These regulations provide a list of shipping names by which explosives are known, which must be plainly marked on the package, and a number of articles by reason of their highly explosive nature are forbidden transportation. Certainly any State code should give rules of this character due consideration.

The question of transporting high explosives through the public highways of the State in either horse-drawn or motor vehicles is a matter which should receive careful consideration. The very great carelessness has been known to exist in this type of transportation and the lives of pedestrians, as well as those directly concerned in transporting the material, have been in danger.

The act relating to the manufacture, keeping, storage, transportation, and sale of explosives which was enacted by the New Jersey Legislature of 1917 has handled this question of transportation in the following manner:

Every vehicle while carrying explosives upon the public highway shall display upon an erect pole at the front end of such vehicle and at such height that it shall be visible from all directions a red flag with the word "DANGER" printed, stamped, or sewed thereon, in white letters at least 6 inches in height, or in lieu of such flag the words "EXPLOSIVES, DANGEROUS," must be painted or attached to the ends and each side of such vehicle in white letters on black background at least 6 inches in height.

It shall be unlawful for any person in charge of a vehicle containing explosives to smoke in, upon, or near such vehicle, to drive the vehicle while intoxicated, to drive the vehicle in a careless or reckless manner, or to load or unload such vehicle in a careless or reckless manner, or to make unnecessary stops.

It shall be unlawful for any person to place or carry, or cause to be placed or carried, any metal tool or other similar piece of metal in the bed or body of a vehicle containing explosives, unless contained in a box or other container approved by the commissioner of labor or his authorized representatives.

It shall be unlawful for any person to place or carry, or cause to be placed or carried, in the bed or body of any vehicle containing explosives, any exploders, detonators, blasting caps or other similar explosive material, or to carry in or upon such vehicle any matches or any other flame-producing device, except safety matches carried in a container approved by the commissioner of labor or his authorized representatives.

This provision of the law was decided upon after consultation with experts in the matter of such transportation, and there can seem to be no reason why, if these general provisions are necessary for safe practice in New Jersey, they should not be included in the laws of other States.

The matter of the manufacture of high explosives would seem to resolve itself into two general problems—first, the safety of the operatives employed within the plant, and secondly, the safety of those inhabiting the surroundings adjacent to the plant or points within fixed limits either from the public highways or steam railroads or trolley cars.

The protection of the operatives within the plant is twofold—first, from such injuries to health as may arise from contact with poisonous or unhealthful processes incident to the manufacture, and, secondly, from explosions. The matter of the interior regulations was taken up jointly by the representatives of the departments of labor of Pennsylvania and New Jersey. The leading authorities were consulted and a number of exhaustive conferences were held.

Joint regulations were formulated by these two States which were intended to fully protect the workers concerned in the industry. Due consideration was given to the best obtainable safe practices in vogue both in this country and abroad, and the regulations adopted included the best obtainable methods of safeguarding the operative from both the danger to health and the explosive hazard incident to the occupation.

Generally speaking, the matter of the health hazard is largely that of insuring the artificial removal of injurious fumes and dust and the maintenance of proper ventilation, the furnishing of adequate washing facilities, including showers, suitable toilet accommodations, separate and distinct eating places, and medical examination. The workers should receive most careful instruction as to the dangers incident to the employment, and great care should be taken against coming in contact with the absorbent poisons.

The joint regulations referred to include among their provisions the following:

Where the amount of gases or vapors produced in rooms or buildings is considered dangerous to health by the inspection department, an efficient exhaust system, constructed in accordance with plans which must be filed with the department of labor, must be installed and kept operating during all times when persons are employed therein.

Warning signs must be posted on the premises which strictly prohibit workmen from entering buildings where harmful fumes exist or tanks or confined spaces which are not entirely clear of these fumes. In case an entrance into buildings or tanks is necessary the worker must wear an approved helmet, and in addition he must wear a life line, which shall be in the hands of an assistant stationed outside of the tank. Employees who have been exposed to fumes and who feel sick shall report their condition to their foreman and shall be given proper treatment without delay. The responsibility for complying with these regulations shall rest upon the foreman or other official designated for that purpose by the management of the concern.

For every 50 persons or less employed in a plant where workers are exposed to harmful vapors there shall be present at all times at least two persons who are trained or competent to apply means of resuscitation by the prone pressure or Schaefer method or by mechanical devices that must be approved by the department of labor. A sufficient number of helmets of an approved type shall be kept at each plant, where they shall be available for use by every employee who has occasion to enter places where there may be asphyxiating or poisonous gases or fumes or vapors.

All employees who are required to wear helmets shall be thoroughly instructed in the use of such apparatus and shall be physically examined by a licensed physician at least once in 90 days or after absence from work due to either sickness or accident.

Bathing facilities shall be provided and clean clothing shall be kept on hand, so that all persons who are exposed to dangerous vapors and who are required by the regulations to bathe and change their clothing shall have opportunity to do so.

The regulations call for the installation of approved methods of dust and fume removal in all cases where they exist to an injurious extent.

As the very nature of the material handled makes it absolutely impossible to obviate all of the dangers incident to explosions, the most obvious and practical safeguard is to insist upon having the work performed by the minimum number of operatives necessary for a given process, so that in the event of an explosion, just as few workers as possible may be affected. These working units should be so separated by fireproof inclosures that in the event of a fire or explosion the danger will not be transmitted to another unit of the plant.

The storage of explosives is a subject of great importance in the regulations, which require that all buildings in which any quantity of explosives is manufactured, handled, used, or temporarily stored shall be classed as explosive buildings. Buildings used for storage for periods exceeding 48 hours shall be classed as magazines.

Explosive material not in process of manufacture but which is being used in loading detonators, timing, or priming caps, or any like manufacturing process, shall not be stored in workrooms wherein people are employed, except under the following conditions:

Where the quantity used for the day's run does not exceed 100 pounds, it is permissible to keep in closely covered receptacles that necessary for the day's run.

Where the quantity necessary for the day's run exceeds 100 pounds, only 100 pounds may be stored in the workroom at one time and then only at a place where it shall be suitably protected from careless or promiscuous handling. Additional supplies shall be brought from the magazine as needed.

Explosive materials being used in the above processes may be stored in any quantity in storage buildings erected for that purpose, provided that such buildings are not used for other purposes and are located at proper distances

from other buildings wherein persons are employed, or are protected by suitable natural or artificial barricades.

Fulminates or materials of like sensibility shall be brought into workrooms in quantities sufficient only for concurrent use.

Where materials giving off explosive vapors are stored in separated or underground storage systems outside of buildings, they may be distributed by approved types of pipe lines throughout buildings where persons are employed.

The openings which are necessary in fire-resisting walls shall be provided with an approved type of fire-resisting door, and these doors shall be kept closed at all times except when in use to permit passage from one room or portion of a plant to the other. On all such doors shall be posted an approved danger sign, warning against the carrying of matches or an open light and prohibiting the entrance of any but authorized employees or others designated by the manager or superintendent.

The number of employees in such rooms or portions of a plant shall be kept to the minimum compatible with the process of manufacture. This can be obtained by building additional fire-resisting portions or by the addition of small-unit buildings.

No open or naked lights, such as lanterns, stoves, torches, etc., shall be allowed in such rooms or portions of plants, except for necessary repairs under proper supervision. Watchmen or others using portable lights shall be supplied with vapor-proof lights.

Such rooms or portions of plants shall be lighted (if artificial light is needed) by means of an electric system installed in conduit or in lead-incased cables, with vapor-proof keyless lamps. All switches or fuses shall be located on the outsides of such rooms or buildings in a protected place. This installation must conform to the underwriters' standards. It would be preferable and desirable if all lights could be projected by reflectors into rooms from the outside through properly located windows. The employment of electric motors other than those of a sparkless induction type in the above rooms is forbidden.

All rooms or portions of explosives plants in which they are used, generated, or found and wherein persons are employed, shall be separated from other rooms or portions of plants by fire-resisting walls or partitions, pierced with such openings only as are necessary, except when such rooms or portions of plants consist of separate buildings. In such places where the material which is being used or which produces the explosive vapors does not exceed 10 gallons in quantity and is confined in approved safety cans, it will be necessary only to prohibit the use of naked flames, to post approved danger signs and to observe safe practices. Materials which give off explosive vapors shall not be stored in workrooms wherein people are employed, unless such materials are stored in closed containers properly vented. Where practical, safety cans should be used.

No employee shall have in his possession at any time in any explosives plant, any match or other flame-producing device, unless he is authorized in writing by the superintendent to do so, in which case approved safety matches only may be used.

A search for matches shall be made by some authorized person at least twice a week at irregular intervals. The finding of a match or other flame-producing device on the person of an employee not authorized to have matches in his possession shall be cause for instant dismissal.

All employees handling loose explosives or working in or around explosives manufacturing buildings where there is a possibility of explosion by the attrition of metals shall wear powder shoes or rubber-soled shoes (without iron or steel nails). No pockets shall be allowed in the clothing worn in any such

work except one skeleton pocket in either the coat or trousers. Neither iron nor steel buttons, nor other metal attachments, shall be allowed on such clothes, nor shall metal objects, such as knives, keys, etc., be allowed to be carried in the pockets.

All explosives buildings shall be provided at each entrance with suitable devices whereby the shoes of all those persons entering such buildings can be cleaned and all persons before entering such buildings shall wipe or clean their shoes.

Where explosives are carried from one building to another, as for instance from magazines to workrooms, employees carrying such explosives shall not be allowed to follow each other closely but must allow an interval of at least one minute in time or 100 feet in distance. This does not apply to such explosives as trinitrotoluol and smokeless powder.

The workrooms, when desirable, shall be heated by an approved system of steam, indirect hot air radiation, or hot water. The temperature of steam shall not exceed 120° C. The radiators shall be at least 1 inch distant from all wooden walls or other inflammable material and shall be attached in such a manner that they can be easily inspected and cleaned.

In addition to the foregoing regulations the following shall be observed with reference to the manufacture and handling of the respective substances enumerated below:

Nitroglycerin and dynamite.—The floor of the nitrator house shall either be covered with sheet lead or the nitrator shall stand in a suitable lead pan, drained to the drowning tank. All seams and joints shall be lead burned in a careful manner, so that there may be no crevices in which nitroglycerin will lodge. The floor shall be so constructed as to be readily washed and drained. New lead floor covering shall be extended by means of a round corner at least 3 inches up each side wall, thus making a sanitary corner.

At least two reserve thermometers shall be kept in each nitrator house for use in case of emergency.

No iron valves shall be allowed on any nitroglycerin pipe lines, except quick opening nitrator plug cocks, which shall be frequently lubricated. All other valves or stopcocks on nitroglycerin pipe lines or containers shall be of stoneware, earthenware, hard rubber, or wood and shall be kept clean and greased. No repairs shall be made during nitration except in emergencies. Nitrators shall be provided with coils for cooling by cold water, or brine or other suitable means and also with means for both mechanical and compressed air agitation. No more than two nitrators shall be installed and not more than three employees shall be regularly employed in any one building. During nitration the attention of one employee shall be given wholly to observing the thermometer and running in the glycerine. No charge of nitroglycerin shall be sent to the separator house in a hose line while nitrating operations are in process.

Each nitrator house shall be provided with a drowning tank which shall have a water capacity of at least five times the amount of the acid charges and be provided with an air agitator and water inlet. All valves shall be located conveniently for the operators in case of emergency.

The floor of the separator house shall be covered with sheet lead with all seams and joints lead burned in a careful manner, so that there may be no crevices in which nitroglycerin will lodge.

Not more than two charges shall be allowed in a separator house at one time. The maximum number of regular employees in each separate house shall be three. All stopcocks or valves on nitroglycerin pipe lines or containers

shall be of stoneware, earthenware, hard rubber, or wood. Catch boxes shall be provided on all outlets for wash water, and inside catch boxes, if used, shall be cleaned weekly, at times when there is no charge of nitroglycerin in the separator house. No charge shall be sent from the separator house at a time when a charge is being received. Each separating tank shall be cleaned and the floors washed daily at the conclusion of the day's work. It is permitted to carry on the three operations of nitration, separation, and neutralization in one building, provided that the regulations prescribed for each individual operation are complied with.

Not more than 12 employees shall be allowed inside of a cordite blending house. Not more than 10 employees shall be allowed inside of a gravity type of blending house. By gravity type is meant that type of blending house in which the entire charge of powder is deposited in a bin or funnel situated one or more floors above the packing floor. Not more than eight employees shall be allowed inside of a bin type of blending house, i. e., a house in which all operations are carried on on one floor.

The following materials are classed as explosives: Black powder (all varieties), dry guncotton, nitroglycerin, dynamite, chlorates, fulminates, fireworks, and any other of their compounds or mixtures or any other substances which are subject to explosion by the aid of shock, friction, spark, or heat. Smokeless powder, wet guncotton, and wet nitrostarch, while not properly classed with the above as explosives, are also included in these regulations.

While the summary of regulations for the manufacture of explosives covers a wide range of activities it is not entirely complete, and the department of labor of New Jersey, in conjunction with the department of labor of Pennsylvania, is now engaged in accumulating data with reference to providing rules for the safe loading of high-explosive shells and the filling of timing fuses and primers for high-explosive shells and Russian and American shrapnel. A catastrophe that occurred recently in a New Jersey factory where primers were being loaded caused the loss of life of 13 people, and emphasizes the urgent necessity for safety standards on this subject, while a disaster of far-reaching consequences involving a greater loss of life in a Pennsylvania plant forms additional evidences of the necessity for action.

Before the act relating to the manufacture, keeping, storage, transportation, and sale of explosives was introduced at the 1917 session of the New Jersey Legislature, Mr. Hershfield, the sponsor for the bill, directed communications to each State in the Union asking advice as to the best type of legislation for this subject. If the replies received by him could be read at this conference, no better argument for a uniform law could be produced. There seemed to be no comprehensive legislation on the subject, and the provisions of the act which was finally drafted were largely pioneer in their character.

It defines with great detail the distances at which buildings, railways, and highways may be located with reference to definite amounts of explosives. It sets forth accurate definitions of build-

ings, railways, and highways and includes a quantity and distance table.

It defines the maximum amount of explosives which may be stored and sets forth the allowances made for properly constructed barricades. It gives in detail the type of containers which must be used for keeping or storing explosives in any place within the State, and provides for properly labeling the containers. The character of magazines in which explosives may be kept or stored is indicated, and it is required that there be conspicuously posted thereon the words, "Magazine—explosives—dangerous."

It prohibits the storing of blasting caps or other detonating or fulminating caps or detonators in any magazine in which other explosives are kept or stored. Reports must be made to the commissioner of labor setting forth—first, location of magazine; second, contents of magazine; and, third, distance from the nearest buildings, railroads, and highways.

A certificate of compliance must be secured from the commissioner of labor, which may be canceled by him where future conditions do not constitute compliance with the law.

The law provides a license fee and requires an inspection at least once during each year of every licensed factory or magazine. It covers the transportation by vehicles on the public highways as already set forth, provides for penalties for noncompliance, and makes the following exemptions:

(A) For the regular military or naval forces of the United States or its allies, and the duly authorized militia of any State or Territory thereof, and the police or fire departments of this State, or of any municipality or county within this State, providing the same are acting within their official capacity and in the performance of their duties.

(B) To explosives being transported upon vessels or railroad cars in conformity with the regulations adopted by the Interstate Commerce Commission; the transportation or use of blasting explosives for agricultural purposes in quantities not exceeding 200 pounds at any one time, and of any explosives in quantities not exceeding 5 pounds at any one time.

It includes a provision relative to municipal ordinances and prohibits the use of liquor or matches within a plant. It provides for an indemnity bond to cover final judgments that may be rendered for damages caused to persons and property by reason of any explosion at the factory of the explosives there manufactured or handled, and permits the waiving of this bond where ability to discharge such judgment is set forth to the satisfaction of the department of banking and insurance.

The necessity of covering these various provisions in a uniform manner would seem apparent to any student of the situation, and has certainly been recognized by the Institute of the Makers of Explosives. This institute has prepared a suggested State law which includes regulations covering the matters which have been discussed in this paper. Their pamphlet on rules covering the handling, storing, delivering, and shipping of explosives would also seem to be an appeal for uniformity in this class of regulations, and the type of standard storage magazine recommended by them is a further argument for uniformity.

The trend of the working policy of modern industry in dealing with its living units is to substitute the imperative and unsatisfactory spirit that commands for the modern and more enlightened spirit of cooperation, and thus spur the worker on to his greatest effort by persuasion rather than to demand it through fear or force. Some of the larger and better managed industrial corporations who were dissatisfied with working results achieved under the old system, after investigating the possible cause of discontent and friction prevailing throughout their working jurisdiction, arrived at the conclusion that the constant migration of labor that severely handicaps the profitable operation of business, is due in a large measure to unsuitable working surroundings, affecting either the safety, health, or comfort of employees.

Experience has demonstrated that a plant labor policy is a failure when it is not broad enough to comprehend the physical needs of the human body and its dependence on warmth, cleanliness, and food, and furthermore does not inspire confidence in the worker that the employment is provided with the largest measure of safety to life and limb that the nature of it will permit.

The advantages that accrue to industry, when a careful and intelligent investigation of working processes has been made the basis for establishing shop rules are manifold and are now fairly understood by an ever-widening circle of intelligent employers, who condemn practices that cause exposure to physical risk.

The physical care of the worker in the light of scientific research is not a proper subject for speculation or experiment, and, indeed, it is now ranked as a matter of incalculable importance, and is placed in the same business columns with the question of wages, hours of labor, and production.

The nature of certain portions of the explosive industry requires a man of more robust health than other occupations, and alcoholism makes a worker far more susceptible to the dangers of the industry.

To my mind the very nature of the industry under discussion makes it necessary for the enactment of regulations which are pre-

pared by those having a more technical knowledge of the subject than could properly be expected from the average legislator.

There can be no doubt but that the conscientious manufacturer who is anxious to properly safeguard the life, limb, health, and comfort of his workers would welcome uniform legislation along these lines, and certainly the unscrupulous or indifferent employer should not be permitted to expose his workers to unhealthful or dangerous conditions.

On the whole, I believe the best way to reach the situation would be the adoption of a uniform standard of regulations by the several States or a Federal act covering the situation.

ACCIDENT HAZARD OF THE INEXPERIENCED MAN IN THE STEEL INDUSTRY.

The question as to whether the "green" man in industry is more subject to accident than the experienced man is of particular interest at the present time when great industrial activity has resulted in so many new men being taken on in certain industries, notably the iron and steel industry. The question is also one of very great practical importance, since, if it is true that the green man is peculiarly liable to accident, efforts toward accident prevention must take this factor into account.

The limited data so far available indicate that the inexperienced worker does have a very high accident rate, and that the rate tends to decrease with his degree of experience. But the available information is so limited as to warrant the separate publication of the following table as a contribution to the subject. This table, taken from a forthcoming report of this bureau on accidents in the iron and steel industry, shows the accident frequency rates per 1,000 300-day workers, classified according to their amount of experience. The data are for a group of 3,527 300-day workers in a large steel plant during a period of 5 months.

ACCIDENT FREQUENCY RATES ACCORDING TO LENGTH OF SERVICE.

[Data for a large steel plant January to May, 1916.]

Length of service.	Number of 300-day workers.	Number of accidents.	Accident frequency rates.
Six months and under.....	512	57	111.3
Over 6 months to 1 year.....	278	29	104.3
Over 1 year to 3 years.....	357	31	86.8
Over 3 to 5 years.....	637	27	42.4
Over 5 to 10 years.....	814	16	19.7
Over 10 to 15 years.....	470	4	8.5
Over 15 years.....	459	0
Total.....	3,527	164	46.5

The striking feature of the above table is the steady and marked decline in the accident rate with increasing experience. It is altogether probable that even more striking results would appear if the first year could be more finely subdivided.

The table has one feature which should render its testimony of greater weight than that of most compilations on this subject. Ordinarily the only available information is the number of accidents to men of a given degree of experience. The fact that there were, in a given period, 10 accidents to men of less than 6 months' employment, while to those employed 6 months to 1 year there were 5, suggests that there was a greater hazard to those of shorter experience. It does not prove the point, however, as in order to do that it is necessary to know how much labor was performed by men of each degree of experience; in other words, to know the number of 300-day workers. In the preparation of the above table this information was available with sufficient accuracy to give entirely reliable results for purposes of comparison.

Finally, it is to be noted that other factors besides inexperience may account in part for the showing made in the above rates. For example, workers of more than 15 years' service are to a considerable extent, for one reason and another, those who have passed out of the extreme danger zones. Their immunity is probably much more due to that fact than to the degree of their experience.

But, after all necessary qualifications, it would appear that beyond question this table does establish a strong probability that the inexperienced man has high hazard on account of his inexperience. In such case it becomes little less than criminal that he should be thrust, as has been too often the custom, into those occupations in their nature extra dangerous.

SECOND INDUSTRIAL SAFETY CONGRESS OF NEW YORK STATE.

The second annual New York State Industrial Congress was held at Syracuse on December 3, 4, 5, and 6, 1917, approximately 400 delegates being in attendance. The papers and discussions at this congress revealed the earnest desire of those taking part to develop in every practical way the means at hand to promote the safety and conserve the lives of workers in industry. While not the announced purpose of the congress, it may be said that it did, in fact, emphasize several important principles suggested by the addresses given and intended to safeguard the interests of labor as well as promote industry and operate for the universal benefit of employers. Thus the congress emphasized the necessity for unceasing vigilance against

relaxation of the standards of law enforcement during the period of war pressure; for the standardization and better classification of accident statistics; for the standardization of the workmen's compensation laws and of the general labor laws of all the States; for taking steps to prepare industry for the assimilation of returned soldiers; for a more complete enforcement of the factory laws in all the States, and in New York State in particular; and it approved labor's program for a universal eight-hour day.

It is not possible to give synopses of all the addresses and discussions presented at the congress. This article is therefore confined to a statement showing some of the points brought out which may be helpful to employers and workers in preventing the huge toll of lives annually sacrificed on the altar of carelessness and negligence.

At the opening session on Monday, December 3, five addresses were given. Carlton A. Chase, president of the Associated Manufacturers and Merchants of New York State, declared that wounded and disabled men will need special places in industry after the war, and urged the congress to indorse some plan by which industry may be able to assimilate them.

James P. Holland, president of the New York State Federation of Labor, brought greetings from the 800,000 wage earners of the State who he said are heartily in accord with the purposes of the industrial safety congress and are firm in their desire to help win the war.

Dr. Royal Meeker, Commissioner of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, pointed out that the foundation of all safety work is the proper recording of industrial accidents, classifying them by causes and showing the time losses resulting from the injuries suffered. We should not confine our efforts to the standardization of accident statistics. Our compensation laws should be standardized, as well as our labor laws in general. It ought not to be possible for one State to defeat labor legislation on the plea that it would drive industry to a neighboring State. Labor laws should be enacted for the same purposes in all the States. Each State must adjust its laws to its peculiar necessities, but there should be no great variations. There are laws on the books now of which people have never heard simply because they are not enforced. There is no attempt to enforce them. It seems to me one of the most important duties of the labor unions of this country is to see to it that the labor laws on the statute books are enforced. Much new labor legislation is needed, but a little enforcement will accomplish more than much legislation. Better enforcement of existing labor laws will do more than any other one thing to allay industrial unrest, which is the most serious menace at present to the proper prosecution of the war.

"Industrial education as a safety measure" was the subject of an address by Marian K. Clark, chief investigator, Bureau of Industries and Immigration, who emphasized the importance of teaching English to foreign laborers as a means of decreasing the enormous loss of life through accidents.

Marcus A. Dow, general safety agent, New York Central lines, who spoke on the "Rule of reason," uttered a warning against permitting the deterioration of man power as the result of the possible breakdown of safety standards in industry owing to the pressure of war. "I have no sympathy with the thought that because lives are necessarily sacrificed for a righteous cause on the battlefield other lives must be unnecessarily sacrificed at home through neglect. Surely, the killing of 22,000 and the seriously injuring of half a million industrial workers in the country each year is a serious drain on the man power of the Nation at a time when every available man is needed for the work that is to be done."

Lucian W. Chaney, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, called attention to the responsibility of employers in promoting the safety movement, the emphasis heretofore being placed on the employees' share of the responsibility. This attitude has caused the movement to suffer. Engineering revision, which includes the widest possible application of engineering skill, was declared to be essential in order to discover the lurking dangers which lead to death and devise remedies to prevent them. This engineering revision refers to the location and relation of buildings, the organization of transportation facilities, the design of every mechanical contrivance, the provision of safe means of access to every point to which a workman would ever be required to go, the adequate covering of every moving part, even where no one is expected to go since the exigencies of operation can never be foreseen, provision against the falling of objects from elevations, and a thousand other items to which safety men may think they have given full attention but which the record of accidents prove have not yet been adequately considered.

"How the employer feels about it" was presented by J. E. Eaton, general manager of the General Electric Co., Schenectady, N. Y., who read a paper prepared by J. A. Smith, general superintendent of the same company. He spoke of the favorable attitude of employers toward accident prevention as evidenced by the safeguards thrown about machinery and apparatus, and the elimination of dangerous conditions and practices. He said it was a patriotic duty now to prevent shop accidents.

At the Tuesday afternoon session David S. Beyer, of the Liberty Mutual Insurance Association, Boston, Mass., led the discussion by

stating that both mechanical devices and education are equally important for safety; Frank Ward, safety engineer, Otis Elevator Co., gave the experience of his company with shop committees in conducting a safety campaign, and indorsed the plan; Earl B. Morgan, of the Norton Co., Worcester, Mass., spoke on "Accident prevention in its relation to labor turnover," stating that intelligent, well-planned, and efficient safety organizations will do much to reduce the constant change in personnel of employees. At the evening session A. J. Van Brunt, director of safety education, Public Service Corporation of New Jersey, gave it as his opinion that accidents never "just happen," but are caused by carelessness on somebody's part, each having behind it a train of logical, connected circumstances to account for its occurrence. Safety first means the elimination of nearly 95 per cent of these causal circumstances. This statement was made following the quoting of statistics by A. H. Young, of the American Museum of Safety, showing that 1,500,000 wage earners were seriously injured and 22,000 were killed in industrial accidents in America last year. This carelessness on the part of workmen, however, was attributed by John M. O'Haulon, editor of Legislative News, to the conditions surrounding them in their work, existing because of the negligence and irresponsibility of employers who "scorn all modern ideas and devices of safety and sanitation, accepting them only under compulsion and regarding them ultimately as hindrances to speedy production."

A tribute to organized labor for what it has accomplished in its campaign for improving conditions was paid by Arthur E. Holder, legislative agent, American Federation of Labor, who concluded his address with the following recipes for the reduction of the accident ratio:

Increase the age for child workers.

Shorten the working hours.

Hold regular conferences in shop offices, composed of supervisors and workmen, for the purpose of discussing shop affairs from a standpoint of safety.

Post Davy Crockett's slogan on the bulletin board, "Be sure you are right, then go ahead."

Ask public-school teachers to give lessons on "Safety."

Request pastors to call attention to the subject from their pulpits.

Encourage moving-picture producers to feature as many safety ideas as possible.

Another good old slogan: "Better be safe than sorry."

More factory inspectors, and a better selection. An efficient inspector should be a properly trained man.

Urge employers personally to examine proposed speeding-up schemes before installing them.

Urge Congress to collect national accident data to cover every industry in every State.

An important feature of the congress was the session devoted to the general subject of "Working women in war time," special consideration being given to the matter of substitution of women for men in war industries from the point of view of safety and health. It was brought out at this session that there is no immediate necessity for the employment of women in places now held by men, one speaker suggesting as proof of this the great number of men now out of work.

The general subject of Thursday's sessions was "The employer and the labor department inspectors," embracing a discussion of the best method of establishing proper cooperation between employer, employee, and inspector. Charles Barnes, director of the State bureau of employment, warned against what he characterized as the tendency of some manufacturers to replace their male employees with women to cover "shortage of labor," stating that "there is in this country enough human beings potentially capable of doing all the work required, and that, too, without materially (as yet) increasing our number of women workers. But large bodies of workmen will have to be trained and retrained to meet new technical needs, and employers must face the problem of doing this training." The work of the State bureau of employment was analyzed, showing what had been accomplished during the preceding 12 months in registering over 90,000 people, receiving requests for employment from nearly 114,000 workers, and in offering jobs to a little over 110,000, of whom approximately 73,000 were actually placed. Upon investigating alleged scarcity of labor, Mr. Barnes continued, one or more of three factors were found to exist. Either (1) the call was for trained workers in technical lines, or (2) the demand was for husky laborers to do work calling for strong physique and endurance, or (3) the employer was offering too low wages, often coupled with long hours and bad working conditions.

Following Mr. Barnes' paper the various phases of factory inspection work were presented by John J. McSherry, Samuel C. Wilson, Patrick Shea, and William Gorman, factory inspectors.

HEALTH HAZARDS IN THE CUTLERY INDUSTRY AND MORTALITY FROM TUBERCULOSIS AMONG WORKERS.

Dangers to the health of workers in the cutlery industry are due to mineral and animal dusts, fumes, and gases, and to faulty illumination, according to the report of a special investigation of this industry at Northampton, Mass.¹ This investigation was conducted

¹ Massachusetts. Fourth annual report of the State Board of Labor and Industries, January, 1917. Boston, 1917. pp. 121 to 145.

under the direction of the State department of labor and industries and embraces four large factories employing about 600 men. Studies were made of each step in the process of manufacture with special reference to the health hazards involved, of the methods employed in diminishing the hazards associated with the process of manufacture, and of the present mortality rate among cutlery workers at Northampton and vicinity. It was found that in general the dust hazard is greatest in three departments, (1) handle, sawing and milling, (2) grinding, and (3) polishing and glazing (including buffing); that fumes and gases present a serious hazard in the forge department, where carbon monoxide is present, and in the hafting department, where lead and antimony, copper and tin are used; and that the practice of placing the machinery parallel to the windows, with the result that the hoods used to remove the dusts frequently shut off much of the light, gives rise to a faulty illumination which is quite a serious hazard and seems to have received little or no attention in the industry.

The report gives an account of existing conditions as the investigators found them in these four establishments, noting the apparent ineffectiveness in the design of the hoods, and their abuse by the workers who, in order to get better light, often push them back at some distance from the wheel, thus increasing the dust hazard and causing a black deposit to form on the walls and windows and reducing materially the illumination. The conclusions drawn from a mechanical survey of the cutlery industry with reference to the dust hazard are stated to be as follows:

1. A dust hazard exists in those rooms or departments where dry grinding and polishing are done. Mechanical exhaust has been provided in all of the factories investigated, decreasing the dust hazard to a marked degree, but will permit of great improvement.

2. All dry grinding and polishing wheels should be carefully hooded and connected with an adequate blower system. The hoods should be so designed and placed as to catch the dust as it is thrown from the wheels, and immediately guide it into the branch pipe opening.

3. Hand holes should be made into the main suction pipes at frequent intervals along their length to permit of frequent cleaning. Systematic cleaning and overhauling of the exhaust systems should be practiced.

4. The operatives should be educated to properly use at all times the dust-elimination devices installed for their protection, and to realize the hazard to their health resulting in their failure to follow these precautions.

5. The education of the employers as to the hazards to which grinders and polishers are subjected, and the necessity of improving the present exhaust installations, are essential.

At Northampton, according to the report, there were 13 deaths from pulmonary tuberculosis among cutlery workers during the years 1911 to 1915, inclusive, and during the same period among

those whose occupation was not associated with the cutlery industry, there were 78 deaths of males and 55 of females. At Montague, another cutlery center, during the period 1912 to 1915, inclusive, there were 5 deaths from tuberculosis among 300 cutlery workers, and 17 deaths from tuberculosis among noncutlery workers. These data are given in the following table:

MORTALITY FROM TUBERCULOSIS AMONG CUTLERY AND NONCUTLERY WORKERS AT NORTHAMPTON AND MONTAGUE, MASS., SHOWING AVERAGE AGE OF EACH GROUP AT TIME OF DEATH.

Year.	Northampton.						Montague.					
	Cutlery workers.		Noncutlery workers.				Cutlery workers.		Noncutlery workers.			
	Num-ber. ¹	Aver-age age at death.	Number.		Average age at death.		Num-ber. ¹	Aver-age age at death.	Num-ber. ¹	Average age at death.		
			Males.	Fe-males.	Males.	Fe-males.				Males.	Fe-males.	
1911.	4	40.3	14	8	40.2	36.0						
1912.	1	59.0	23	14	40.9	37.7	1	40.0	2			
1913.	2	53.0	15	8	40.5	37.4	1	44.0	3	23.5	18.0	
1914.	1	40.3	15	10	33.4	37.2	1	31.0	10	38.7	36.3	
1915.	5	48.2	11	15	32.7	38.7	2	29.5	2	38.0	35.0	

¹ The report does not classify these by sex.

² Females.

³ Not given in the report.

The data set out in this table would seem to indicate that (1) death from tuberculosis is not so prevalent among cutlery workers as among noncutlery workers (adult males); and that (2) the age at time of death among cutlery workers who die from tuberculosis is higher than the age at time of death from tuberculosis among noncutlery workers, both male and female.

From this study of the cutlery industry the following conclusions are drawn:

That the dust hazard can be reduced to a minimum by hoods properly placed, in accordance with the type of work carried on, on the particular machine creating the dust.

That the placing of the machines at right angles to the line of windows would guarantee adequate illumination and remove the necessity for pushing aside the hoods installed on the different machines.

That the powdering of the wheel with pumice and oil should be classified as dry grinding and polishing and not wet grinding and polishing; also that adequate exhaust should be installed on these machines.

That all gases, fumes, and smoke incidental to any process of manufacture can be adequately removed by efficient exhaust system.

That the high mortality associated with the cutlery industry is unnecessary, and can be reduced almost to the minimum by suitable attention to dust removal.

That the process of polishing, grinding, and buffing of small articles is a greater element of dust hazard to the worker than the same work on larger articles, because of the necessity of close proximity of the worker to the grinding, polishing, or buffing surface.

That the study of the cutlery industry at Northampton shows a marked improvement on the conditions set forth in the report of 1907, dealing with the cutlery industry at this same center.¹

PROTECTION OF HEALTH OF MUNITION WORKERS IN ITALY.²

TRANSLATED AND SUMMARIZED BY ALICE HAMILTON, M. D.

Three pamphlets dealing with the prevention of industrial disease among munition workers in Italy have just reached this country. They are issued by a central committee for industrial mobilization under the ministry of arms and munitions, and they bear the signature of Dallolio, minister of arms and munitions.

It appears from these pamphlets that munition work in Italy is carried on partly in Government-operated and partly in private factories, and that for the supervision of the latter the central committee for industrial mobilization has appointed local branches which are to exercise a certain control over conditions of work in them. The instructions contained in the pamphlets are directed to military officers in charge of Government works and local committees for industrial mobilization.

The first pamphlet bears the date of June 16, 1917. The occasion for its issue is said to be the urgent necessity both for increasing the number of women employed in the munition industries and for making their work steadier and more valuable. It is no longer sufficient to persuade larger and larger numbers of women to enter these factories. The experience of Italy, like that of her allies, is that far too large a proportion of these women leave the factory after a few months' employment, especially if they are married women and mothers of families. It is indispensable that the causes for this excessive labor turnover be analyzed, since its effect is to hamper very greatly the output of war necessities.

Under the insistent call of their country, Italian women of all social classes have entered munition works. Most of them had never before been subject to the discipline of factory work, hence the necessity of carefully scrutinizing this new army of women workers in order to make the best use of them, and of not permitting them to be

¹ Annual report of the Massachusetts Board of Health, 1917.

² Italy. Ministero per le Armi e Munizioni. Comitato Centrale per la Mobilitazione Industriale. Vigilanza igienico-sanitaria, June 16, 1917, 11 pp.; Istruzioni per la vigilanza igienico-sanitaria, June 29, 1917, 56 pp.; Pronto Soccorso in casi d'infortunio, Sept. 25, 1917, 3 pp. Rome, 1917.

exploited for the profit of their employers, nor subjected to exhausting labor, but conserving as far as possible their physical health and their moral health. The task of thus humanizing industry by preventing overexploitation has seemed so important to the British Minister of Munitions as to lead him to appoint a special department for the welfare of munition workers, a move which has been followed by indubitable success.

In order to bring about the same results in Italy a new department has been created by the ministry of arms and munitions, namely, a bureau of hygienic and sanitary control (*Ufficio di Vigilanza igienico-sanitaria*), which is to act in cooperation with the local committees of industrial mobilization in applying standards of hygiene and of medical care, to assure for the working classes favorable conditions of work and of treatment, bearing always in mind, however, the supreme necessities of the munition industry under war conditions. The bureau of hygienic sanitary control hopes to carry out the task of preserving the physical integrity of the working classes largely through the assistance of doctors who are to be attached to the munition plants and are to assist the local committees in formulating and applying hygienic rules for the individual establishments under the committee's control. These doctors are to work in connection with the committees, but under the supervision of the bureau. They must be men of high professional standing who have had experience in industrial hygiene. Each physician is to send regular monthly reports to his committee, concerning the cases of industrial disease which have come to his notice, so that the committee may know what preventive measures should be insisted upon. Apparently he does not inspect the factory, except when an unusually high sickness rate is reported to the committee. The reports are forwarded by the committees to the bureau of hygiene and sanitation, with which apparently rests the authority to pass upon all instructions to physicians and to factory owners.

The pamphlet points out the special difficulties attendant upon the employment of large numbers of women. Rooms should be provided where mothers may nurse their babies, crèches where the babies may be cared for during working hours. It is the doctor's duty to see that a pregnant woman stops work for four weeks before the birth of her baby. He must also be alert to combat tuberculosis, alcoholism, and venereal disease "which will find so fruitful a soil in this new industrial army of women and children."

The bureau urges employers to remember that to-day the problem of labor is not only a problem of work, but also of the physical, moral, and intellectual future of the race.

On June 29, 1917, the bureau of hygiene and sanitation issued a booklet of convenient size, containing the fully formulated instructions to all the local committees on the subject of health and sanitation in munition works. Here the duties of the industrial physicians are set forth in great detail, and a list of industrial poisons is appended, with all necessary information as to the nature and prevention of industrial poisoning.

The statement is made that a new step has been taken in Italian industry; for the first time the hygienic care of the employee in his place of work will be undertaken through the entry of the physician into the factory, and a new relation inaugurated between physician, employer, and worker. The industrial doctor is warned that this is a task requiring the greatest possible skill and tact, and that it is his duty to use persuasion and gradual education in order to convince the manufacturer of the industrial and technical utility of adopting protective measures for his workmen. He must cooperate with the departments of labor and of health; he must be scrupulously careful not to betray any trade secrets. In his effort to protect the workers he is warned that he must always bear in mind the national emergency and counsel nothing that might impair the practical usefulness of the factory. All measures for safeguarding workers in specially dangerous occupations must first be submitted to the ministry of arms and munitions, for justice may demand that such measures, if adopted, be imposed on all similar factories in Italy.

Medical examination before employment is required for children of both sexes and for girls under age. The physician issues a permit for work which in his opinion may be undertaken without injury to the physical development of the child, stating also for what sort of work, if any, the child's strength is not adapted. These children and girls must be examined regularly while they are working, and whenever they change their employment. If the physician declares them unfit for work, they must be refused. Similar physical examinations are necessary¹ for others, especially women and adolescent boys, in order that it may be known whether they are fitted for employment in munition works. In the industries that are known as unhealthful, periodical examination of all the employees is necessary, so that early signs of poisoning may be detected. The physician is to be paid by the employer, but his selection and appointment are to be passed upon by the local committee.

The powers and duties of these industrial doctors are very carefully defined. The doctor must maintain secrecy as to the industrial

¹ The word used for the examination of children is "Obbligatorio;" for that of adults, "Necessario."

sickness he discovers; even in making out his report to the local committee he must only indicate symptoms without stating his diagnosis, although the case may be entirely evident. He may not himself suspend the sick person from work, but he must at once report the case to the bureau of hygiene, which will see to it that the local committee takes appropriate action. If he discovers persons in the early stages of poisoning or detects oversusceptibility to poison, he must confer with the employer as to suspension from work or shifting to other work. No worker may be reemployed except after medical examination. The industrial doctor is warned that while it is his duty to instruct the worker in methods of protection against disease, he is forbidden to advise him against entering these dangerous trades. Physicians attached to factories are required to report all cases of industrial disease to the local committee; physicians in private practice are courteously requested to do the same.

A list of industrial diseases which must be reported is given, but the physician is to indicate only acute cases of poisoning. He may specify the symptoms of chronic poisoning as given in the appended list, but he must not make a diagnosis of any specific form of industrial chronic poisoning. The substances which may give rise to industrial poisoning in the making of munitions are as follows: Benzol and toluol; anthracene; naphthalene; phenol; nitro and nitroso derivatives of benzene and phenol; amido derivatives of benzene; halogen derivatives of hydrocarbons of the fatty series (tetrachlorethane and trichlorethylene); nitrous gases; lead and its compounds; chromates; phosphorous and phosphoreted hydrogen; arsenic and arseniureted hydrogen; mercury and carbon disulphide. A concise yet adequate description is given of the industries in which these substances are used, the special processes which involve the greatest danger, the importance of individual predisposition to the poison, the mode of entrance and of elimination, the pathology, so far as it is known, the symptoms of acute and chronic poisoning, and the method of prevention and care.

General rules of hygiene applying to all these dangerous trades are given as follows:

Occupations involving special danger must be carried on apart from other work.

Floors, walls, workbenches and other surfaces should be smooth, even, impermeable, easily washed. Cleaning should be thorough and frequent, always with water if possible, and if infection is to be feared, with disinfectants.

Ventilation should be adequate, including not only a general air supply, but, where necessary, local air removal and supply.

There should be adequate natural and artificial lighting.

All refuse and débris should be frequently removed.

If poisonous material can not be kept in a moist condition, efforts should be made either to prevent dust or to draw it away at the place where it is produced.

Apparatus designed to control gases and vapors should be mechanical and automatic, with well-fitting coverings and impermeable pipes and ducts.

The number of persons engaged in manual work should be reduced as much as possible. Where handwork must be done, it should be carried on under a hood provided with a good draft, and with tools so made as to permit the worker to stand at a distance from the dangerous material, or else the harmful effects of the dangerous substance should be lessened by condensation of vapors or neutralization by means of well-tested reagents.

For transport for discharging fluids or powders, etc., closed channels or mechanical methods should be used, especially in cases of volatile or corrosive substances.

The crude material, the finished product, and the refuse, if it contains soluble toxic substances, should not be left out of doors, but in well-closed places under lock and key. These substances should be kept in covered receptacles, labeled, and with the word "poison" inscribed. Wherever possible innocuous or less toxic compounds should be substituted.

The following should be provided and their use required: Working clothes of good material, closed at the collar and wrists, to be washed at least once a week; head covering; gloves of rubber or leather in good repair, fitting under the cuff of the suit; shoes and sabots (wooden shoes); protective goggles; and, if necessary, respirators. All these to be kept in good condition, washed and repaired.

Dressing rooms should be provided separate from the workrooms with individual lockers, if possible, containing two compartments, for street clothes and working clothes.

Workers should be forbidden to introduce, keep, and consume food or drink in workrooms. They should not be allowed to smoke or chew tobacco while at work.

A refectory should be provided, with some means of warming food brought from home. No one should enter the refectory without having removed his overalls and washed himself.

Careful washing of the person after work should be insisted upon, both before lunch and on quitting work. Wash rooms in adequate number should be provided, with hot and cold water, soap, nail-brushes, and individual glasses for drinking or bubbling fountains. In the more dangerous industries tub or shower baths should be provided.

The workman should be instructed concerning the dangers to which he will be exposed, and this instruction should be repeated often. Printed instructions, briefly and clearly expressed, should be placed conspicuously about the factory.

Workmen should not have beards nor long hair and the mustache should be cut short. The greatest temperance in the use of alcoholic drinks should be advised, and workmen should be counseled to drink a great deal of milk and not to start work on an empty stomach.

A first-aid equipment should be provided and kept ready, including a cylinder of oxygen and hypodermic needles.

Medical examination should be made at the beginning of employment and periodically thereafter according to the danger inherent in the work. The weak and anemic and those with pulmonary lesions should be excluded. In case of mild poisoning there should be suspension from work, but the oversusceptible and those who have had more than one attack of poisoning should be discharged. No suspended person should be reemployed until he is entirely cured. For the most dangerous tasks the hours should be short and the workmen given change of employment at intervals.

The third pamphlet issued by the bureau of hygiene and sanitation is in the form of an open letter to all military men in charge of governmental munition works and local committees of industrial mobilization. It is dated September 25, 1917, and is apparently called forth by some serious cases of industrial poisoning. Inspections made in both governmental and private munition works show that insufficient attention has been paid to the provision of proper equipment for first aid in the specially dangerous industries, such, for instance, as the manufacture of explosives. "Too often it has become evident, to our grieved surprise, that an accident has resulted seriously or even fatally because timely help was lacking, the necessary medical supplies had not been provided, or the proper instructions for their use had not been given to the people in charge. The continually increasing pressure of work in munition factories forced by the supreme urgency of the present state of war requires most rigorous observance of those simple rules of hygiene and medical treatment in case of accident, which is the duty of all who employ labor and the right of all who accept employment; for even if these rules are not enforced by existing labor laws they are sanctioned by one of the most exalted religious sentiments—that of human brotherhood."

As far back as April 30, 1917, the necessity for providing quick and adequate medical care in establishments manufacturing explosives was urged by the minister of munitions, and arrangements were made by the local committees of industrial mobilization to have

physicians, in collaboration with the factory inspectors, render at least the indispensable minimum of care to the sufferers from industrial poisons and accidents. "It seems now, however, that the provisions for such care must be taken up again and pushed by all the authorities directly and indirectly concerned with munition work, in order that in the shortest possible time every military and every private factory doing war work shall be equipped with a proper first-aid department, which shall include what is absolutely necessary for that factory, according to the nature of the work done and the number of persons employed."

The name of the physician attached to the factory and his telephone number should be¹ posted in view in the first-aid room and in the timekeeper's room. If there is no doctor attached to the factory, some proper person should be trained in giving first-aid for injuries and in administering artificial respiration. This person is to have charge of the first-aid supplies. The first-aid room should be well lighted and ventilated and warmed in winter. It should always be clean. The following are the supplies absolutely indispensable for its equipment: Solution of bichloride of mercury 1-1000, or of lysoform; a locked box with absorbent cotton, gauze, bandages of different widths, all in closed packages; tincture of iodine, freshly prepared, and applicators kept in a corked bottle; stimulants, such as camphorated oil, 10 per cent, and a hypodermic preparation of caffeine, marsala, cognac, and infusion of coffee; hemostatics; bismuth, or carron oil for burns; a hypodermic syringe, always ready for use; forceps; a stretcher, which can also serve as a cot; a wash room, with water, soap, towels, and vessels for waste water; in addition, any equipment which the doctor may think necessary for that particular factory.

In places where there are gases and vapors known to be capable of producing poisoning, a rest room also should be provided, with one or more beds, and alkaline or ammoniacal solutions for spraying, oxygen under pressure, and a bathtub with hot water.

Industry has its casualties as well as war, and in all workshops where human life is imperiled let there be not only all the mechanical protective measures which the special nature of the work requires, but let there also be provided and kept in efficient condition everything which science has devised to render less painful and less dangerous to the worker the consequences of accidents occurring in the course of his work.

¹ The expression used throughout this paragraph is "it is necessary," not "obligatory," which makes these appear to be counsels, not commands.

SOCIAL INSURANCE.

SALARIED EMPLOYEES' INSURANCE IN GERMANY DURING 1916.¹

TRANSLATED AND SUMMARIZED BY ALFRED MAYLANDER.

The directorate of the Imperial Insurance Institute for Salaried Employees has recently published its report for the year 1916. The principal object of this youngest branch of the German social insurance system is the payment of old-age and survivors' pensions. The law, however, provides a waiting time of 10 and 5 years for the payment of such pensions and this waiting time has not yet elapsed. So far only those insured members who had shortened their waiting time by the payment of extra premiums could present a claim for pension. Very few members have availed themselves of this privilege of shortening their waiting time, and consequently the number of old-age pensions paid by the insurance institute in 1916 was only 9 and that of survivors' pensions 15. The chief activities of the insurance institute, therefore, consisted in the collection of premiums and the granting of such voluntary benefits as are permitted by the law.

During the year 1916 the total amount of contributions paid to the institute by employers and insured members was, in round figures, 113,000,000 marks (\$26,894,000). That the collection of contributions is connected with considerable difficulties is made evident by the fact that during the year under review the obligation to insure was contested in 13,953 cases; 7,558 of these disputes were still pending at the end of 1916. The paid-in contributions were largely invested in war loans, the institute having subscribed 60,000,000 marks (\$14,280,000) of the fourth and fifth war loans. This subscription brings the total amount so far invested by the institute in war loans to 260,000,000 marks (\$61,880,000).

Of the voluntary benefits granted by the insurance institute for salaried employees the granting of medical treatment comes first in importance. The institute during 1916 received 24,184 applications for curative treatment, i. e., 9,105 more than in the preceding year. The total cost of medical treatment granted during the year was

¹ From *Hamburger Nachrichten*. Die Angestelltenversicherung im Jahre 1916. Hamburg, Aug. 10, 1917.

7,400,000 marks (\$1,761,200). Curative treatment in tuberculosis hospitals was granted to 4,853 members, in sanatoriums to 4,898, and in baths and watering places to 5,162, while 2,586 members were given treatment in general hospitals and 2,728 in dispensaries. In 310 cases the institute granted a subsidy for curative treatment.

The directorate of the institute also has taken special measures to facilitate the return to civil life of members who have been invalided during the war while serving in the armed forces. It has set aside a sum for the vocational readaptation of members invalided in the war. During 1916 the directorate received 95 applications from maimed members who wished to undergo a course of vocational training. Sixty of these applications were approved, 11 were rejected, and the remainder were still pending at the close of the year. As thorough experiments have shown that suitable dogs can be trained to lead blind men safely on the streets and to call their attention to dangers from public traffic, the directorate resolved to grant to members who have become blind in the war the means for the acquisition of such dogs.

The insurance institute has also been active in combating sexual diseases. For this purpose it has borne part of the costs of the dispensaries for sexual diseases maintained by the State invalidity insurance institutes.

In connection with the present article it should be remarked that of late considerable agitation has developed for and against the abolition of the salaried employees' insurance system and the combination of it with the workmen's invalidity and survivors' insurance system.¹

This agitation had its beginning in an article published in 1916 in the "Zeitschrift für die gesammte Versicherungs-wissenschaft" in which Prof. Manes criticized the high cost of administration and the defective organization of the salaried employees' insurance system. He points out that the annual cost of administration amounts now to 3,000,000 marks (\$714,000), that the staff of the salaried employees' insurance institute consists of more than 2,300 employees, and that the expenditure of 10,000,000 marks (\$2,380,000) for a new building to house the institute is now being contemplated. Prof. Manes also states that the law of December 20, 1911, creating the salaried employees' insurance, was enacted for political reasons; it was intended to separate the salaried employees from other wage workers as a special social class. He says that the war has done away with such class distinctions and their upholding would endanger the social peace. He proposes abolition of the salaried employees'

¹ From Vorwärts. Der Streit um die Angestelltenversicherung. Berlin, Aug. 22, 1917.

insurance as a special insurance system, and extension of the workmen's invalidity and survivors' insurance with obligatory insurance of all gainfully employed persons earning less than 3,000 marks (\$714) per year, and voluntary insurance of those earning 3,000 to 5,000 marks (\$714 to \$1,190). At the same time he proposes that the benefits of the invalidity insurance be increased.

Two other articles by Dr. Brumm, a member of the directorate of the State Invalidity Insurance Institute, Berlin, and by Privy Councillor Dr. Zacher, published in the same magazine, fully support the contentions of Prof. Manes. Dr. Zacher points out that according to estimates presented to the Reichstag before the enactment of the salaried employees' insurance law the cost of administration of this insurance should not exceed 2 per cent of the receipts from contributions, that to-day the cost of administration has reached double this percentage and will amount to 10 per cent as soon as the payment of pensions begins. He also condemns from a social point of view the separation of salaried employees and workmen, because the latter live under the same economic conditions as the former and because millions of small undertakers and agriculturists are insured in the workmen's insurance system.

In a recently published booklet¹ Hans Blankenstein, a Berlin author, makes the statement that the agitation for the abolishment of the salaried employees' insurance is inspired by the Imperial Insurance Office (*Reichsversicherungsamt*) which intends to bolster up the unfavorable financial condition of the workmen's invalidity insurance institutes at the expense of the salaried employees' insurance institute. In support of this contention he states that the latter is in an excellent financial condition by reason of the good investment of its capital at an average rate of interest of $4\frac{3}{4}$ per cent, as compared with that of the capital of the invalidity insurance institutes at an average interest rate of $3\frac{3}{4}$ per cent; that the capital of the invalidity insurance institutes has, moreover, decreased by 65,000,000 marks (\$15,470,000) and that it is expected that the war will further deteriorate their financial condition on account of increased risks.

For the better understanding of this controversy it should be stated here that the proposed incorporation of the salaried employees' insurance into the workmen's invalidity insurance would bring to the salaried employees advantages as well as disadvantages. The advantages are the following: The Empire pays a subsidy to all pensions of workmen insured in the invalidity insurance institutes but not to pensions of salaried employees insured in the salaried employees' insurance institute. In the invalidity insurance the waiting time is only 4 years, in the salaried employees' insurance it is 10

¹ Blankenstein, Hans. *Beseitigung der Angestelltenversicherung*. Berlin, 1917. 36 pp.

years. During the present war salaried employees are seriously affected by this provision. As the salaried employees' insurance came into force on January 1, 1913, it does not entitle its members to a pension if they have been disabled in the war nor do the survivors of members killed in the war have claim to a pension. The provisions as to the suspension (*Ruhen*) of pensions are also more unfavorable in the salaried employees' insurance than in the workmen's invalidity insurance. In the salaried employees' insurance payment of pensions is suspended whenever the otherwise entitled claimant is in receipt of some other income of a specified amount. In such cases the contributions paid are lost. In the invalidity insurance the payment of pensions is not made dependent on the income of the beneficiary from other sources.

On the other hand, salaried employees would be at a disadvantage if insured in the invalidity insurance institutes for the following three reasons: First, the salaried employees' insurance institute pays pensions if the earning capacity of the insured member has been lessened by 50 per cent. The corresponding percentage prescribed by the invalidity insurance institutes is $66\frac{2}{3}$ per cent; second, the salaried employees' insurance institute pays pensions to widows in good health, while the invalidity insurance institutes pay widows' pensions to invalid widows only; third, the salaried employees' insurance institute pays pensions to orphans up to their completed eighteenth year of age, the invalidity insurance institutes only up to their completed fifteenth year of age.

The Vorwärts suggests that the dispute could easily be settled by admitting salaried employees to all the advantages of the invalidity insurance and by increasing the present benefits of the invalidity insurance for members willing to pay an extra premium.

HOUSING AND WELFARE WORK.

SOCIAL BETTERMENT WORK AMONG EMPLOYEES' FAMILIES.

BY ELIZABETH A. HYDE.

It must be evident to the most casual observer of industrial conditions that social betterment work in more or less isolated communities becomes a matter of the employee's family and not of himself as a part of the actual working force. Steel mills and coal mines have their wash and change houses for the workers, and their first-aid and hospital provisions; but their clubhouses and libraries, their recreation grounds and social gatherings, their nurses and welfare workers generally are for the benefit of the community and not alone for the men within the plant. No other industry studied in the recent investigation of welfare work by the Bureau of Labor Statistics—which covered 431 establishments, having a total of more than 1,660,000 employees—approaches the two mentioned in the amount of work done among families, with the exception of cotton manufacturing in the South. Examples of conspicuously good family work are found, however, in many other industries, notably foundries and machine shops and explosives. There are, of course, great differences in the amount and excellence of the work done by various establishments, depending to some extent on the nature of the working force and the isolation of the plant but far more on the character and ideas of the employer.

Of the 431 establishments for which schedules were secured, 158, with a total of about 838,000 employees, were found to be doing more or less social betterment work among their employees' families, generally along the following lines:

(1) Improving the dwellings and the streets, installing sewerage, lighting, and water systems, and assisting in gardening.

(2) Providing educational, religious, and recreational facilities.

(3) Introducing to the community a nurse or other capable visitor to advise in the care of the sick and the children, to instruct in American methods of home making, to develop the community spirit by organizing and fostering clubs, and to be the sympathetic friend in time of trouble.

Work of this kind has transformed squalid towns into clean and attractive places and has much improved their standard of living.

The extent to which the various branches of betterment work are carried on by the companies reported in the present study is shown in the following statement:

Per cent of the 158 establishments doing each kind of work.

Visiting nurse.....	53. 80
Playground	39. 87
Domestic-science classes.....	27. 22
Welfare worker	26. 58
Charitable relief.....	26. 58
Settlement house	19. 62
Kindergarten	18. 35
Land for gardens.....	17. 10
Christmas presents to others than needy.....	14. 56
Classes other than domestic science.....	13. 29
Prizes for gardens.....	11. 40
Doctor	8. 23
Day nursery	5. 70
Clinic	5. 06
Christmas gifts to needy.....	3. 80

LIVING CONDITIONS.

Many of the four and six room houses recently constructed have porches, pantries, and clothes closets, and are neatly fenced. In some of the towns practically every house has running water and sewer connection. Electric lighting is becoming general. The best houses have bathtubs. Employers who complain that the bathtubs installed are used as coal bins, or not used at all, probably overlook the fact that in many cases water must be heated and carried to the tub in the old-fashioned way and that bathrooms built on porches are likely to be cold. The community bathhouse, with separate compartments or buildings for the women and children, exists in several places. These bathhouses may be inexpensively installed and maintained and are considered by at least one mill manager in the South the most satisfactory of the various forms of welfare work attempted.

Streets are graded, walks laid out, and young trees planted. In certain cases landscape gardeners are employed to supervise the town planning and instruct in gardening. Some employers are finding that fences, unless of wire or metal, are an expensive feature; they fall rapidly into disrepair and sometimes are willfully destroyed for firewood. In a number of cases all fences have been removed and company land at a distance is allotted for gardens and stock, the maintenance of unfenced gardens being difficult or impossible. In other cases a fence of metal posts and wire is used.

In some instances gardens are plowed free of cost by the company or the plow and team are lent to the householder, and the free dis-

tribution of seeds and cuttings is not uncommon. In a large proportion of cases, however, the householders are able to finance their garden plots and the employer contributes only supervision and prizes. "City beautiful" contests, with generous prizes for the best lawn, best flower garden, best vegetable garden, best porch or window boxes, and best general appearance, stimulate the householders' interest in a new community.

Children's gardens on company land are reported by 27 of the 158 companies doing work among families and 18 companies give prizes or otherwise encourage home gardening. In the towns of one company alone there have been as many as 7,000 gardens, or 95 per cent of the total number that could be planted, the average value of the vegetables grown being over \$20 per garden. Where gardening is undertaken on a considerable scale the work is in charge of a paid instructor, under whose supervision the children must work in the gardens for a certain number of hours a day. In one notable case the company provides for each of 80 boys a plot 53 by 11 feet, and there is a cooperative plot which all must help to work. It gives the whole time of an instructor, the seeds and plants, overhead-sprinkler system, tools, wheelbarrows, express wagons, diaries, books and papers, club rooms, and prizes. The course lasts two years. The boys are incorporated as a stock company under the laws of the State and elect their own officers.

PROTECTION OF HEALTH.

The health of the industrial community is recognized as of such importance that measures for its protection form the largest single department of betterment work as reported in this study. Some of the measures in operation in a number of industrial towns are as follows: Draining or filling in of pools and lowlands, or their treatment with crude petroleum, to exterminate the mosquito; screening of houses, at cost or without charge, and the distribution of circulars explaining in a simple way the dangers of the house fly; provision and care of garbage cans; bacteriological analysis of the water used for drinking; regulation of the milk supply.

Of the 158 companies under consideration, 85 report that they have a visiting nurse, or some one acting in that capacity, who, in addition to actual care of the sick, instructs the women of the community in nursing and in the preparation of food, and teaches the value and necessity of cleanliness and the benefit of fresh air and sunshine. Quite often the nurse's headquarters are the community house or model cottage described in a later section of this summary (p. 201). It is not unusual for her employer to give her the use of an automo-

bile. These persons usually are under the direction of the company physician or plant manager, though they may be connected with the district nurse association where such an organization exists. It has been found that where a visiting nurse has been installed in a community, and her services have been announced as free to employees' families, men in whose homes there is sickness work more regularly and with easier minds than formerly, to the great benefit of the shop.

The following statement of family visits made by two nurses in one summer month may be regarded as typical of the better class of work done:

Object of visit.	Visits in district A.	Visits in district B.
Domestic science.....	37	60
Sanitary hygienics.....	28	52
Dinner buckets.....		41
Care of babies.....	103	36
Care of mothers.....		35
Care of sick.....	107	46
Employment sought.....	6	31
Employment found.....	18	31
In regard to circumstances.....	51	54
Placed in sanitariums.....	5	2
Sent to hospitals.....	4	5
At request of schools.....		23
Total.....	359	416

Several companies in the South report that medical treatment of the families is supplied at little or no cost to them. This is, of course, exclusive of the arrangement whereby the employees' fees cover also their families, and also the practice in some villages of limiting the fees which may be charged by private practitioners.

Free clinics, or clinics charging for medicines only, are conducted in eight of the cases reporting; three of these give dental and one gives optical treatment. In one case toothbrushes have been provided free to school children by the employing company, free dental treatment is furnished children in the first and second grades, and lectures on the care of the teeth are given before adults and the children of the higher grades. The optical work comprises tests, prescriptions, and the provision of glasses at cost.

At least one company has a first-class milk clinic dispensing certified milk at less than cost to the public and without charge to the destitute, and prescribing for infants through a corps of nurses and a doctor; another company sells milk below cost; four companies do antituberculosis work; two or more vaccinate against typhoid; and three have fresh-air camps to which invalids may be sent. In one town a 2-cent lunch is served to the school children and in another the experiment is being made of serving school lunches free. One

company has a fund for crippled children and many make a practice of paying for hospital and surgical treatment in necessitous cases.

Day nurseries for the small children of mothers employed outside of the home are reported by nine companies, the majority being in the South. Children between 4 months and about 8 years of age are received in the nurseries, and the usual charge is 5 cents a day. A higher charge may be made if the father is employed, and one nursery reports that slightly more is asked in midsummer to cover the cost of ice. Nursing mothers are allowed by the employer to leave their work two or three times a day.

RECREATION.

Of recreational facilities the most common are the baseball field and the children's playground. These are found almost invariably where community work of any magnitude has been undertaken, and vary all the way from "a piece of land where the men play ball" to a large and extensively improved field, with high fence, box office, grand stand, dressing rooms, moving-picture apparatus, and refreshment stand; and from an unfenced plot with a swing or two and a seesaw to an elaborately equipped inclosure that would put to shame many a city playground. Sixty-three companies, or 40 per cent of all reporting family work, have playgrounds of one sort or another. As in all the other activities described, this of course excludes places where the welfare measure in question is provided by the community or other agency so that it is unnecessary for the employer to undertake it.

The equipment of one playground, which has an attendance of between 200 and 300 children at a time, is as follows: 1 shelter house, 2 toilet houses, 2 bathhouses, 1 swimming pool, 1 wading pool, 2 drinking fountains, 2 sand boxes, 1 jump pit, 2 volley-ball courts, 1 baseball ground, 6 box swings, 12 rope swings, 6 seesaws, 1 giant stride, 1 large slide, 1 small slide, 4 flying rings, 4 climbing poles, and 3 horizontal bars.

Unless the children are few and the equipment is of the simplest there is generally a competent person in charge of the playground, and sometimes there are several such persons, including volunteers. In some cases sewing, carpentry, basketry, and other handwork are taught, and folk dancing is general. Almost invariably the behavior of the children improves rapidly, playground work being one of the most satisfactory of welfare undertakings.

For the older members of the community there are athletic fields, soccer and tennis courts, and basket-ball grounds, the equipment for which is provided by the players or lent to them by the caretaker of the grounds. In the South the question of parks for the people

has for some time been receiving attention; 14 of the companies reporting have parks of some sort and 3 others have immediate plans therefor. Here again the variety of standards is very great. A "park" may be merely an unimproved piece of woodland which the employer has decided to leave in its natural state as a pleasure place for the people, either with no equipment at all or with benches and perhaps a band stand; or it may rival the most beautiful small parks in existence, with club facilities, dancing, skating, games, and music, in an exquisite setting of trees, grass, flowers, and running water.

Indoor recreation is commonly provided by means of a club or settlement house, managed by the employees themselves, by paid social secretaries, by churches, or by the Young Men's or the Young Women's Christian Association. The church mission is active in the South, and among the 8 reported in the present study there are good and bad examples of its occupancy of the field. Ordinarily the mill not only provides the cottages used in the work, but assumes no inconsiderable part of the financial burden of the work. The missions do work similar to that of secular institutions in recreation, education, nursing, sanitary supervision, etc., with the addition of religious services on Sunday. Where two or more mill villages are a short distance apart, one mission may extend its activities, devoting certain days and evenings to each village.

The industrial department of the Y. M. C. A. has been in operation in the South for many years, and 3 of the companies report that their educational and recreational work is done with success under these auspices.

In a notable group of western mining camps the betterment work has been undertaken by the Y. M. C. A. upon vote of the employees. The company provides the buildings and equipment and the Y. M. C. A. assumes full responsibility for the methods and policy of operation. Clubhouses which are models of their kind—representing an expenditure of from \$15,000 to \$25,000 each—are being erected in the various camps, and some 20 secretaries and 10 trained women workers already are employed. The families of the men attend the moving-picture shows and on certain days and evenings are allowed to use the bowling alleys and pool room, gymnasium and baths, library and reading room. In at least one case where assimilation is difficult, foreigners of one nationality are given the exclusive use of the building for a few hours each week, since in no other way can they be induced to visit it.

Fees for games, like minor furnishings, classes, refreshments sold, and other unimportant details, vary from camp to camp, but the

members' dues—50 cents a month or \$5 a year for men and 15 cents a month or \$1.50 a year for boys under 16—are uniform. On Sundays the games are free to members, who alone may play, and they may be indulged in all day except during the hours of religious service. This is but partial evidence of the commendable breadth of view with which the work is being conducted. In order that membership fees may be kept within the reach of all, the company makes a monthly appropriation toward operating expenses, besides paying for heat, light, water, and repairs. Some branches are so successful that the company's cash contribution has been materially reduced, if not entirely suspended. The receipts of the soft-drinks counter, which dispenses also ice cream, candy, cigars, tobacco, and perhaps sandwiches, amount sometimes to several hundred dollars a month.

There are communities where the betterment work is successful only when carried on by the Y. M. C. A. or other outside agency, largely financed by the employer but without other participation by him. Where wages are high the work may be done to no small extent by the employees themselves, the company providing almost always the initiative and the buildings and in many cases the heat, light, and equipment. A conspicuous example of employees' management is a textile mill having between 15,000 and 20,000 operatives where an employees' organization of more than 1,600 members, with annual dues of \$2 and a fund raised by entertainments, conducts the excellent clubs and classes and much of the recreational work. The company houses and otherwise assists the organization, and provides visiting nurses, dental clinic, and recreation grounds for adults and children.

The settlement house—or community house of the South—ordinarily is a more humble affair than the club buildings mentioned, though there are notable exceptions to this rule. Thirty-one, or 20 per cent, of the companies reporting conduct their welfare activities through this medium. The accommodations vary from one of the workers' dwellings or a disused official residence to suitable buildings put up and equipped for the purpose. Where the house is small it may be the model home of the community, furnished and operated in such manner as the other householders would do well to imitate. Cooking classes meet in the tiny kitchen, housekeeping classes make the beds and sweep and dust. A few shelves of books and a dozen magazines constitute the library; chess, checkers, and pinochle, the games. Though probably it may be said with truth that so simple an endeavor as this makes little appeal to anyone but the children of the community, it is a fact that the children are of the greatest importance unless we except the older girls who will become housekeepers within a few years. If the worker in charge is a mature, capable, and tactful woman who succeeds in gaining the confidence

of the women of the community by friendly visiting and nursing, her influence is strongly felt.

Where the house and equipment are more elaborate, accommodating considerable numbers of persons in the various rooms and having many activities, the settlement more nearly resembles a clubhouse, and accordingly meets with the response deserved by such outlay. Some half dozen of the cases reported belong to this class.

The head worker of one of these large and successful settlement houses recommends that social work in an industrial community should invariably begin through such an agency. First, it can and should begin in a small way, developing as the needs of the community become apparent; second, it should begin with educational work for the children, preferably through a kindergarten, since the workers are thus brought into contact with the homes; third, its policy should be flexible, without distinctions as to sex, race, or creed; and fourth, it should be undertaken in a spirit of willingness to meet the demands for increased equipment and enlarged quarters as the work grows.

Social affairs may be arranged by the welfare workers at no cost to the community, but the indications are that the most popular affairs are at least partly managed and financed by the people. In a large number of cases the most important day of the year, to the families as well as to the employees, is the field day or other outing in which practically everyone participates. In the mining and steel communities the occasion is elaborately celebrated, with parades, first-aid contests, races and competitive events, penny scrambles for the children, and other entertainment. Visitors attend from miles around and the affair receives considerable notice from the press.

In the southern cotton-mill villages the churches generally manage the annual outing, assisted financially by the mills. As a rule, several mills combine, and Independence Day is chosen for the festivity, which ordinarily is an unpretentious Sunday-school picnic. Of the 42 cotton mills reporting, 15 have an annual gathering of this character.

Christmas celebrations are reported in 29 cases. These range from the giving of baskets of provisions to needy families only, to the presenting of a ham, turkey, cake, basket of fruit, or \$5 bill to each family in the village, and the setting up of a community Christmas tree, with instrumental music and singing and the distribution of candy, apples, and small gifts to the children. One company reporting has given to each of 4,000 children a pound of candy, an orange, and two apples.

RELIGION AND EDUCATION.

The building, or assistance in the building, of places of worship is common. Among certain races of foreigners, as among the mill people of the South, the religious instinct is very strong, and the community is made better and happier by having a church building within easy reach. Occasionally the company finds it necessary to give financial assistance in order to secure the services of a capable minister, and in a few cases such person acts as welfare worker in the village.

The school is another institution the improvement and fostering of which, in a community where the employer is practically the only taxpayer, may contribute to the welfare of the people. In some Southern States there are examples of remarkable cooperation on the part of the mills. The term is lengthened by several months, a better class of teachers is secured by the payment of higher salaries than are provided by the State, beautiful buildings are erected, and a rule that no man may remain in the employ of the mill who does not send his children to school acts in the place of the nonexistent State law. Other features are the operation of kindergarten and elementary grades in villages too far from the State schools for the attendance thereon of small children, the assembling of mixed classes for older, backward pupils ashamed to go to school among the little folk, and the carrying on of high-school work in places where the State makes no such provision. Sometimes the social work of the village is carried on by the teachers, their residence—provided by the company—forming the community or settlement house.

In the West is a children's community cottage the walls and floors of whose four rooms were tinted and stained by the boys of the school, while the girls made bed and table linen, towels, curtains, and dresser scarfs. The simple furniture was bought by the children, who raised a fund by giving entertainments. Here the girls are taught housekeeping, and the mothers of the various nationalities are entertained at luncheons or afternoon parties. In this community school credits are given for work done by the children in the homes, either in duties about the house or in teaching English or other subjects to the parents.

WELFARE WORKERS.

The character of the person charged with such welfare work as requires family visiting or other intimacy is of the utmost importance. Health, balance, courage, patience, sympathy, and infinite tact are essential. The wisdom of this worker's having a time and place on which no one may intrude, and occasional leave of absence

for refreshing and stimulating contact with other social workers and with the outside world, is undoubted. There may be great harm in work done half-heartedly or in a haphazard way; consequently it is of first concern that the workers keep fit.

The experienced welfare worker or nurse may be intrusted with a small relief fund not too closely scrutinized, and frequently may be consulted with advantage regarding proposed dismissals or other harsh measures. Where the labor turnover is considerable, she may, by her census of families, keep the management informed on many things of significance. Even when supported largely by outside agencies, such as a church mission, the worker should cooperate as closely as receives response with the management of the industry. A tactful visitor to the homes may, through her knowledge of wages and income, suggest a wiser expenditure, more careful house-keeping, or—conversely—the retention in school of a child of legal working age, or the return to home work of an employed mother. She may interest the families in cooperative buying; stores conducted under this system exist in several of the industrial communities reported and cooperative buying of one or more articles of large consumption is practiced in many others.

Work of great value is being done in teaching the nursing of the sick, the care of babies, the wholesome preparation of food, the economical making and repair of clothing, the cleaning and ventilating of the home. The first and second named are universal needs, while ignorance of good cooking is especially prevalent among certain classes. According to the schedules, sewing is more generally taught than is cooking, perhaps because the latter requires a more elaborate equipment and frequently forms part of the public-school work. A wider use of the sewing machine should be encouraged as more practical than handwork after the rudiments have been acquired, and young people can thus be interested in making simple clothing.

ORGANIZING OF CLUBS.

The clubs organized by welfare workers in the communities studied vary in character from the toothbrush brigade or the Blue Birds (girls too young for the Camp Fire) to civic organizations of no mean standing. One of the latter class is transforming a foreign colony in the Middle West which has had anything but a favorable reputation into a respected and self-respecting community. Married women's clubs, though in successful operation in 20 cases among the southern cotton mills reported, are not easily managed. It is difficult to get busy mothers out, and some of them object to being supervised by a woman perhaps their junior, probably unmarried, and almost certainly of another class than their own.

Boys' clubs are a problem everywhere. One Y. M. C. A. clubhouse with three paid workers has temporarily abandoned its boys' room because the supervisors can not prevent rowdyism. The Boy Scout organization has hundreds of branches in industrial communities and these are a success practically everywhere. Manual training is always an outlet for youthful energy; first-aid teams are excellent, as is the work in the gardens, described in an earlier part of this summary.

For girls the field of sewing, fancy work, weaving, basketry, cooking, home making, nursing, child care, first aid, and surgical dressings is almost limitless. There are many branches of the Camp Fire organization, and gardening and canning clubs are numerous. One mill village in the South has recently opened a beautiful clubhouse for its girls, the management here evidently believing, as a superintendent elsewhere is quoted as saying, "Raise up a generation of fine girls and the question of the men will take care of itself."

NECESSITY FOR THE WORK.

While the ideal American condition is one under which the community, entirely distinct from the employer, provides for the welfare of its citizens by means of clinics, playgrounds, libraries, educational classes, social centers, etc., where an industry is carried on at a distance from a city these things must be provided in some other way. Nor can the working people themselves, in the great majority of cases, be expected to make such provision. Scores of communities exist in which recent immigrants largely outnumber the native born, and where American standards of living are as little understood or desired as in the villages of southeastern Europe. Furthermore, the establishment of these things requires considerable outlay of money, and even where wages are fair the greater part of the burden must fall elsewhere than on the wage earners. To quote from an industrial settlement worker already referred to in these pages:

But the wage that is fair to the workman from the point of view of value given to his employer does not mean to the large mass of laborers a wage that is sufficient to keep his family in more than the necessities of life. It does not mean that he is able to provide anything in the way of education which the public does not offer him. It does not mean that he can provide suitable recreation for his children and it does not mean that he can provide them with books. Therefore, whatever the laborer and his family are to have above and beyond the necessities of life, must, under present conditions, come entirely from outside sources. Man as a unit is not worth sufficient wage in many cases to give advantages to family and, in far too many cases, would not use money for such purposes when earned. The body of workmen, representing composite labor of an organization, should have, not as charity, but as business justice, the best the company can afford to give them.

SOCIAL AND EDUCATIONAL ADVANTAGES FOR EMPLOYEES.

BY ANICE L. WHITNEY.

In several of the recent issues of the MONTHLY REVIEW, articles discussing various phases of the work for industrial betterment as carried on by employers have been published. The present article deals with the means taken by many of the companies for the entertainment or the mental stimulus, through lectures and club work, of employees outside of the working hours. Four hundred and thirty-one schedules were taken, covering a wide range of industries, such as mining, many kinds of manufacturing, public utilities, offices, and stores.

The work of directing the amusement of employees is one that must be approached with care by the employer. Many firms have made little or no attempt in this direction, preferring to provide some of the more essential forms of betterment, such as emergency hospitals and lunch rooms, and to leave to the individual the question of what shall be done with his leisure hours. In some cases the distance of the plant from the homes of the workers has militated against anything of this nature being tried, or if begun, has necessitated its abandonment; in other cases the feeling that the employee would object to any interference on the part of his employer with the time which is his own has prevented attempts by the members of the firm to institute any of the various means of amusement. It is perhaps easier in this line of service work than in any other for the employer to assume a paternalistic attitude, and it would appear from the reports that this is felt by many employers, who have found it wiser, in order to avoid the danger of employees suspecting such a tendency on their part, to leave the development of the recreational features to the employees themselves, with the knowledge that proper efforts along these lines will be assisted and encouraged by the company.

In the following table the establishments furnishing one or more of these features of recreation or culture for their employees are given by industries:

ESTABLISHMENTS HAVING SOCIAL GATHERINGS, LECTURES, MUSIC, OUTINGS, ETC., BY INDUSTRIES.

Industry.	Number of establishments.	Number of employees.	Number of establishments having—								
			Social gatherings.	Lectures.		Moving pictures.	Audiatoriums.	Music clubs.			Outings.
				Safety.	Other.			Bands.	Orchestras.	Glee clubs.	
Automobiles.....	7	87,773	4			1	3	1	2	5	
Boots and shoes.....	5	23,930	4	2	1		3			2	
Chemicals and allied products.....	7	13,539	3	1	1					3	
Clothing and furnishings..	9	8,833	9	2	2				3	1	
Electrical supplies.....	5	77,733	4	2	1			1	2	2	
Fine machines and instruments.....	5	15,031	4	2	4	1	3	1	2	3	
Food products.....	9	14,216	7	2	1		2		2	4	
Foundries and machine shops.....	31	85,350	17	7	7	4	9	8	2	1	
Gas and electric light and power companies.....	8	¹ 23,268	7		3	1	2	2	2	1	
Iron and steel.....	12	106,483	4	3	3	2	1	2		6	
Offices.....	9	13,814	9		5	1	2	2	1	5	
Paper and paper goods....	5	7,243	4		1				1	2	
Railroads:											
Electric.....	15	55,046	11	4	5		5	5	1	13	
Steam.....	7	352,774	7		1	4	6			1	
Rubber and composition goods.....	7	36,788	6		1				1	5	
Stores.....	32	89,443	26		6	1		4	3	4	
Telegraph and telephone companies.....	9	235,517	7		3				1	1	
Textiles.....	38	40,229	27	5	7		8	15	2	1	
Other industries.....	54	² 132,140	28	3	15	12	29	7	5	3	
Total.....	274	³ 1,219,150	188	24	70	32	63	56	22	141	

¹ Not including employees of 2 establishments, not reported.

² Not including employees of 1 establishment, not reported.

³ Not including employees of 4 establishments, not reported.

There were 274 establishments—of which number 270 reported the number employed to be 1,219,150—which reported entertainment, either indoor or outdoor or club work among employees, contributed to in some degree by the employer. In 188 of the establishments social gatherings, such as dances, banquets, theatricals, or parties are held on special occasions like Hallowe'en or Christmas. Dances, being the easiest form of entertainment and the one most generally enjoyed, of course predominate.

In the many cases where the companies have provided clubhouses the club committees, with the clubhouse as a meeting place, naturally assume the leadership in social affairs, and usually the fees for club membership cover the most, if not all, of such activities. Even though there is no clubhouse provided there are many establishments in which there are employees' clubs which promote and manage all gatherings of a social nature among the employees. In many establishments these clubs are purely recreational in character; however, in 22 instances the athletic association or the benefit association has

charge of the social affairs, and any surplus gained from them goes to swell the funds of these organizations.

Usually there are large rooms in the plants—either lunch rooms, recreation rooms, or auditoriums—which, with the expenditure of a little labor, can be temporarily converted into a dance hall or may be used for other amusements. Sometimes the use of such a room, together with heat, light, and janitor service, is all that is given by the company. Frequently when no room large enough is available in the plant, the firm hires a hall for the use of the employees for their social affairs. Other firms make a money contribution to the recreation club, and quite a number seek to bring all the employees together in a social way at one large affair during the year, in which case the expenses are usually met wholly or nearly so by the company. One of the street railway companies gives a free theatrical entertainment in the auditorium of its clubhouse each month, except during the summer, and each winter a vaudeville entertainment is given daily for one week in the same place, thus enabling all employees to attend some time during the week. Free tickets are given to all employees and their families and transportation furnished for all who attend. Several dramatic clubs are found which give plays, often several in a season; the minstrel show, also, is popular as a means of entertainment. Two companies presented very elaborate masques, each of which was written especially for the company giving it, and dealing largely with the evolution of the particular kind of work in which each of these companies is engaged. Both of these events included many of the employees as participants and were attended by thousands of spectators.

The activities of one of the large insurance companies along these social and educational lines are centered in the athletic association and an entertainment committee. The athletic association each year, under the sanction of the company, conducts an excursion which is attended by the clerks and members of their families and friends. Each year the association gives a concert or opera, in the company auditorium, followed by dancing. Aside from the orchestra, all of the participants are members of the company. For these affairs tickets are sold. Once or twice during the winter smokers are held for the men and a nominal admission fee is charged. A season's course of entertainment is arranged by the entertainment committee. These affairs, given entirely at the expense of the company, consist of lectures, concerts, and moving pictures, and are held in the afternoon immediately after the close of office. Noon-day concerts are also given twice a week by local talent in the company auditorium, which has a seating capacity of 1,000. These noon meetings are very popular. The auditorium has a grand piano, a concert phonograph,

a stereopticon, and a moving-picture machine. There are various musical clubs among the employees. For the purpose of better acquaintance among employees a dinner is given each year by the company to several hundred of the men, and about 150 of the women are given a luncheon each year for a similar purpose.

AUDITORIUMS FOR THE USE OF EMPLOYEES.

Each of 63 of the companies provides an auditorium either in the plant, clubhouse, or Y. M. C. A. building. In the 14 cases in which the seating capacity was reported, it varied from 300 to 5,500; the majority of these rooms, however, seated between 400 and 800. These auditoriums usually have an adequate stage and in most cases the seats are removable so that the room may be used for dances and other social affairs. One company with about 4,500 employees has two rooms, one seating 1,500 and one 5,500, each equipped with a pipe organ and a piano. The smaller room, in addition, is supplied with a moving-picture outfit. Musicals and illustrated lectures are given from time to time, some of which are free; others are given, however, to supply funds for some charitable purpose. Many of the large department stores use their public auditoriums for gatherings of the employees, but these stores have not been included with the 63 establishments reported, because the rooms are primarily for the use of the public.

LECTURES AND MOVING PICTURES.

Ninety-four establishments report the provision of lectures or talks to employees on various subjects. In some instances the talks are quite informal, being given to the employees during the lunch period or at the close of the working period. In 24 establishments the lectures were on "safety," and were frequently illustrated with stereopticon views. Also, moving pictures were exhibited—other pictures being shown to secure a good attendance—and a short talk on the subject given in connection with the "safety" reels. In 70 cases the lectures dealt with a variety of subjects, such as health, first aid, travel, current events, technical subjects, and plant problems. Two companies report that their lectures are given on the employer's time. One of these has weekly lectures on technical subjects; the other has occasional lectures on safety and health, which are attended usually by about 1,200 persons.

One company reports starting an evening course of lectures, but as the employees were widely scattered it was so difficult to get them together in the evening that it had to be given up. Two southern cotton mills report that lectures were tried but were discontinued because of lack of response on the part of the employees. On the

other hand, most of the establishments report a good attendance, varying, of course, with the interest to the employees of the subjects presented, in some cases the attendance being as high as 1,500 or 2,000 at a single lecture.

Moving pictures were reported in 32 cases. A few of the companies had moving picture machines in the building, but more often they were installed in the clubhouse or Y. M. C. A. building. Often, where the plant was located in a small town, the moving pictures were open to the public, and pictures were shown usually once or twice a week and an admission fee of 5 or 10 cents was charged. About the only advantage resulting to the people was that a better class of pictures was shown than could ordinarily be provided for that fee. When the moving pictures were shown in the plant or clubhouse, however, it was seldom that any fee was charged.

MUSIC CLUBS AMONG EMPLOYEES.

Musical organizations such as bands, orchestras, and glee clubs are quite numerous. Fifty-six companies report bands which range all the way from one of 10 or 12 pieces to organizations with 100 instruments. One company having many foreign-born employees has four bands, one of these being composed exclusively of Slavic and one exclusively of Hungarian players. The companies contribute to the bands in various ways. Many of them contribute instruments and uniforms and hire leaders and most of them provide a place for the band to practice. Those companies which make no contribution other than a place to practice have been excluded from the count, since it is probable that the value of this slight assistance is more than offset by the worth of the band to the company as an advertising feature. Sometimes these bands give concerts at regular intervals, in other cases an occasional concert is given, but usually the band plays at company picnics or outings and at other social affairs. In some cases the company pays for these services. One company having a band with 44 members has noon concerts on the lawns during the warm weather, which are attended by 4,000 of its employees. Another which has a band with 100 members provides a band hall containing a large room for rehearsals, clubrooms for cards, pool, and shuffle board, and a reading room well supplied with periodicals. Still another company has monthly concerts given by its band, to which no admission fee is charged and which are attended by about 3,500 people.

Twenty-two of the companies have orchestras and 23 establishments have choral societies or glee clubs. The companies usually pay the instructor, buy the music, and in several cases, both for bands and orchestras, the members are paid for the time spent in practice.

The orchestras range in size from 10 members to 100, the majority having from 25 to 35 members.

There is but one orchestra reported having 100 members. This orchestra started a few years ago with a membership of 12. It has been so successful, under a competent director, that at present it apparently has an influence upon the music life of the city since there is a series of concerts for the betterment of civic music given by it each year in one of the large concert halls. Concerts also are given for various large organizations in the city. The company pays all of the expenses, buys some of the instruments, and pays each member 50 cents for each rehearsal. This same company has a choral club of over 100 voices. The regular leader is an employee of the company, but a coach from outside is secured to finish preparing for the concerts, at which quite ambitious programs are presented. One large department store has a number of musical organizations. There is a large choral society, a girls' military band of about 40 pieces, a larger band of the same character among the young men, a girls' and a boys' drum and bugle corps of about 30 members each, and an orchestra of about 35 pieces. Concerts are given by these organizations in the store auditorium. One company having about 1,000 employees has them all assemble once a week at noon for chorus singing under the direction of a leader prominent as a conductor of community singing.

OUTINGS FOR EMPLOYEES.

One hundred and forty-one firms have outings for employees, to which they make some material contribution. These picnics or excursions are often attended both by practically the entire working force and their families as well. Often in very large plants each department of the plant holds its picnic independently. The numbers attending many of these annual outings are very large. Two companies report that about 20,000 attend the company picnic and another has an attendance of 12,000 for which the company pays the transportation and gives the prizes for the games. One company with about 15,000 employees has abandoned the annual picnic because it had grown to unmanageable proportions, and in place of it closes the plant for one day each summer and gives \$1 to each employee. For a picnic attended by 8,000 persons, one company pays the transportation; that of another company attended by about the same number has all the expenses paid by the company, and for one with an attendance of 7,000, refreshments and prizes are furnished. In some cases where amusement parks are used for these outings the companies distribute tickets for the various amusements to each one who attends. One company furnishes transportation and the free use of park amusements to employees and their families, and also

prizes, aggregating about \$100 in value, to the children. Another firm, which has an outing which is largely attended, turns over the management of it to an association of the employees. The company pays for the grounds, prizes, and transportation, and the control of the amusement concessions is given to the girls' club, which receives the profits for its welfare fund. Not until there was a practically unanimous desire evidenced by the employees of one steel mill for an outing was the matter taken up by the management. Committees of the shopmen had charge of all the arrangements and the firm ascribed the great success of these annual affairs to this fact. Much of the success of these outings seems to be due to the fact that they are nearly always managed in a democratic way. This, and the fact that the expense attached is usually so slight as to make it possible for all to attend, contribute to make them one of the most popular forms of recreation found among the companies visited.

CONCLUSION.

It is apparent from much of the work that has been reported along these lines of recreation and of club work that considerable executive ability must be displayed by the employees concerned in the management of these large social affairs, and that the musical and dramatic clubs prove not only that there is much promising material among the rank and file of the workers, but also that these opportunities which are given to them to broaden the scope of their interests and therefore to get away somewhat from the ordinary routine of work must necessarily serve to arouse and encourage their ambition.

MINERS' HOUSING IN SCOTLAND.

It was the Scottish Miners' Federation which was primarily responsible for the investigation of housing conditions in Scotland,¹ and for that reason, if not also because of the magnitude of the mining industry and its importance for Scotland, the Scottish Housing Commission has covered the field of miners' housing very extensively.

As late as the eighteenth century coal miners and salt workers were bound by law to their employers, so that if they left the employer "such deserting colliers as had received 'fair wages and fees' were to be held as thieves and punished in their bodies." The famous and historic woman and child labor commission of 1840 inquired

¹ For general summary of the report of the Scottish commission on housing of the industrial classes, see the MONTHLY REVIEW of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for December, 1917, pp. 229 to 234.

somewhat fully into conditions at the mines and in the homes of the miners. Home conditions were described as a "picture of filth and poverty." "The hut is a wretched hovel, perhaps 10 to 12 feet square, in which a family of from 6 to 10 individuals are huddled together."

Some of the present features of miners' housing in Scotland are of note. In the planning of the villages the line of least resistance has been adopted; houses have been built of the cheapest available material and arranged in straight rows placed in parallel lines; there has been a want of provision of garden space in many instances; consideration has not been given to drainage; and houses have been faced upon waste heaps. There are, however, cases where model villages and houses have been provided, but subsequently neglected in upkeep.

The scarcity of gardens can not be accredited to a disinclination for the extra work involved on the part of the miners. The lack is more likely due to other factors, such as (1) short tenure of the dwelling and garden, (2) inadequate fencing, and (3) remoteness of the garden from the house.

Defective roads and footpaths are a characteristic of most mining villages; lighting in many mining towns has been neglected; ashpits are particularly numerous, prominent, and offensive in the older row-house communities. Privy accommodations are declared to be the very worst feature, so much so as to be "an abomination and danger to the community."

The chief causes of defective sanitary provisions are (1) inertia and custom, (2) lack of legal powers of enforcement, and (3) lack of adequate water supply. The latter, however, is undoubtedly the most important factor.

The report expresses no doubt as to the prevalence of overcrowding in the mining regions of the country. There is in these regions a considerably larger proportion of the population living in one and two room houses than elsewhere; and over one-fifth of the population in the mining counties live more than three persons per room, the range in the eight counties being from 21.3 per cent to 39.7 per cent. The committee places the responsibility for overcrowding upon the local authorities, who fail to enforce what powers they have in the matter. Enforcement of existing powers would compel mine operators to erect more and larger houses.

Regarding the size of company houses, no exact figures are available. An estimate for a certain region gave 11 per cent of the total as one-room dwellings, 65 per cent as two-room dwellings, and 24 per cent as dwellings of three rooms or more. This excludes larger

houses of managers and others. In general, a half or more are two-room dwellings and a sixth to a fourth are one-room dwellings.

The report describes the houses as follows:

The typical miner's house has only one story, though in a few recent cases attics have been added, or cottages have been built on the double-flatted principle. In the older rows the houses are commonly "but and ben" or "single end." It is exceptional for them to be built back to back, but even when this is not the case the window in the back wall is either nonexistent or too small to be effective. The more recent rows consist for the most part of "through" houses of two apartments. There is usually a small square lobby inside the door. The kitchen, which also serves as living room, has two bed recesses in the wall opposite the fireplace. Usually these are open for their whole width and height, but may be partially screened by curtains. Opposite the window a door gives communication directly into the "room," which commonly has a fireplace on one side and a single bed place on the other. Dr. McVail estimates the average size of these apartments in the central coalfields as: Kitchen, 15 feet by 10 or 11 feet by 9 feet, its cubic capacity being about 1,400 cubic feet, or with the bed places about 2,000. "The room is of the same width and height, but is probably somewhat shorter from front to back."

Improved houses are slowly taking the place of old and defective houses. The larger houses are appreciated on the whole, though the response to the new standard is not immediate. The housewives are a factor in encouraging improved conditions.

Rents are generally low. The house is looked upon by the miner as a perquisite of his employment. There was a time when the use of the house was a part of the wages, and not even nominal rates were charged. This does not appear in practice to be far removed from the system by which employees have their rent deducted from their wages at the time of payment. Low rents have a bad effect both on the miner and the mine owner. Furthermore, low rents should be considered in the light of the fact that in some mining centers the "standard of habitability" is so low that rent in the ordinary sense does not enter into the minds of colliery owners or the miner tenant. The houses are looked upon as a part of the colliery plant—and that the least expensive for producing as large and remunerative an output as possible.

The proportion of wages paid in rent is usually about one-twelfth to one-tenth, or is even as low as one-seventeenth. The proportion is lower than that paid by store clerks—one-sixth to one-eighth; by skilled workmen in building trades—one-eighth to one-tenth; and by workers in miscellaneous trades—one-ninth to one-tenth. Miners not in company houses pay higher rates in proportion to wages.

The majority of the informants before the commission stated that the miners would willingly pay a higher rent if improved houses were provided. Complaint as to the rent charged was usually connected with a complaint as to the conditions of the house.

Because of these low rents the financial return on miners' houses is small. On 976 workmen's houses built since 1874 by one company in Lanarkshire there was a gross return of £7,167 (\$34,878.21), or 5.57 per cent on a house cost of £128,593 (\$625,797.83). The total annual expenditures amounted to £3,640 (\$17,714.06), or 2.83 per cent of the capital. Expenditures included 0.57 per cent for scavenging, 0.29 per cent for land, 1.15 per cent for taxes, and 0.82 per cent for repairs and materials. If depreciation is allowed for, the return would be reduced to 1.65 per cent. These figures do not take account of the proportion of rental expended in some years for permanent improvements.

Another company built 973 houses containing 1,678 dwellings, returning a gross rental of £5,360 19s. 7d. (\$26,089.20). Here the return is 2.83 per cent or 1.77 per cent after deduction has been made for depreciation.

Cost of upkeep and repair, including taxes, commonly amounts to 50 or 55 per cent of the rental received.

As to the extent of company housing in Scottish mining districts, only scant information is available. For the principal mining county—Lanarkshire—about 38.7 of the houses occupied by miners are owned or leased by the coal companies. Over the mining counties as a whole about 34 per cent of the miners live in company houses.

The policy of company control of housing is briefly adverted to by the commission. It is noted that both employers and employees regard the provision of houses by the employer as the second best course, but in isolated districts at all times, and in all districts for a considerable period before the war, the responsibility has been thrown more and more upon the employer as outside builders have shown no readiness to meet the situation.

As private enterprise has therefore failed to provide the necessary houses either in the mining industry or anywhere else, the commission concludes that the State must assume direct responsibility for housing, for only in that way can the existing shortage be overcome. For the provision of proper housing for miners the observation of town-planning principles in rural districts should be compulsory as at present in urban districts. There should be a limitation upon the number of houses per acre and provision made for garden and recreation grounds. The local authorities, too, should be given power of approval of all water and drainage schemes, introduction of water into houses, and provision of suitable and adequate sanitary conveniences, outbuildings, etc. Furthermore, to secure proper conditions of habitation the rural local authorities should have power to compel the proper maintenance of all premises and, more particu-

larly, to compel the provision of removable rubbish and garbage receptacles. While primary responsibility rests with the employer in the matter of subletting, there is much that the local authorities can do if adequate authority were given to them. The chief difficulty here is that it is in the interest of the employer to connive at overcrowding when there is a shortage of houses and great need of labor.

The recommendations of the minority of the commission do not differ fundamentally nor very greatly from those of the majority. They do not, however, lay as much stress on the evils of the policy of company housing as do the majority. It is suggested that trade-unionism furnishes an adequate safeguard against the misuse of the company house in time of labor disputes.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

ANNUAL REPORT OF THE FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

The war has served to emphasize the need for vocationally trained men and women and the want of facilities for vocational training, according to the first annual report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. To supply the need by making use of such facilities as are available the board has called a meeting for December 19 of those officials in the 48 States to discuss ways and means. In the call it is pointed out that the Army is in need of 200,000 men in 50 different trades. The war, so to speak, has found the United States "*vocationally unprepared.*" It has been the task of the board since its organization late in July of this year to proceed as rapidly as possible to perfect the machinery of cooperation with the States and with the other Federal departments.

The War Department has requested the board to organize courses throughout the country for the training of conscripted men of the second and subsequent drafts. Tuition is free and certificates of efficiency will be issued for the work done. As part of this work the board has organized 50 night schools to train radio and buzzer operators. About 5,000 are enrolled in these classes.

At the request of the Shipping Board the vocational board is now engaged in making a vocational survey of the shipbuilding occupations, analyzing particularly those occupations in outside industries very similar to or almost identical with the shipbuilding occupations. For workers in such occupations little training will be required for fitting them into the shipbuilding industry.

Another war activity to which the vocational board has addressed itself is an investigation into the question of vocational reeducation and placement of disabled soldiers and sailors.

This investigation, which is already well in hand, includes the study not only of the probable number of men thus returned, but also a review of the economic issues involved, a discussion of methods of financing and administering the work of reeducation, an examination of possible agencies and methods of cooperation, and a study of the kinds of workshops necessary to promote further vocational education in these classes. In this task the board has been able to secure the services of experts who have brought to the problem a fund

of special knowledge, without which progress would have been impossible. Plans are under way for cooperation with the Office of the Surgeon General of the War Department.

The board comments, as follows, on the importance of the act creating it:

By far the most important event of the 12 months just passed in vocational education was the passage of the Smith-Hughes Act. This event has marked the beginning of a new era in vocational education in the United States. From now on vocational education is a matter to which the energies of both State and Federal governments will be directed. Its establishment means much for the defense as well as for the prosperity of the people of the country. It means an immediate extension of our secondary public school system so as to furnish practical education for the wage-earning employments. It means, furthermore, that this extension will be carefully planned and ordered. It means an end to haphazard extension of vocational education. It means that a program can be agreed upon and can be developed progressively from year to year.

THE NEGRO WORKER AND HIS EDUCATION.

SUMMARIZED BY W. CARTER RYAN, JR.

The economic, social, and industrial problems inherent in the existence of a racial group of ten millions of Negroes in a nation of a hundred millions are graphically set forth by Dr. Thomas Jesse Jones, of the Phelps Stokes Fund and the Bureau of Education, as the background for his study of Negro education in the United States.¹ This study has been carried on during the past four years, and included personal visits to every private or higher institution for Negroes in the United States.

"Inadequacy and poverty are the outstanding characteristics of every type and grade of education for Negroes in the United States," declares Dr. Jones. He points out, however, that despite all limitations much excellent instruction, through public and private auspices, has been given to the colored people and that they have been able to achieve a degree of progress that speaks well for their future.

Conceding that many leaders of the colored race have been more eager for literary and collegiate instruction than for the teacher-training, agricultural, or industrial instruction that is considered essential, Dr. Jones shows that the educational ideals of the past have everywhere been largely literary and collegiate, especially in the South; that the Negroes have not had the opportunity of observing the increasing attention given to science, industry, and agriculture in education; and, further, that the colored man is naturally suspicious of any departure from the methods and customs which he believes to be still emphasized by his white neighbor. As Dr. Jones says: "The

¹ Negro Education, U. S. Bureau of Education, Bul. Nos. 38, 39. 1916.

various forms of economic bondage to which the Negroes have been subjected by white people seem to them ample evidence for their distrust of any economic feature in their schools."

It may be noted in passing that the Negro is not the only worker who is suspicious of attempts on the part of other groups in society to impose industrial education upon the masses—witness labor's suspicion of certain of the less tactful advocates of the Gary system.

Dr. Jones endeavors to show to the colored people the real possibilities of industrial education as conceived by Gen. Armstrong and advanced by his pupil, Booker T. Washington, namely, adaptation of all education, whether it be literary or industrial, to the needs of the pupil or community. It was the strength of these two men that they regarded industrial and agricultural skill and practical knowledge of household arts as important by-products of the school activities. They kept also in view as the ultimate aim the development of manhood and womanhood through "the common tasks of the common day." Dr. Jones emphasizes the importance of industrial education for the advancement of the Negro in the following significant words:

"No group of people can obtain a satisfactory position in life until they are able to make a reasonable contribution to the economic welfare of their community. The moral and civic status is closely related to the economic. The Negroes are at present overwhelmingly in unskilled occupations. A larger percentage of their women and children are working outside the home than is the case with any other group in the United States. While the race has made real progress in the acquisition of property since the Civil War, a much larger proportion of Negro breadwinners should be prepared to enter the skilled trades and their economic status should be elevated sufficiently to enable the children to attend school and the women to give more time to the moral and hygienic development of the home. Such a development of the Negroes is not only necessary to the welfare of the race but essential to the progress of every Southern State."

NUMBER OF INSTITUTIONS INVESTIGATED.

In all, Dr. Jones's study covered 747 institutions. These institutions are listed and described in Volume II (Bulletin 39), Volume I being reserved for interpretative views of various phases of Negro education. The public facilities for industrial education of Negroes are practically limited to the 16 agricultural and mechanical schools maintained chiefly by Federal funds. It is Dr. Jones's conviction that while most of these institutions are fairly well

equipped to teach the more important trades and to train classes in household arts, only a few of them teach trades effectively. Practically all of them subordinate the industrial training to the literary instruction. Only three cities—Washington, D. C., Charleston, S. C., and Columbus, Ga.—maintain industrial schools for Negroes. There are 13 States which also provide some instruction in industrial courses.

It is largely because of this meager provision by the public authorities that the private industrial schools have thrived. There are 206 private schools that offer some industrial instruction, but the Jones report considers that in fully half of these schools the industrial training is not only limited in quantity but ineffective in result. The work ranges all the way from a small amount of sewing and cooking to the numerous array of trades effectively taught at Hampton and Tuskegee. One item of promise which makes it likely that the public institutions will soon become worthy rivals of the private industrial schools is the appointment of State supervisors of colored schools in 11 Southern States, and county industrial teachers in 163 counties in the South.

AGRICULTURAL TRAINING.

For a people 73 per cent rural, as Dr. Jones points out, vocational training must be largely agricultural. Forty per cent of all persons engaged in southern agriculture are colored. Important as this type of education is to the Negro and to the South as a whole, the facilities are entirely inadequate. The 16 agricultural and mechanical schools maintained with the help of Federal funds have large farms and considerable equipment, but only a small number of them make adequate educational use of the farms or the equipment. There are 56 private institutions with ample farm land on which instruction in agriculture could be given, but very few of them make effective use of their facilities, Hampton and Tuskegee being the only ones where the trades courses are comparable to those in the agricultural colleges for white students.

GENERAL PUBLIC SCHOOL FACILITIES.

According to the Jones report, public schools for Negroes have shared comparatively little in the educational advancement of the past 15 years. At the present time, however, the more progressive southern leaders are realizing that the economic, hygienic, and moral welfare of their sections requires at least the elementary education of the Negro, with proper attention to industrial training and the laws of health. As a measure of the comparative status of public

schools for Negroes, a table of teachers' salaries is presented. From this table it appears that in the Northern and Western States the average teachers' salaries paid for each child 6 to 14 years of age range from \$15.78 to \$36.30 per annum for all pupils, and in the Southern States from \$5.27 to \$13.79 for white pupils and from \$1.44 to \$8.53 for colored pupils. Dr. Jones qualifies his statement with the comment that the South has maintained a double system of schools on finances limited both by the poverty due to conditions arising out of the Civil War and by ineffective systems of taxation. He concludes, however, that "the per capita expenditure for Negro schools, by whatever standard measured, is utterly inadequate."

There is considerable misunderstanding as to the extent to which private funds have supplemented public provision. While private funds have been given with great liberality for colored schools in the South, Dr. Jones shows that the pupils in private schools constitute only 4 per cent of the Negro children 6 to 14 years of age, and 7 per cent of the pupils attending elementary schools. Furthermore, he declares, "Under present conditions in the South many of the private schools are compelled to undertake work that is not suited to their facilities. With an adequate public school system, these private institutions could devote their income and equipment much more effectively to the improvement of the Negro race and, therefore, to the assistance of the South."

IMPORTANCE OF THE NEGRO TO SOUTHERN INDUSTRY.

In the summary section on industrial education Dr. Jones analyzes the welfare of the South and the occupational distribution of Negroes. He shows that the South is rich in economic resources, but poor both in the quantity and the quality of its labor supply and that the industrial education of both the white and the colored youth is undoubtedly the most important element in the economic development of the section. In his view the hope of the South for an improved labor supply is not immigration but effective education both of the white and the colored youth. After all the years of tremendous immigration to America the South had, in 1910, only 726,171 persons of foreign birth, or less than 5 per cent of the total number of immigrants. Special importance attaches to this statement from the threatened emigration to the North. Dr. Jones quotes a prominent North Carolinian as follows:

I believe that the Negro should be educated and that industrial education is what he most needs. But we must not overlook the fact that he has other shortcomings besides that of economic inefficiency. His present condition is not due to a low earning capacity alone, but also to low ideals of living. We

must guard against any kind of one-sided development and bear in mind that the right kind of Negro education is twofold: To increase the Negro's industrial efficiency, and at the same time and with the same speed raise his standard of living. The true type of industrial education not only makes the Negro a better workman, but also causes him to build a better home and live a worthier life.

The report declares industrial education to be of as great importance to the colored people themselves as to the Nation of which they are a part. Notwithstanding the progress that has been made, the Negroes as a race still have a comparatively low economic status. They are as yet "hewers of wood and drawers of water." The only groups forming a substantial proportion of all Negro breadwinners are the laborers, farmers, and laundresses. Other than farmers, no skilled or professional group forms even 1 per cent of the total. It is apparent, therefore, that the possibilities of the race in skilled occupations have only begun. In view of the increased demand of the South for skilled workmen, it is vitally important to the colored people that they grasp every opportunity for industrial education.

College and professional education are also urged by the bureau's report as of real importance to develop trained leaders for the race. Throughout the report the point is made that the object of industrial and other education for the Negro, as for any group, is not merely to make more valuable workmen for industry, but to give men and women the means for upward development. Dr. Jones has carefully pointed out in his section on industrial education that "Great as the economic value of industrial education is, it is by no means equal to the educational value resulting from the interaction of hand and mind in trade activities and from the adaptation of the school curriculum, not only to the economic, but also to the intellectual and spiritual needs of the individual and the community. * * * The broad adaptation to these needs, realized in the effective industrial schools, emphasizes the study of physiology and hygiene, physical science, English, teacher training, sociology, civics, gardening, and other theory and practice required to enable the pupil to be of the greatest service to himself and his neighborhood."

LABOR LAWS.

LABOR PROVISIONS OF THE NEW CONSTITUTION OF THE STATE OF VERA CRUZ.

The new constitution of the State of Vera Cruz-Llave, promulgated on September 16 in Córdoba, the capital, and on October 11 in Vera Cruz, devotes a whole section to the question of labor and the relations of workmen to employers in order to prevent the abuses, especially in the various forms of peonage, which existed in the past. A translation of the section in full follows:

SECTION VII.—*In regard to labor and social welfare (provision).*

ARTICLE 128. The legislature of the State shall issue laws on the subject of labor, which laws shall be based on the requirements of this locality, without violating the following fundamentals, and shall govern the labor of workmen, day laborers, employees, domestic servants, and artisans, and, in general, every labor contract.

I. The duration of the maximum workday shall be eight hours. The maximum working time for night labor shall be seven hours, and the corresponding wages shall be higher than that for day labor by not less than 50 per cent. For this purpose, day labor is understood to be that carried on between the hours of 6 a. m. and 6 p. m., and night labor that carried on between the hours of 6 p. m. and 6 a. m.

II. Unhealthful and dangerous work is forbidden for women in general and for boys under 16 years. Neither may engage in nightwork in factories, and in commercial establishments neither may work after 10 o'clock at night.

III. The maximum work day of children over 12 and less than 16 shall be six hours. The labor of children less than 12 years old shall not be made the object of a contract.

IV. For every six days of work a workman must have at least one day for rest.

V. During the three months prior to childbirth women shall not be employed at labor requiring considerable physical effort. In the month following childbirth it shall be obligatory for them to rest, and they shall receive for this time their entire salary and retain their right to employment and other rights which they shall have acquired under their contract. During the lactation period they shall have two rest periods each day, of one-half hour each, for nursing their children.

VI. The minimum wage which a workman shall receive shall be one deemed sufficient, in view of the conditions in each locality, to satisfy the normal needs of the life of a laboring man, his education and honest pleasures, considering him as the head of a family. In every agricultural, commercial, manufacturing, or mining enterprise the workmen shall enjoy the right of participation in the profits, which shall be regulated as indicated in Section IX.

VII. For equal work there must be a correspondingly equal wage, without taking into account sex or nationality.

VIII. The minimum wages shall be free from distraint, set-off, or discount.

IX. The fixing of the rate of minimum wages and of a participation in the profits to which Section VI refers shall be made by special committees which shall be formed in each municipality and be subordinate to the central board of conciliation which shall be established in the State.

X. The wages must be paid in money that is legally current, and no payment of wages shall be made in merchandise, promissory notes, tokens, or any other substitute for money.

XI. When, under extraordinary circumstances, the hours of a workday must be increased, 100 per cent shall be paid in addition to the wages fixed for normal hours. In no case shall the extraordinary work exceed three hours a day or occur on more than three successive days.

Boys under 16 and women of any age shall not be allowed to do this kind of work.

XII. In every agricultural, manufacturing, or mining business or any other kind of work the employer shall be obliged to furnish the workmen comfortable and hygienic living quarters, for which the rental shall not exceed one-half per cent monthly of the assessed value of the properties.

Schools, infirmaries, and other services necessary to the community shall also be established. If the businesses are located in towns and over 100 workmen are therein employed, the first of these provisions shall be obligatory.

XIII. In addition, in such centers of labor, when the population exceeds 200 inhabitants, a plot of ground of not less than 5,000 square meters shall be reserved for the establishment of public markets, the installation of buildings destined for municipal purposes, and for recreative centers. In every center of labor the establishment of places for the sale of intoxicating liquors and of gambling houses is prohibited.

XIV. The employers shall be responsible for industrial accidents and for occupational diseases of the workmen, suffered because of, or in the exercise of, the work in which they are engaged; in this connection the employers must pay proper indemnity, depending on whether death has resulted or simply temporary or permanent incapacity for work, in accordance with the provisions of the laws. This responsibility shall exist even in case the employer has contracted for the work through a third person.

XV. The employer shall be obliged to observe in the arrangement of his establishment the legal provisions in regard to hygiene and health and to adopt adequate measures to prevent accidents in the use of machines, tools, and working materials, as well as to organize the work in such a way that there may be the greatest guaranty for the health and life of the workmen that may be compatible with the nature of the business, under the penalties which the laws may provide for this purpose.

XVI. The workmen as well as the employers shall have the right to unite in defense of their respective interests by forming syndicates, occupational associations, etc.

XVII. The laws shall recognize strikes and lockouts as a right of the workmen and employers.

XVIII. Strikes shall be lawful when they have as their purpose the securing of an equilibrium between the different factors of production, harmonizing the rights of labor with those of capital. In public employments it shall be obligatory upon the workmen to give notice to the board of conciliation and

arbitration of the state 10 days in advance as to the day fixed for suspending work. Strikes shall be considered as unlawful only when the majority of the strikers perform acts of violence against persons or property, or, in case of war, when they belong to establishments and services which depend on the Government. The workmen in military manufacturing establishments of the Government of the Republic shall not be included in the provisions of this section because they are considered as belonging to the National Army.

XIX. Lockouts shall be lawful only when the excess of production shall make it necessary to suspend work in order to maintain prices within a limit of the cost, previous approval being secured from the board of conciliation and arbitration of the state.

XX. The differences or conflicts between capital and labor shall be submitted to the decision of a board of conciliation and arbitration formed by an equal number of representatives of the laborers and employers with one representative of the Government.

XXI. If an employer shall refuse to submit his differences to arbitration or accept the finding declared by the board, the labor contract shall be considered at an end and he shall be obliged to indemnify the workmen by the payment of the amount of three months' wages in addition to whatever liability may be incurred by him as a result of the conflict. If on the contrary this should be true in the case of the workmen, the labor contract shall be considered at an end.

XXII. An employer who discharges a laborer without good cause, whether for having become a member of an association or syndicate or for having taken part in a lawful strike, shall be compelled, at the election of the workman, to fulfill the terms of the contract or to indemnify him with the amount of three months' wages. Likewise he shall incur this obligation when the workman shall give up his work, due to unfair dealing on the part of the employer or due to the workman's receiving at his employer's hands maltreatment, either of his own person or of that of his wife, parents, children, brothers, or sisters. The employer can not avoid this liability when the ill treatment has been administered by employees or agents who work with his consent or tolerance.

XXIII. Credits in favor of workmen for salary or wages earned during the preceding year and for indemnities shall have preference over any other in case the business goes into the hands of creditors or goes bankrupt.

XXIV. In cases of debts contracted by workmen on account of their employers, their associates, agents, or employees the workman himself shall alone be liable, and in no case and for no reason can the debt be exacted from members of his family, nor shall said debts be collected to an amount in excess of the wages of the workman for one month.

XXV. The service of finding employment for laborers shall be free to them, whether effected by municipal offices, labor exchanges, or any other official or private institution.

XXVI. Every labor contract entered into by a Mexican and a foreign employer must be legalized by the proper municipal authority and viséed by the consul of the nation to which the laborer is to go, with the understanding that in addition to the ordinary clauses it shall be clearly specified that the expenses of repatriation remain a charge on the employer making the contract.

XXVII. The following conditions shall be null and void and shall not obligate the contracting parties even if expressed in the contract:

(a) Those which stipulate a workday that is notoriously excessive when the nature of the work is taken into consideration.

(b) Those which fix a salary which is not remunerative in the judgment of the boards of conciliation and arbitration of the State.

(c) Those which stipulate a period longer than one week for the payment of day wages.

(d) Those which designate a place of recreation, a restaurant, café, tavern, saloon, or shop for paying wages except in the case of employees of such establishments.

(e) Those which embody a direct or indirect obligation to purchase articles of consumption in determined shops or places.

(f) Those which permit the retention of any part of the wages as a fine.

(g) Those which constitute a waiver on the part of the workman of the indemnities to which he is entitled because of industrial accidents or occupational diseases, damages for nonfulfillment of a contract, or for a discharge from work.

(h) All other stipulations which imply a waiver of some right vested in the workman by labor laws.

ARBITRATION AND CONCILIATION.

CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, NOVEMBER 16 TO DECEMBER 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 November 16 and December 15, 1917, in 55 labor disputes. The companies involved, the number of employees affected, and the results secured, so far as information is available, were as follows:

STATEMENT SHOWING NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, NOV. 16 TO DEC. 15, 1917.

Name.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Strike, Atlas and Lakeside foundries, Detroit, Mich.....	200	3,500	Commissioner learned this was a matter for Department of Justice.
The Wm. F. Taubel Hosiery Works, Inc., Riverside, N. J.	381	619	Company had secured 230 women to take place of strikers. Most of strikers have obtained work elsewhere.
Controversy, Consolidated Coal Co., Frostburg, Md.....	90	275	Adjusted.
Controversy, machinists, Plainfield, N. J.	2,000	Management of company does not anticipate trouble unless brought about by business agents.
Strike, sizers and formers, John B. Stetson Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	1,235	Pending.
Strike, Morse Twist Drill Co., New Bedford, Mass.....	920	1,360	Do.
Strike, Bear Creek Lumber Co., Leakesville, La.....	250	Adjusted.
Lockout, carpenters, Naul Construction Co., Wilmington, N. C.	49	Do.
Controversy, Machinery Belt Workers, N. Y.....	273	50	Do.
Threatened strike, Eckhart Mines, Frostburg, Md.....	90	Pending.
Strike, railway clerks, Denver & Ft. Worth R. R. Co., Ft. Worth, Tex.	73	176	Adjusted.
Strike, machinists, American Woodworking Machinery Co., Aurora, Ill.	135	160	Pending.
Threatened strike, Emmonds Coal Co., Bayard, W. Va...	175	Do.
Controversy, firemen, Passaic and Garfield, N. J.....	400	13,000	Do.
Strike, clerks and freight handlers, 9 railroads and 5 steamship lines entering Norfolk, Va.	2,790	3,500	Do.
Controversy, Cincinnati, Indianapolis & Western R. R. Co. and its carmen, Indianapolis, Ind.	150	200	Adjusted.

STATEMENT SHOWING NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, NOV. 16 TO DEC. 15, 1917—Concluded.

Name.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Strike, Lawrence Silk Mills, Paterson, N. J.			Adjusted.
Strike, bayonet straighteners, Remington Arms Co., Bridgeport, Conn.	52		Do.
Strike, Lake Torpedo Boat Co., Bridgeport, Conn.			Pending.
Threatened strike, Locomobile Auto Co., Bridgeport, Conn.	1,500	500	Adjusted.
Strike, Boilermakers, William Greaver Tank Works and Sinclair Oil Refining Co., East Chicago, Ind.	65		Pending.
Strike, piano and organ makers, Lyon & Healy Co., Chicago, Ill.	370	50	Do.
Controversy, The Heimn Co. and its bookbinders, Milwaukee, Wis.	73	100	Adjusted.
Controversy, Missouri Zinc Co. and its smelters, Beckmeyer, Ill.	55	100	Do.
Strike, street car employees, St. Paul and Minneapolis, Minn.			Pending.
Strike, jewelry workers, Chicago, Ill.			Do.
Controversy, Plumbers and steam fitters, Curtiss Aeroplane Co., Buffalo, N. Y.	1		Adjusted.
Controversy, Todd Protectograph Co., Rochester, N. Y.	4		When commissioner arrived company had places of men filled, and refused to give them work until there was a vacancy.
Controversy, Utah Light & Power Co., Salt Lake, Utah.			Pending.
Controversy, mine, mill, and smelter workers, Herculaneum, Mo.	885	100	Do.
Strike, operators and cementers, Newark Rubber Co., Newark, N. J.	100	40	Adjusted.
Controversy, machinists, Swift Packing Co., East St. Louis, Ill.			Pending.
Strike, Sinclair Oil Refining Co., Coffeyville, Kans.	206	500	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, packing industries, Chicago and entire West.	30,000	100,000	Pending.
Strike, shell shop employees, Pollack Steel Co., Cincinnati, Ohio	75		Do.
Controversy, blacksmiths, Rock Island Arsenal, Chicago, Ill.			Do.
Controversy, Sunnyside Electric Co. and its electrical workers, near Wheeling, W. Va.	25	200	Adjusted.
Controversy, Michigan Central R. R. Co., and its machinists, boilermakers, and blacksmiths, Detroit, Mich.			Pending.
Strike, street railway employees, Charleston, W. Va.	57	17	Do.
Controversy, Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. and its clerks, Akron, Ohio.	34	(1)	Adjusted.
Controversy, United Press and its telegraphers, New York.	150		Do.
Controversy, A. G. Cuthbert Co., Chicago, Ill.			Pending.
Threatened strike, electrotypers, Boston, Mass.			Do.
Controversy, Coal & Coke R. R. Co., Gassaway, W. Va.	185		Adjusted.
Controversy, Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific R. R. Co. and United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, Rock Island, Ill.			Pending.
Strike, shirt manufacturing industry, Mahoney City, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, Brotherhood of Railway Carmen and Southern Pacific R. R. Co., Los Angeles, Cal.			Do.
Controversy, Tintic mine owners and employees, Eureka, Utah.	1,500		Do.
Controversy, Chicago & Great Western R. R. Co. and its shop crafts, Oelwein, Iowa.			Do.
Contract for electrical work, building leased by Government, St. Louis, Mo.			Do.
Controversy, Crucible Steel Co. and Northern Iron Co., Port Henry and Standish, N. Y.			Do.
Controversy, International Arms & Fuse Co., Bloomfield, N. J.			Do.
Controversy, Hercules Powder Co. and metal trade-unions, Chula Vista, Cal.			Do.
Strike, J. Ring and Sons, Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, meat cutters, Kansas City, Mo.			Do.

¹ All clerks on system.

Cases noted as pending in statement of November 15 have been disposed of as follows:

Strike, clerks, Atlantic Coast Line Railroad Co. Adjusted.

Strike, American-British Mfg. Co., Providence, R. I. Adjusted.

Controversy, Pacific States Telephone & Telegraph Co. and its electrical workers, involving California, Washington, Oregon, Idaho, and Nevada. Adjusted.

Controversy, Pacific Steamship Co. and International Longshoremen's Union, San Diego, Cal. Adjusted.

Threatened strike, blacksmiths, Texas Shipbuilding Co., Bath, Me. Adjusted.

Threatened strike, blacksmiths, Bath Iron Works, Bath, Me. Adjusted.

Controversy, Port Newark Terminal, Newark, N. J. Strike order rescinded; men returned to work pending investigation and adjustment.

Controversy, longshoremen and employing stevedores, San Pedro, Cal. Adjusted.

Controversy, oil and gas well workers and oil operators, California. Adjusted.

Lockout, Seaton Garment Co., Princeton, Ind. Plant removed to Olney, Ill., prior to commissioners' arrival.

Threatened strike, machinists, Cleveland, Cincinnati, Chicago & St. Louis R. R. Co. (Big Four), Indianapolis, Ind. Adjusted.

Controversy, mechanical crafts, Toledo & Cincinnati division, Baltimore & Ohio R. R. Co. Adjusted.

Controversy, Kelly-Springfield Tire Co., Akron, Ohio. Adjusted.

Walkout, ship carpenters, McBride & Law shipyards and Beaumont Shipbuilding Dry Docks Co., Beaumont, Tex. Men returned to work pending decision from Washington regarding universal wage scale of 62½ cents per hour.

Strike, machinists, Burns Bros.' Garage, N. Y. Burns Bros., who are in the coal business, use automobiles for making deliveries. They maintained a shop where their automobiles were repaired and in which only seven men were employed. When the men quit they closed the shop and are now having their work done by the manufacturer from whom they buy.

Strike, Nestor Manufacturing Co., New York. Unable to adjust.

REPORT OF THE UNITED STATES BOARD OF MEDIATION AND CONCILIATION.

The act creating the United States Board of Mediation and Conciliation was approved July 15, 1913. The board is concerned in the settlement of labor disputes arising in transportation; it takes jurisdiction over conductors, engineers, and trainmen. The board is not required to make reports of its activities, "but in view of the extreme gravity of the railroad situation, and because the relation of the railroads and their employees is a prime factor in that situation," the board has deemed it advisable to issue a report of its operations.

During the four and a half years of its existence the board has given its services in 71 controversies. Of these, 52 were completely settled by mediation, 6 partly by mediation and partly by arbitra-

tion, 8 wholly by arbitration, 3 by parties themselves, and one by congressional action, while only one remains unsettled.

Since June 30, 1917, there have been 13 additional controversies before the board, of which 5 have been fully settled by mediation, 1 by mediation and arbitration, 3 are under arbitration at present, and 4 are in various stages of mediation.

"In no instance has a strike followed the intervention of the board," it is noted, although any one of the disputes handled by the board was sufficiently serious to threaten the interruption of service on the roads involved. The experience of the board is highly favorable to the method of mediation as a means of settling labor disputes. "It seems to be the best plan yet devised for bringing to a peaceful settlement the disputes which most frequently occur." Settlements by mediation, it is added, "are much more satisfactory to the parties than any form of mediation," because they are secured by the common consent and to the mutual satisfaction of the parties. "There is no decision against either party, and neither of them suffers defeat."

AWARD OF BOARD OF ARBITRATION IN NEW YORK HARBOR WAGE ADJUSTMENT.

The following award was made under date of November 16, 1917, by the Board of Arbitration, New York Harbor Wage Adjustment, United States Shipping Board, in regard to wages and working conditions of employees engaged in the operation of tugs, barges, lighters, ferryboats, and other harbor marine equipment in the port of New York, also river vessels engaged in carrying on the commerce of the port of New York.

Whereas on October 20, 1917, representatives of owners and operators of tugs, barges, lighters, ferryboats and other harbor marine equipment in the port of New York did sign an agreement with the United States Shipping Board as follows:

"We, the undersigned owners and operators of tugs, barges, lighters, ferryboats and other harbor marine equipment in the port of New York, hereby agree with the United States Shipping Board that, during the period of war, we will submit all differences concerning wages or conditions of labor involved in the operation of such marine equipment which can not first be adjusted by the employers and the employees to the decision of a Government board of three men, to be appointed as follows: One by the United States Shipping Board, one by the Department of Commerce, and one by the Department of Labor.

"This Government board shall have no authority to pass upon the question of open or closed shop, or the recognition of unions, but we agree that there shall be no discrimination of any kind against union men, and the board shall have power to determine questions of discrimination."

And whereas representatives of labor employed in the operation of tugs, barges, lighters, ferryboats, and other harbor marine equipment in the port of New York, did on the same day enter into an agreement with the Shipping Board as follows:

"We, the undersigned representatives of labor employed in the operation of tugs, barges, lighters, ferryboats, and other harbor marine equipment in the port of New York, hereby agree with the United States Shipping Board that during the period of the war, we will submit all differences concerning wages or conditions of labor involved in the operation of such marine equipment, which can not first be adjusted by the employers and the employees, to the decision of a Government board of three men, to be appointed as follows: One by the United States Shipping Board, one by the Department of Commerce, and one by the Department of Labor.

"This Government board shall have no authority to pass upon the question of open or closed shop or the recognition of unions, but there shall be no discrimination of any kind against union men, and the board shall have power to determine questions of discrimination; and pending the decision of said board work shall continue uninterruptedly."

And whereas under the agreements above cited a board of arbitration, New York Harbor Wage Adjustment, United States Shipping Board, was appointed as contemplated in the above agreements, to wit: Capt. William B. Baker, of the United States Army, was appointed by the Shipping Board; Ethelbert Stewart by the Department of Labor, and George R. Putnam by the Department of Commerce, and this board having elected Capt. William B. Baker as its chairman and having considered all material evidence in the case, hereby announce to all parties concerned, as its award, the following:

I.—HARBOR AND RIVER TUGS AND PASSENGER VESSELS PROPELLED BY STEAM, OTHER THAN THOSE HEREINAFTER DESIGNATED AS FERRYBOATS, LIGHTERS, AND TIDEWATER BOATS.

(a) MINIMUM WAGE SCALE.

Deck department.

Captains: The minimum rates of pay of captains shall be based upon the equivalent single cylinder diameter of the engine with which boat is equipped, as follows:

	Per month and board.
10 inches up to and including 15 inches.....	\$125. 00
Over 15 inches and including 18 inches.....	135. 00
20 inches and over.....	145. 00
Licensed mates or pilots required to navigate the boat.....	125. 00
Licensed mates on tugs doing transport work.....	100. 00
Licensed deck mates on passenger and excursion vessels, not engaged in the handling or navigation of boat.....	90. 00
First deck hands, two crew boats.....	65. 00
Deck hands, other than first, two crew boats.....	60. 00
Deck hands, when there is but one such employee during period of 24 hours.....	65. 00

	Per month and board.
<i>Engine department.</i>	
Engineers: Rates graduated on same basis as for captain, as follows:	
10 inches up to and including 15 inches-----	\$115.00
Over 15 inches and including 18 inches-----	125.00
20 inches and over-----	135.00
Assistant engineer: \$10 less per month than engineer on same class of boats.	
Night engineer: When in charge and doing the same class of work as is required of day man, the pay shall be the same as the day engineer.	
Oilers-----	65.00
Firemen, where two or more are employed-----	60.00
Firemen, where there is but one such employee during period of 24 hours-----	65.00
<i>Other employees.</i>	
Cooks on craft employing more than one deck hand in 24 hours-----	\$60 per month and board.
Cooks on craft employing but one deck hand in 24 hours-----	62 per month and board.
Float men-----	60 per month and board.

(b) WORKING CONDITIONS.

1. Where maintenance or subsistence is not furnished the above employees, 60 cents per day or \$18 per month shall be allowed in lieu thereof.
2. The length of day is to be governed by the Federal law.
3. One day off each week with pay shall be granted to all employees, the day to be determined by the employer.
4. One full week's vacation with pay shall be granted to each of the above employees who has been in the employ of one company for a period of one year or more.
5. Car fare to be paid by employers when boats are to change crews at other than a designated point.
6. Employers and employees are urged to reduce overtime to a minimum, but when overtime is required such overtime shall be paid for at time and one-half.

II.--FERRYBOATS.

(a) MINIMUM WAGE SCALE, ALL WITHOUT BOARD.

	Per month.
<i>Deck department.</i>	
Captains or pilots-----	\$160
Wheelsmen-----	80
Deck hands-----	70
<i>Engine department.</i>	
Engineers-----	150
Oilers, required to have U. S. marine engineers' license-----	85
Oilers, not required to have U. S. marine engineers' license-----	80
Firemen-----	80

(b) WORKING CONDITIONS.

1. One day off each week with pay shall be granted to all the above-named employees, the day to be determined by the employer.

2. One full week's vacation with pay shall be granted to each of the above-named employees who has been in the employ of the company for a period of one year or more.

III.—TIDEWATER BOATS, THAT IS, COAL BOATS, GRAIN BOATS, OR OPEN-DECK SCOWS.

There is hereby established a minimum monthly rate of \$70 without board for captains.

IV.—LIGHTERS AND BARGES NOT INCLUDED UNDER III.

There is hereby established the following minimum monthly rates for captains:

- (a) For barges having heavy steam hoisting gear of 15 tons capacity and over..... \$90.00
- (b) For barges having light steam or gasoline hoisting gear of less than 15 tons capacity..... 85.00
- (c) For covered barges and barges with hand hoisting gear..... 77.00

For watching at night, if required, \$1 per night shall be paid for covered barges, loaded barges where man is not required to be on deck and unloaded barges, and \$1.50 per night per man where man is required to be on deck.

All car fares in excess of 10 cents to be paid by the employers for men within the metropolitan district, and all car fares to be paid by employers when on company business.

Nothing in this award shall be construed to decrease the pay or allowance, or to increase the hours of labor now in effect, or that were in effect on or prior to November 1, 1917.

All wage rates, allowances, and working conditions provided for in this award shall be effective as of November 1, 1917.

(Signed) W. B. BAKER, *Captain, U. S. A.,
Chairman, representing U. S. Shipping Board.*

(Signed) G. R. PUTNAM,
Department of Commerce.

(Signed) ETHELBERG STEWART,
Department of Labor.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN GERMANY, 1916.¹

The August issue of the journal of the German Department of Labor Statistics (*Reichs-Arbeitsblatt*) gives a summary of the figures relating to labor disputes in 1916. These numbered 240 (all of which were strikes) and involved 124,188 workpeople. As will appear from the following table the labor disputes of 1916 show a considerable advance on 1915, both as regards the number of persons involved and the number of days lost; on the other hand, the days lost in 1916, both actually and in relation to the number of disputes, were much fewer than the average for the five years immediately preceding the outbreak of the war.

Year.	Number of disputes.	Number of work-people directly involved.	Number of working days lost.
1909-1913 ¹	2,595	327,593	11,190,494
1914.....	26	95,140	2,843,895
1915.....	141	12,866	45,511
1916.....	240	124,188	245,404

¹ Average.

The groups of trades affected most seriously by the 1916 disputes, taking the estimated number of days lost as the criterion, were mining (100,121 days lost), metal (37,900), and engineering (5,307). In these three groups together the aggregate loss in working days amounted to 58 per cent of the total lost in all trades combined. From the point of view of the workpeople 27 (or 11.3 per cent) of the disputes were fully successful, 130 (54.2 per cent) partly so, and 83 (34.5 per cent) wholly unsuccessful.

In a notice of the report referred to above the Berlin journal *Soziale Praxis* of 23d of August makes the suggestion that the value of the statistics issued by the Imperial Statistical Office would be enhanced if they were secured through the cooperation of the trade-unions rather than (as now) through returns collected by the police authorities.

¹ The Labour Gazette, London, November, 1917, p. 403.

IMMIGRATION.

IMMIGRATION IN SEPTEMBER, 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, or 37.5 per cent. There was also an increase from month to month during 7 of the 12 months in 1916. During the current year the figures for the first three months show a considerable decrease from month to month. The decrease from the preceding month for January, February, and March, 1917, is 19.9, 22.3, and 19.4 per cent, respectively. For April, however, the number of immigrant aliens admitted shows an increase of 32.3 per cent over the number admitted in March. As compared with April, the figures for May show a decrease of 48.9 per cent. The figures for June indicate an increase of 5.5 per cent over those for May. During July immigration reached a very low point, only 9,367 immigrant aliens having been admitted, a total even smaller than that for May, which was the smallest total for any month in many years. As compared with figures for July, however, those for August show an increase of 7.3 per cent. In September the number fell to 9,228, or 139 smaller than the number admitted in July. As compared with August the figures for September show a decrease of 8.2 per cent. These facts are brought out in the following table:

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	¹ 19.9
February.....	59,156	46,873	13,873	24,740	19,238	¹ 22.3
March.....	96,958	92,621	19,263	27,586	15,512	¹ 19.4
April.....	136,371	119,885	24,532	30,560	20,523	32.3
May.....	137,262	107,796	26,069	31,021	10,487	¹ 48.9
June.....	176,261	71,728	22,598	30,764	11,095	5.5
July.....	138,244	60,377	21,504	25,035	9,367	¹ 15.6
August.....	126,180	37,706	21,949	29,975	10,047	7.3
September.....	136,247	29,143	24,513	36,398	9,228	¹ 8.2
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

¹ Decrease.

Classified by races, the number of immigrant aliens admitted into and emigrant aliens departing from the United States during September, 1916 and 1917, was as follows:

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED AND EMIGRANT ALIENS DEPARTED FROM THE UNITED STATES, SEPTEMBER, 1916 AND 1917.

Race.	Admitted.		Departed.	
	September, 1916.	September, 1917.	September, 1916.	September, 1917.
African (black).....	606	669	109	74
Armenian.....	202	21	39	290
Bohemian and Moravian.....	25	20	2	4
Bulgarian, Servian, Montenegrin.....	110	10	10	43
Chinese.....	145	231	192	142
Croatian and Slovenian.....	39	4	19
Cuban.....	488	322	144	94
Dalmatian, Bosnian, Herzegovinian.....	8	1	4
Dutch and Flemish.....	741	127	96	48
East Indian.....	13	9	2	1
English.....	3,042	1,364	607	1,201
Finnish.....	452	193	47	66
French.....	1,874	605	256	520
German.....	912	160	53	71
Greek.....	4,767	134	599	558
Hebrew.....	1,344	269	37	32
Irish.....	1,502	466	218	278
Italian (north).....	297	50	849	140
Italian (south).....	3,964	71	1,732	1,564
Japanese.....	366	834	44	132
Korean.....	2	12	2
Lithuanian.....	38	12	2
Magyar.....	47	5	9
Mexican.....	2,222	196	58	69
Pacific islander.....	1
Polish.....	445	28	32	44
Portuguese.....	1,084	83	129	41
Roumanian.....	66	13	8	7
Russian.....	315	127	576	462
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	197	6	1
Scandinavian.....	2,058	1,525	381	303
Scotch.....	1,176	579	95	328
Slovak.....	13	4	5
Spanish.....	765	626	201	447
Spanish-American.....	208	299	53	70
Syrian.....	105	20	12	14
Turkish.....	39	1	2	6
Welsh.....	66	14	20	21
West Indian (except Cuban).....	94	93	37	31
Other peoples.....	138	24	127	101
Not specified.....	902
Total.....	29,975	9,228	7,686	7,227

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

OFFICIAL—UNITED STATES.

MARYLAND.—[*State Industrial Accident Commission*]. *Reports of cases under the Workmen's Compensation Act, decided by the State Industrial Accident Commission and the court of appeals of Maryland, from November 1, 1914, to September 1, 1916, inclusive. Vol. 1. Edited and reported by J. Lloyd Harshman, legal director to the claim bureau. Baltimore. [1917.] 316 pp.*

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Bureau of Statistics. Seventh annual report on union scale of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts, 1916. Labor bulletin No. 120. Boston, 1917. 136 pp.*

This is the seventh of a series of annual reports issued by the Bureau of Statistics relative to the time rates of wages (i. e., wages agreed upon in return for services for a specified period) and hours of labor in the organized industries and trades of Massachusetts, the data being obtained principally as of October 1, 1916. Authority for the data presented was derived in most cases from information furnished by organizations of employees, the exceptions being in steam and electric railway service, and in telephone, telegraph, and Federal service, where the information was furnished by the employers. The report states that of the 1,427 local unions known to be in existence on October 1, 1916, 943, or 66.1 per cent, are represented in the returns. The aggregate membership of these 943 local unions was 152,988, or 58.2 per cent of the aggregate membership of the 1,427 local unions in the State on that date. It is estimated that at least 50 per cent of the aggregate number of trade-union members in the State were working on a standard time-rate basis, and that the total membership of local unions whose members were reported as working either on a time-rate basis or a piece-price basis was approximately 85.1 per cent of the aggregate membership of all local unions in the State. The report is almost entirely statistical.

PENNSYLVANIA.—*Annual report of the State Workmen's Insurance Fund. Harrisburg [1917]. 29 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 162 to 164 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

UNITED STATES.—*Board of Mediation and Conciliation. Report of December 8, 1917. Washington, 1917. 3 typewritten pages.*

This report is noted on pages 229 and 230 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

— *Department of Labor. Fifth annual report of the Secretary of Labor. Fiscal year ended June 30, 1917. Washington, 1917. 159 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 40 to 47 in this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

— *Children's Bureau. Governmental provisions in the United States and foreign countries for members of the military forces and their dependents. Prepared under the direction of Capt. S. Herbert Wolfe, Q. M., U. S. R. Bureau publication 28. Washington, 1917. 237 pp.*

For a review of this report see pages 159 to 162 in this number of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

— *Employees' Compensation Commission. First annual report, September 7, 1916, to June 30, 1917. Washington, 1917. 49 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 156 to 159 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

UNITED STATES.—*Federal Board for Vocational Education. Annual report, 1917. Washington, 1917. 31 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 217 and 218 of this issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW.

— — — *Statement of policies. Bulletin No. 1. Washington, 1917. 70 pp.*

This bulletin presents a summary of the policies, preliminary and tentative, thus far agreed upon by the board for administering the Smith-Hughes Act, which provides a scheme of cooperation between the Federal Government and the States for the promotion of vocational education in the fields of agriculture, trade, home economics, and industry. Part I includes general policies or standards adopted by the Federal Board; Part II includes principally rulings upon and a discussion of points raised at the hearings given to the State boards for vocational education held in Washington in August. This discussion falls under four general subheads: Considerations of a general nature, agricultural education, industrial and trade education, and home-economics education. In addition to the policies the bulletin contains in the appendix an analysis of what may be termed the absolute legal requirements of the Smith-Hughes Act. The appendix also contains a copy of the act of February 23, 1917 (Public No. 347, 64th Cong.), and statistical tables showing amount of grants to the States which will be available if the States comply with the requirements of the act.

— *Shipping Board. First annual report, Dec. 1, 1917. Washington, 1917. 36 pp.*

Bearing somewhat upon the subject of vocational education is that portion of the report relating to the recruiting and training of officers and engineers and crews for the greatly enlarged merchant marine in prospect. The first work taken up was the training of deck officers, men already trained by experience in seamanship being taken and given a short intensive period of training in special navigation schools under the direction of the recruiting service. In five months no less than 15,000 men have applied for such training. Twenty-seven navigation schools have been established, the teaching staff including sea captains as well as teachers from scientific schools and technical universities. For admission to the schools a minimum of two years' experience at sea is required, and during the schooling they receive no compensation from the Government and no allowance for expenses. The next work to be given attention has been the training of engineers. During the period from June 1 to October 31 there were graduated from the navigation schools 604 men and from the engineering schools 416 men.

OFFICIAL—FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

ARGENTINA.—*Boletín del Departamento Nacional del Trabajo. No. 34. May, 1916. 235 pp.*

A continuation of an investigation of the economic condition of Indians living in the Federal territories of Chaco and Formosa. The report deals with the efforts of the State and of early missionaries among the aborigines along the line of education and instruction in useful labor; family relations; State regulations in force in Indian stations; agricultural labor; religion and superstition, etc., of the various tribes; expenses and income of stations, and recommendations made by the investigator.

AUSTRALIA.—*Official Statistics, Commonwealth of Australia. Production Bulletin No. 10. Summary of Commonwealth production statistics for the years 1905-1906 to 1915-1916. Commonwealth Bureau of Census and Statistics. Melbourne, 1917. 168 pp.*

This is the tenth bulletin relating to production, issued by this bureau. The information given is presented under 11 heads, and a summary. Statistical tables relate to agriculture, mining, and manufacturing.

NUMBER OF FACTORIES AND EMPLOYEES, AMOUNT OF WAGES PAID, VALUE OF RAW MATERIALS USED, VALUE ADDED, AND VALUE OF OUTPUT, IN AUSTRALIA, 1907, 1910, 1913, AND 1915.

	1907	1910	1913	1915
Number of factories ¹	12,555	13,850	15,536	15,092
Average number of hands employed.....	248,859	286,928	337,101	321,071
Amount of salaries and wages paid.....	\$89,173,634	\$116,144,673	\$163,544,022	\$161,619,648
Value of materials used.....	\$270,022,677	\$354,082,944	\$469,166,987	\$500,159,803
Value added to material.....	\$185,234,334	\$234,083,015	\$317,068,466	\$322,700,622
Value of output.....	\$455,257,011	\$588,165,959	\$786,235,453	\$822,860,426
Average annual earnings:				
Males.....	(²)	(²)	\$600.14	\$623.01
Females.....	(²)	(²)	\$232.33	\$244.20
All employees.....	\$376.28	\$423.68	\$506.80	\$525.58

¹ Industrial establishments in which at least 4 hands are employed or in which power other than hand is used.

² Not separately reported.

The per cent of male employees over female employees was as follows: In 1907, 48.6; in 1910, 46.8; in 1913, 50.8; and in 1915, 50.1.

In 1910, the number of persons under 16 years of age employed in factories formed 4.86 per cent; in 1913, 4.08 per cent; and in 1915, 4.72 per cent of all persons so employed.

AUSTRALIA (NEW SOUTH WALES).—*Department of Labor and Industry. Report on the working of the Factories and Shops Act, 1912, during the year 1916. Sydney, 1917. 62 pp.*

A report on the administration of the Factories and Shops Act for the year ending December 31, 1916, with summaries showing the number of factories registered, persons employed, and horsepower of machinery used in the various districts.

Statistical tables and charts show the number and percentages of employees, classified by sex and age.

CANADA.—*Department of Labor. Labor legislation in Canada for the calendar year 1916. Ottawa, 1917. 102 pp.*

These laws are compiled by provinces and cover the general subjects of labor departments and bureaus; wages; holidays and rest days; regulation and inspection of factories and coal mines; employment of women and children; workmen's compensation; examination and licensing of workmen—apprenticeship; vocational training; mothers' pensions; housing; protection of civil and property rights of persons on active service; loans and financial aid for settlers; and prison labor.

—*Seventh annual report on wholesale prices, 1916. Ottawa, 1917. 295 pp.*

Presents a summary review and analysis of the price changes of the year, followed by the actual statistics of prices, the latter being divided into two parts: (1) The weekly or monthly quotations for each article through 1916; and (2) tables of average annual prices back to 1890 reduced to the form of index numbers. Appendix A gives a summary of average retail prices in over 50 Canadian cities; Appendix B contains a review of the course of prices in 1916 in other countries. The following table of index numbers shows the upward trend of wholesale prices in Canada at certain specified times, 1890 to 1916:

INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING TREND OF WHOLESALE PRICES AT CERTAIN DATES,
1890 TO 1916.

[1890 to 1899=100.]

Date.	Index number.
1890 ¹	110.3
1895 ¹	95.6
1900 ¹	108.2
1905 ¹	113.8
1910 ²	124.2
January, 1914 ²	136.5
July, 1914 ²	134.6
1914 ²	136.1
January, 1915 ³	138.9
July, 1915 ³	150.2
1915 ³	148.0
January, 1916 ⁴	172.1
July, 1916 ⁴	180.9
1916 ⁴	182.0

¹ 230 commodities.² 272 commodities.³ 271 commodities.⁴ Number of commodities not stated.

The report also includes a table showing the cost per week of a family budget of staple foods, fuel and lighting, and rent, in terms of the average prices in 60 cities in Canada. The following table, adapted from the report, shows this cost for certain periods from 1900 to 1916:

COST PER WEEK OF A FAMILY BUDGET OF STAPLE FOODS, FUEL AND LIGHTING,
AND RENT, IN TERMS OF AVERAGE PRICES IN 60 CITIES, FOR EACH SPECIFIED
PERIOD.

Year.	Food.	Fuel and lighting.	Rent.	Total.
1900 ¹	\$5.48	\$1.95	\$2.37	\$9.80
1905 ¹	5.96	1.63	2.89	10.48
1910.....	6.95	1.76	4.05	12.76
1911.....	7.14	1.78	4.60	13.52
1912.....	7.34	1.82	4.75	13.91
1913.....	7.34	1.91	4.83	14.08
July, 1914.....	7.42	1.89	4.81	14.12
December, 1914.....	7.95	1.88	4.39	14.22
1914.....	7.73	1.90	4.75	14.38
July, 1915.....	7.80	1.84	4.10	13.74
December, 1915.....	8.13	1.85	3.97	13.95
1915.....	7.87	1.82	4.12	13.81
July, 1916.....	8.46	1.90	4.04	14.40
December, 1916.....	10.11	2.10	4.09	16.30
1916.....	8.79	1.92	4.04	14.75

¹ December.

CHILE.—*Central Statistics Bureau. Statistical Abstract of the Republic of Chile, 1916. Santiago de Chile, 1917. x, 150 pp.*

This volume contains the usual information found in statistical yearbooks. In 1915 there were, exclusive of minor manufacturing establishments, 2,406 manufacturing establishments reported furnishing employment to 7,371 clerical employees and 45,551 wage earners. Of the wage earners 31,093 were men, 11,025 were women, and 3,433 were children. The most important industry is food preparation, constituting nearly one-half the value of all production.

CUBA.—*Secretaria de Hacienda. Sección de Estadística. Industria Azucarera y sus Derivadas. Habana, 1917. 106 pp. Charts.*

A compilation of data relative to the sugar production in Cuba in the harvest of 1915-16 and foreign sugar trade in 1916. The number of plantations in

operation and the exportations in 1916 were greater than any year for which comparable figures are given. The amount exported in 1915 and in 1916 was 2,523,597 and 2,890,138 tons, respectively. Of the total of 3,068,437 tons of production, less than 1,000 tons were refined. According to estimates made by the chief of the bureau of statistics the production of 1917 will exceed 3,500,000 tons.

FRANCE.—*Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. Statistique Générale de la France. Annuaire Statistique. Trente-quatrième volume, 1914-1915. Paris, 1917. Lvi, 494, 239* pp.*

This report contains statistical information on climatology, movement of population, production, income and expenses, administration, and colonial statistics, with comparable data for a series of years.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Board of Trade. Report upon the accidents that have occurred on the railways of the United Kingdom during the year 1916. London, 1917. 6 pp.*

This report is presented under three general heads: (1) Train accidents; (2) accidents caused by the movement of trains and railway vehicles exclusive of train accidents; and (3) fatal accidents on railway premises not due to train accidents or to the movement of trains and railway vehicles. The following table is a general summary of all accidents:

NUMBER OF PERSONS KILLED OR INJURED ON THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1916, COMPARED WITH 1915, SHOWING PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE.

Group.	1915 ¹		1916		Per cent of decrease 1916 from 1915.	
	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.
1. Train accidents:						
Passengers.....	2 269	2 1,432	3	350	98.9	75.6
Servants.....	9	183	12	182	3 33.3	.5
Other persons.....		2	1	17		3 750.0
2. Accidents caused by the movement of trains and rail- way vehicles, exclusive of train accidents:						
Passengers.....	162	4,355	147	1,195	9.3	49.3
Servants.....	403	4,962	4 402	5 3,519	.2	29.1
Other persons.....	521	334	427	326	18.0	2.4
3. Accidents on railway prem- ises not due to group 1 or 2:						
Passengers.....	6	708	9	(6)	3 50.0
Servants.....	59	21,202	7 39	(6)	33.9
Other persons.....	40	562	26	(6)	35.0
Total.....	1,469	31,740	1,066	5,589	27.4	3 39.7

¹ Data taken from the report for 1915, which was noted in the Monthly Review for October, 1916, p. 101.

² This figure is large because of 1 accident in which 227 persons were killed and 246 were injured.

³ Increase.

⁴ 6 were servants of contractors and not of railways.

⁵ 16 were servants of contractors and not of railways.

⁶ Data not given.

⁷ 3 were servants of contractors and not of railways.

⁸ Based upon the totals of groups 1 and 2 only.

INDIA.—*Department of Mines. Report of the chief inspector for the year ending 31st December, 1916. Calcutta, 1917. 96 pp.*

This report is divided into five sections: (1) Persons employed; (2) Output of minerals; (3) Accidents; (4) Prosecutions and additions to the acts; (5) General remarks. Data in two of these sections are of particular interest to labor, namely, the number of persons employed in the mines, and the number of accidents during the year 1916. There were, according to the report, 197,919 persons working in and about the mines in 1916, 124,770 of these being adult

males, 66,855 being adult females, and 6,294 being children under 12 years of age. This is an increase of 17,831 workers, or 9.9 per cent, over the preceding year. Those employed in coal mines numbered 143,459, a decrease of 2,078 from 1915.

During the year there were 140 accidents causing fatalities, a decrease of 23 as compared with 1915. These accidents involved a loss of 206 lives (168 males and 38 females), which is stated to be the largest since 1913. Most of these deaths (82 per cent) occurred at coal mines. Forty-six persons lost their lives by falls of roof, 35 by falls of side, 29 in shafts, 14 by explosions of fire damp, 12 by haulage, 4 by explosives, 3 by irruption of water, 7 by other accidents underground, and 56 by accidents on the surface. The death rate per 1,000 persons employed was 1.04, while that of the preceding five years was 1.10. At coal mines these figures were 1.18 and 1.24, respectively. The death rate per million tons raised at coal mines was 10.29, while that of the preceding 5 years was 10.87. By way of comparison the report notes that at coal mines in England, during the 10 years ending and including 1914, the death rate per 1,000 persons employed varied from 1.08 to 1.69, while the death rate per million tons raised, in the same period, varied from 4.31 to 6.37. The percentage of increase in the output of the principal minerals, 1916 over 1915, was as follows: Coal, 0.41; manganese, 50.02; mica, 45.36; salt, 10.77; wolfram (a tungstate of iron and manganese), 49.86; limestone, 29.43 (decrease); gold, 4.46 (decrease); copper ore, 66.65 (decrease).

INDIA.—*Department of Statistics. Prices and freights after three years at war. Calcutta, 1917. 7 pp.*

This report shows wholesale and retail prices in Calcutta, index numbers of retail food prices in other countries, and the rise in freights. States that the wholesale prices of commodities in Calcutta at the end of July, 1917, were 42 per cent higher than at the outbreak of the war, and that the general level of retail prices of foodstuffs in Calcutta showed a rise of 16 per cent as compared with the period just before the war began. The increase in retail prices since July, 1915, was 7 per cent and since July, 1916, 5 per cent. The following table shows the unweighted index numbers of the principal food commodities at the end of July, 1917, as compared with July, 1915, and July, 1916, prices at the end of July, 1914, being taken as the base, or 100.

UNWEIGHTED INDEX NUMBERS OF FOOD PRICES AT THE END OF JULY, 1917, AS COMPARED WITH 1915 AND 1916.
[Prices at the end of July, 1914=100.]

Article.	Index number at end of July—		
	1915	1916	1917
Rice.....	95	103	104
Wheat flour.....	118	109	117
Pulses.....	112	118	109
Food grains (cereals and pulses).....	108	109	110
Sugar.....	168	182	181
Tea.....	105	112	119
Salt.....	125	162	150
Meat (beef and mutton).....	101	101	96
Fowl.....	104	104	102
Eggs.....	96	78	89
Fish, fresh.....	101	95	108
Dairy products.....	114	122	135
Fruits and vegetables.....	103	100	112
Mustard oil.....	74	74	78
General average (unweighted).....	108	110	116

RUSSIA.—*Federal Department of the Russian Confederated States. Pensions and aid to soldiers of the ranks and their families. Code of laws and decisions with official explanations up to November 1, 1915, and interpretation edited by the Judicial Commission of the Several Russian United Towns. Moscow, 1916. xxvi, 309 pp.*

— *Izdanie Sostoyashchago pod Argusteishim eya Imperatorskago Velichestva Gosudaryni Imperatritsy Aleksandry Teodorovny Predsedatelstvom Verkhornago Soveta po Prizreniyu Semei lits Prezvanni na Voynu, a takzhe Semei Raneny e Pavshikh Voinov. Code of laws, decisions, etc., relative to assistance to soldiers of the ranks and their families, up to January 1, 1916. Collected by the Chancellor's Office of the Supreme Council, and published by the Imperial Printing Office, Petrograd, 1916. li, 873 pp.*

SWITZERLAND.—*Bureau des Assurances. Rapport sur les Entreprises Privées en Matière d'Assurances en Suisse en 1915. Berne, 1917. 116*, 201 pp.*

This volume contains reports of the operations of the various insurance associations operating under Government concession, and subject to supervision.

Twenty societies are engaged in accident insurance proper, while 6 others operating as insurance companies in Switzerland do no industrial insurance business, having concessions for other lines of risks only. There are in addition, a large number of cooperative associations and societies engaged in accident insurance which are not subject to the supervision of the Federal Government.

The premiums collected by 25 of the companies mentioned above amounted to 130,683,212 francs (\$25,221,860). The amount disbursed for accident compensation and annuities, including unpaid claims due and premiums returnable, was 78,782,946 francs (\$15,205,109); general expenses amounted to 43,517,090 francs (\$8,398,798); reserve to 86,214,718 francs (\$16,639,441).

Of the 25 for which reports are complete relative to profit and loss, 20 were operated at a profit of 14,542,511 francs (\$2,806,705) and 5 at a loss of 1,338,420 francs (\$258,315).

— *Département de l'économie publique. Rapports des gouvernements cantonaux sur l'exécution de la loi fédérale concernant le travail dans les fabriques 1915 et 1916. Aarau, 1917. 122 pp.*

In this volume factory statistics for the various provinces are reported, including dispensations granted relative to overtime and holiday work, nature and duration of industrial accidents, and their compensation, number of infractions of the labor laws, and number of industrial establishments in operation.

UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.—*Department of Mines and Industries. Annual report of the Government mine engineer for the calendar year ended 31st December, 1916. Pretoria, 1917. 108 pp. 30 tables.*

States that the value of minerals produced during the year 1916 was £50,593,359 (\$246,212,581.57), or an increase of 16.22 per cent over 1915, the largest increase being in the value of diamonds mined, namely, 1,332.8 per cent. The numbers of persons in the service of mines and works during December, 1916, were 32,000 whites, 4,190 Asiatics, and 280,515 natives and other colored persons, the total being an increase of 5.78 per cent over 1915. The earnings of those employed in mines and works were as follows: Whites, £9,657,060 (\$46,996,082.49); Asiatics, £134,145 (\$652,816.64); natives and other colored persons, £7,714,456 (\$37,542,400.12); the total being £17,505,661 (\$85,191,299.25), or an increase of 10.24 per cent over 1915. There were 2,942 accidents during the year, 808 being fatal and 2,134 nonfatal. The average number employed during 1916 was 289,629, making the death rate 2.79 per 1,000 employed, as compared with 2.93 in 1915. The death rate was lowest in the diamond mines, being 0.67, and highest in the metalliferous mines, being 2.99. The death rate

in coal mines was 2.05. The compensation paid by or on behalf of mines in respect of 674 death claims was £45,275 (\$220,330.79); 3,575 injury claims, £78,682 (\$382,905.95); the total, £123,957 (\$603,236.74), being an increase of 5.18 per cent over the amount paid in 1915. The average paid per claim was \$326.90 for death, and \$107.11 for injury.

UNOFFICIAL.

AMAR, JULES. *Le moteur humain et les bases scientifiques du travail professionnel*. Paris, H. Dunod et E. Pinat, 1914. 622 pp. Illustrated.

This volume, by the director of the research laboratory for vocational work at the National Conservatory of Arts and Trades, and doctor of sciences, is an endeavor to bring together the elements of physical and physiological research in their relation to vocational work in a text which is sufficiently technical to be a complete exposition of the subject and sufficiently concise to appeal to the general reader. It covers briefly the results of studies which have been made upon the subject of the mechanical and physiological conditions of human labor, from the work of Coulomb in 1785, including the work of Chauveau and Taylor, up to the recent developments in the methods of measuring muscular work and fatigue. The volume is divided into six books under the heads of: Ideas of general mechanics; the human machine; human energy; the man and his medium; experimental technique; and vocational work. The subject is developed from a survey of the laws of mechanics applied to the human body and their relation to physical constitution and environment, waste and repair, fatigue and rest, to a discussion of the technique of experimentation and the instruments used for measuring the dynamic power of the human machine and evaluating its energy, and finally to the test of such experimental work applied to vocational labor. The relation between labor and wages, which is naturally raised by a discussion of increasing the output of the workman, is touched upon only incidentally, the author stating that it is outside the range of the present volume. The work contains a preface by Henry le Chatelier, member of the Institute, general inspector of mines, and professor at the Sorbonne and at the high school of mines, and is honored by a subscription from the ministers of labor and of commerce.

— *Organisation physiologique du travail*. Paris, H. Dunod et E. Pinat, 1917. 374 pp. Illustrated.

The reeducation of the wounded, although not suggested by the title, is the objective of this work by Prof. Amar. The first two-thirds of the book, with a preface by Henry le Chatelier, reviews the history, methods, and results of such experiments in the scientific study of human labor as seem to have practical bearing upon this reeducation, under the heads of: Human work, history and doctrines; organic functions of man; human psychophysiology; work and fatigue; the factor of work; the art of working, physical activity, intellectual activity; apprenticeship; and manual labor.

The remaining third of the book has been expanded from an address on "La prothèse et le travail des mutilés," delivered by Prof. Amar before the Conference on Work for the Wounded, January 12, 1916. It is devoted to a study of the reeducation of the disabled and their restoration to industry, which work the author divides into three stages: Functional reeducation, scientific prosthesis, and vocational reeducation. Methods of functional reeducation and apparatus of prosthesis which are successfully used by Prof. Amar in his work with the wounded are described and illustrated and mention made of the

schools for such reeducation which are already existent and those unedr consideration.

Speaking of the work already accomplished, the author says, "In the special circle of the wounded we have seen the return to a normal life made possible for the very great majority of the infirm, the debilitated, the less seriously disabled, and about 80 per cent of the wounded to the number of more than 2,500,000 in Europe to-day."

In regard to the placing of disabled men in industrial positions, Prof. Amar thinks that, while all available means should be utilized, still "it is indispensable that there should be a central organization comprising all the machinery of control and coordination. * * *

"Such seems to be the decision of Parliament, since it has given to the Minister of Labor the mission of organizing vocational reeducation in France. In this way a formidable waste of time and money may be avoided. When the schools are well under way and the proper placing of men assured, it will not be two years before all of our wounded who are susceptible of reeducation will be at least earning their own living without being in debt to anyone."

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE. *Annals, vol. 74. The world's food. November, 1917. 313 pp.*

Proceedings of the conference on the world's food held by the academy in Philadelphia in September, 1917. The papers are grouped as follows: Part I. The world's food: (a) Introductory; (b) The food situation with the neutrals; (c) Food for the allies; Part II. Food utilization and conservation: (a) A basis for individual and national diets; (b) Food conservation and utilization; Part III. Production and marketing plans for next year; Part IV. Price control. The discussion of conditions abroad includes papers on Great Britain, France, Japan, South America, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, and Holland. Attention is given to the essentials of a safe diet and the dangers of too narrow restriction. The volume includes the report of the Food Inquiry Committee of Philadelphia on the trend of real wages in that city.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION. *Standards for workmen's compensation laws. Revised to November 1, 1917. 131 East 23d Street, New York City. [1917] 12 pp.*

Outlines the essential features that, it is believed, should be incorporated in all compensation laws in the interest of uniformity, as well as of justice to workers. Suggestions are given on the following general subjects: (1) Scale of compensation; (2) Employment to be included; (3) Injuries to be included; (4) Other remedies than those provided by the compensation act; (5) Security for the payment of compensation awards; (6) Organization of accident board; (7) Procedure for settlement of compensation claims; (8) Reports of accidents; (9) Rehabilitation.

BOGEN, BORIS D. *Jewish philanthropy: An exposition of principles, and methods of Jewish social service in the United States. New York, Macmillan, 1917. 391 pp. Bibliography.*

Practically a revision of a course of lectures on Jewish philanthropy given for the past six years at the Hebrew Union College, Cincinnati, Ohio, and constituting "a statement of the principles evolved through the experience of the last two decades in various philanthropic efforts of the Jews of this country." Treats, among many subjects, of immigration, distribution, transients, insufficiency of income, and education.

BYERS, LIEUT. J. R., C. A. M. C. *Fighting tuberculosis. Military Hospitals Commission. Ottawa [1916]. 24 pp.*

This pamphlet has been written for the benefit of Canadian soldiers who are suffering from lung diseases and is put out by the Military Hospitals Commission. Only general principles and conditions are dealt with. After describing the battle to be fought by a soldier who is threatened or attacked by tuberculosis, a number of rules are given for his guidance which are summed up in the concluding paragraph of the pamphlet:

Remember, always, that the four great factors in the cure of lung diseases are rest, fresh air, good food, and cleanliness of mind and body.

CARNEGIE UNITED KINGDOM TRUST. *Report on the physical welfare of mothers and children. Liverpool, 1917. Four volumes (No. III not out). Illus.*

The report of a survey undertaken in 1916 by the Carnegie United Kingdom Trustees "because the rate of infantile mortality, with its predominant causes, and the health supervision of children from infancy to the age of admission to school are, in their opinion, among the most important questions of the present day relating to the well-being of the people."

CARTER, HUNTLY. *Industrial reconstruction: A symposium on the situation after the war and how to meet it. London, T. Fisher Unwin (Ltd.). 1917. 295 pp.*

The papers in this symposium, edited by Huntly Carter, are the result of an inquiry undertaken to ascertain the opinions held by a large number of distinguished public persons on one of the greatest problems Great Britain must face after the war. Most of them were first published in *The New Age*. They present the State view, the views of capital, labor views, economic views, and general views, the last taking up the question from the standpoint of sociology, psychology, logic, philosophy, religion, art and craft, law, and politics.

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY. *How Canada organized her man power, by J. D. Sears. Columbia war papers, No. 14. New York, Division of Intelligence and Publicity of Columbia University, 1917. 11 pp.*

Tells of the work of the National Service Bureau of the Dominion in making an elaborate survey, inventory, mobilization, and organization of the human and industrial forces of the nation, describing how the information has all been card indexed. Mentions also the fact that a census is being taken of the occupations and trades of the soldiers at the front, and that a survey is being made of the industries and resources of Canada, with a view to placing returned soldiers in proper employment.

CONNOLLY, JAMES. *Labor in Ireland: Labor in Irish history and The Reconquest of Ireland. Dublin and London, Maunsell, 1917. 346 pp. Price 4s. net.*

James Connolly was one of the leaders of the Irish insurrection of Easter Monday, 1916, and he is described by Mr. Robert Lynd, who contributes the introduction, as "Ireland's first socialist martyr."

"Labor in Irish history," first published several years ago, is described by its author as "an explanation of the position of labor in the great epochs of our modern history, and with the attitude of Irish leaders toward the hopes, aspirations, and necessities of those who live by labor." In the foreword to "The reconquest of Ireland," published in 1915, he writes: "The underlying idea of this work is that the labor movement of Ireland must set itself the reconquest of Ireland as its final aim, that that reconquest involves taking possession of the entire country, all its powers of wealth-production and all its natural resources, and organizing these on a cooperative basis for the good of all."

DAWSON, WILLIAM HARBUTT, ed. *After-war problems, by The Earl of Cromer and others.* London, George Allen & Unwin (Ltd.). 1917. 366 pp.

Following an introduction by the editor, William Harbutt Dawson, the problems which Great Britain will have to face after the war are discussed under four heads: (1) Empire and citizenship; (2) National efficiency; (3) Social reform, and (4) National finance and taxation. Of particular interest to labor are papers on the State and industry, the State and labor, the relations between capital and labor, the position of women in economic life, and housing after the war.

EUBANK, EARLE EDWARD. *Loan sharks and loan-shark legislation in Illinois.* New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1917. 16 pp.

Summarizes the findings of a survey, by the department of public welfare, of the loan-shark situation in Chicago in 1916, one result of which was the improved law which went into effect July 1, 1917.

GARDNER, LUCY, ed. *The hope for society: Essays on social reconstruction after the war, by various writers.* London, Bell, 1917. 236 pp.

Essays given in the form of lectures at the summer school of the Interdenominational Conference of the Social Service Unions held in Swanwick, England, in 1916. Includes, among others, Industrial and financial position after the war, by J. A. Hobson; Trade-union regulations: Employer's view, by Sir Hugh Bell; Trade-union regulations: The trade-union view, by Rev. Dr. A. J. Carlyle; Position of women in industry, by Margaret Bondfield; Development of the agricultural side of English life, by Christopher Turnor; and Land question after the war, by C. Roden Buxton.

HAMP, PIERRE. *La France, pays ouvrier.* Paris, Nouvelle Revue Française, 1916. 66 pp. 3d ed. Price 2 fr. 50c. net.

An outlook upon the work of French workmen after the war, based upon a brief review of the conditions which have led to the present relation of the French artisan to his trade, and the changing influences of to-day occasioned by the introduction of new machinery, methods, and ideas into French labor. It concludes with an optimistic view of the outcome of all factors in the development of labor when "France, the fighting country, shall emerge France, the working country."

HOWE, FREDERIC C. *The high cost of living.* New York, Scribner's, 1917. 275 pp.

An indictment of the existing system of monopoly and a brief for Government ownership of the railroads. The steps necessary to secure freedom of production and distribution are said to be the following:

To organize shipments from the farm; to have public ownership of terminal markets, local markets, and local abattoirs; to have (1) public receiving stations for milk or (2) city operation of the sale of milk; and Government ownership of railroads.

INSTITUT INTERNATIONAL D'AGRICULTURE. SERVICE DE LA STATISTIQUE GÉNÉRALE. *Annuaire international de statistique agricole 1915 et 1916.* Rome, 1917. 949 pp. Price, 10 fr.

Report on agricultural statistics of all countries for the past 10 years by the International Institute of Agriculture, Rome, Italy. Deals with area and population, productive and nonproductive areas, acreage and yield of crops, live stock, imports and exports, consumption, prices, fertilizers and chemical products useful in agriculture, ocean freight rates, and rates of exchange. The table of contents is in five languages, but text and tables are in French.

KELTIE, J. SCOTT, ed. *The statesman's yearbook: Statistical and historical annual of the States of the world for the year 1917.* London, Macmillan, 1917. 150½ pp.

MAYOR MITCHEL'S FOOD SUPPLY COMMITTEE. [NEW YORK CITY]. *Hints to housewives.* 71 Broadway, New York City, June, 1917. 112 pp.

This pamphlet contains chapters on how to buy; how to care for food; meats; drippings and butter substitutes; substitutes for meat; fish; vegetables; cereals; bread; how to use left-overs; how to make soap; fireless cooker; canning fruits and vegetables; how to preserve eggs. It has been issued in the belief that if every housewife will carefully read, study, and put into everyday use the suggestions made, "she will not only be helping to reduce the high cost of living for her family and her neighbors, but will be rendering a distinct patriotic service to her country in this critical time." It aims to show how every housewife may do her part toward solving the food problem by simplifying the meals she serves and by seeing to it that not one bit of food is wasted.

MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATION OF NEW YORK. GREATER NEW YORK. *Bulletin*, Vol. VI, No. 43. Nov. 26, 1917. 16 pp.

This issue contains an extended account of how British industry was adapted to the war, being a summary of what the committee from the British Ministry of Munitions had to tell the manufacturers of the United States, with a selection of questions asked and answers given by the committee. It quotes the Treasury agreement entered into the Government, capital, and labor, which was embodied in the Munitions of War Act, 1915, giving the Minister of Munitions power to control factories engaged in the manufacture of munitions; binding labor to accept certain wages and permitting no fluctuation upward or downward in the wages except by consent of the Minister of Munitions; making strikes and lockouts illegal and arbitration compulsory; and including a waiver by labor of all practices and customs which tended to restrict either employment or output, in return for which the Government pledged itself to restore prewar conditions in shops after the war. The summary states that, as a result of this agreement, there has been no strike for higher wages since the war began, and only three strikes which may be regarded as serious. It recites the experience of Great Britain in bringing about economy of raw material and of man power by a system of licenses and by laws, in preventing the shifting of labor from one establishment to another, and in the employment of women to take the places of men.

— *Industrial Bureau. Results of an inquiry into the effect of the war upon the employment of women in places formerly filled by men in New York City.* 1 p.

This investigation, it is stated, was made at the request of members of the merchants' association, who are or who expect to be confronted with a shortage of labor, the purpose being to supply answers to the following questions:

To what extent are female employees being substituted at the present time?

To what extent do employers expect that such substitution will be necessary in the future?

In general, on what types of work, not now ordinarily performed by females, are they satisfactory?

Are wages paid females the same as for males in the same or similar positions, provided production is the same in both quantity and quality?

What problems, if any, arise from the employment of females in positions ordinarily filled by male workers?

The report does not offer any opinions relative either to the desirability of substituting female labor or as to what methods should be employed; it is simply a summarization of the opinions of employers who have made such

substitution, this information being obtained by correspondence, by interviews, and by replies to a questionnaire from 160 employers of labor in New York City and vicinity. It appears from this report that, although a great many women are employed in various occupations, there has been very little substitution, only 35, or 21.9 per cent, of the 160 who reported on this question, stating that they are now using female workers more extensively than formerly, while only 9, or 5.6 per cent, have placed any large number of women in positions formerly filled by men exclusively. "The concern which is substituting females exclusively is still a rarity."

The report points out, however, a tendency to increase the employment of women in business irrespective of the situation created by the war, and that some employers who have formerly employed a few women in occupations also filled by men are now hiring women exclusively as vacancies occur. Nearly all employers reporting substitution of women also reported that the same wages are paid to them as were formerly paid to men. Some employers reported the operation of a distinctly different wage schedule for men and women, ignoring the policy of equal pay for equal work, but not necessarily paying lower wages to women than to men. Some problems confronting the employment of female labor where such labor is used to replace men were found to center about questions of management and changes in factory organization and in production methods. Following are the most frequent causes of such problems reported by employers:

Laws regulating the hours, time, and conditions of labor. These prevent women from working under the ordinary conditions existing in many plants.

The greater liability of women for accidents due to style of dress, as well as to physical causes. Frequently women are required to wear sleeve holders and caps to cover the hair. Additional safety appliances must be installed on machines.

The necessity of further specialization of labor, particularly where women operate machines. Women are machine operators and not mechanics, and therefore special occupations need to be created for men as helpers, machine repairers, and adjusters.

The necessity for special machinery or machine parts adapted to operation by females.

The necessity for substituting mechanical appliances, as conveying machinery, to minimize physical exertion.

MOORE, HARRY H. *The youth and the Nation: A guide to service.* New York, Macmillan, 1917. 179 pp. Illustrated.

"An attempt to arouse a wholesome interest among young men and older boys of college and high-school age in modern social evils, to show them how men have combatted these evils, and to suggest vocational opportunities in the warfare against them."

MORE, ADELYNE. *Fecundity versus civilization: A contribution to the study of overpopulation as the cause of war and the chief obstacle to the emancipation of women, with special reference to Germany.* London, Allen & Unwin. [1917.] 64 pp. Bibliography. Price 1s. net.

NATIONAL AMALGAMATED UNION OF LABOR [GREAT BRITAIN]. *Report and balance sheet for quarter ending June 30, 1917.* Newcastle-on-Tyne, Richard Mayne, 1917. 66 pp.

States that the membership at June 30, 1917, was 101,436, or a gain during the quarter of 10,421; and also that the financial balance at that time was £52,930 1s. 8d. (\$255,784.25). Refers to a "new development in the relationships of unions of lesser skilled workmen" resulting in the formation of the National Federation of General Workers with which has been merged the previously

existing General Laborers' National Council. The objects of the new federation are stated to be:

The provision of facilities for questions of common interest being dealt with from a common center under the auspices of the federation, such questions to embrace: (1) Wages movements covering the interests of more than one union; (2) the condition of women's labor; (3) matters affecting the interests of affiliated unions which are directly under the control of Government departments; (4) the collection and distribution of information of common interest to the unions; (5) the maintenance of greater harmony amongst the members and officials of the affiliated unions.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF COMMISSIONERS ON UNIFORM STATE LAWS. *Report of the committee on occupational diseases to the twenty-seventh annual meeting of the national conference of commissioners on uniform State laws, to be held at the Grand Hotel, Saratoga, N. Y., August 29 to September 3, 1917. Second draft of a uniform occupational diseases act. [1917]. 16 pp.*

Largely taken up with a draft of a uniform occupational diseases act, being supplemental to the uniform workmen's compensation act. Includes a schedule of 28 occupational diseases, with description of the nature of the work or process which causes each disease.

ROCKEFELLER, JOHN D., jr. *The personal relation in industry.* New York, 1917. 43 pp.

An address delivered at Cornell University. The speaker expresses his belief that "the personal relation in industry will eventually be regarded as an important part of those college courses which aim to fit men for business life."

UNIONIST SOCIAL REFORM COMMITTEE. *The Health of the People—A new national policy.* London, Argus Printing Co., Ltd. [1917], 63 pp.

This is the report of a committee of Unionist members of Parliament which made, in 1913 and 1914, inquiries into housing, education, agriculture, industrial unrest, and poor-law reform. Although admittedly incomplete, since the activities of the committee have been interfered with by the war, the report has been issued at this time because of "the war wastage of man power and of the social and economic requirements of the future, as well as of the ignorance of the public concerning the administrative chaos connected with public health." It aims to show that "public health is purchasable"—that "efficient health legislation and control is, from the most strictly financial and businesslike point of view, a national investment producing the most liberal returns for work and money."

In the opening chapter the theory of public health is set out, the purpose being to show, by the quotation of statistics, the economic loss through disease and the possibility of reducing this loss by proper means of prevention and control brought about by a simple and businesslike organization. It is an economic argument for health reform. Emphasis is laid upon the necessity for reducing infant mortality in order to conserve adult health. In this connection Lord Rhondda, in a statement made as president of the local government board, said: "The examination I have been able to give to the subject * * * has convinced me that by proper coordination of the health activities of various agencies and the application of modern scientific methods it is not too much to hope that a thousand infant lives may be saved every week which are now needlessly lost."

The existing system of supervision of national health is described in considerable detail, revealing "uttermost complexity and dislocation," and apparently

indicating that "the system needs recasting from top to bottom." The arrangements by which the supervision of public health is distributed among six Government offices "constitute a guaranty of practical waste and inefficiency."

In considering the question of the reorganization of the central departments, the committee declares that eventually all health matters ought to be placed under a single department, but states that it is content at the present time to recognize the general view that a health department dealing with health in the most comprehensive sense attainable should be constituted, believing that in process of time the health functions of other departments will be transferred to it. The report then outlines what is to be expected of such a department.

WALDO, FULLERTON L. *Good housing that pays: A study of the aims and the accomplishments of the Octavia Hill Association, 1896-1917.* Philadelphia, Harper Press, 1917. 126 pp. Illus.

An intimate account of the pioneer model housing association in the United States, organized in Philadelphia in 1896 for "holding, selling, and leasing real estate." The association began with 5 properties valued at \$10,500, and at the close of 1916 owned 179 properties valued at \$276,026.63. This includes a considerable accession of property made in 1916, when it purchased the majority stock of the Philadelphia Model Homes Co. It works on a business basis, although content with a small dividend. The chief feature of its work lies in the rent collector, that "patient universal arbiter" who not only collects rent but gives domestic advice, settles neighborhood quarrels, and acts as welfare worker among the tenants.

The association manages renting properties for others; it had 17 such properties in 1898 and 228 in 1916. It employs salaried workers, the highest salary paid being \$200 a month. Its monthly salary bill is \$518.33.

SERIES OF BULLETINS PUBLISHED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

The publication of the annual and special reports and of the bi-monthly bulletins was discontinued in July, 1912, and since that time a bulletin has been published at irregular intervals. Each number contains matter devoted to one of a series of general subjects. These bulletins are numbered consecutively beginning with No. 101, and up to No. 236 they also carried consecutive numbers under each series. Beginning with No. 237 the serial numbering has been discontinued. A list of the series is given below. Under each is grouped all the bulletins which contain material relating to the subject matter of that series. A list of the reports and bulletins of the bureau issued prior to July 1, 1912, will be furnished on application.

Wholesale Prices.

- Bul. 114. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 149. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1913.
- Bul. 173. Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 181. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1914.
- Bul. 200. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1915.
- Bul. 226. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1916.

Retail Prices and Cost of Living.

- Bul. 105. Retail prices, 1890 to 1911: Part I.
Retail prices, 1890 to 1911: Part II—General tables.
- Bul. 106. Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1912: Part I.
Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1912: Part II—General tables.
- Bul. 108. Retail prices, 1890 to August, 1912.
- Bul. 110. Retail prices, 1890 to October, 1912.
- Bul. 113. Retail prices, 1890 to December, 1912.
- Bul. 115. Retail prices, 1890 to February, 1913.
- Bul. 121. Sugar prices, from refiner to consumer.
- Bul. 125. Retail prices, 1890 to April, 1913.
- Bul. 130. Wheat and flour prices, from farmer to consumer.
- Bul. 132. Retail prices, 1890 to June, 1913.
- Bul. 136. Retail prices, 1890 to August, 1913.
- Bul. 138. Retail prices, 1890 to October, 1913.
- Bul. 140. Retail prices, 1890 to December, 1913.
- Bul. 156. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1914.
- Bul. 164. Butter prices, from producer to consumer.
- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 184. Retail prices, 1907 to June, 1915.
- Bul. 197. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1915.
- Bul. 228. Retail prices, 1907 to December, 1916.

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Wages and Hours of Labor.

- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working day for women and young persons.
- Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
- Bul. 128. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 129. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 131. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, 1907 to 1912.
- Bul. 134. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and knit goods industries, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 135. Wages and hours of labor in the cigar and clothing industries, 1911 and 1912.
- Bul. 137. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1890 to 1912.
- Bul. 143. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1913.
- Bul. 146. Wages and regularity of employment in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
- Bul. 150. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 151. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry in the United States, 1907 to 1912.
- Bul. 153. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 154. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and underwear industries, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
- Bul. 161. Wages and hours of labor in the clothing and cigar industries, 1911 to 1913.
- Bul. 163. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 168. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry in the United States, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 171. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 1, 1914.
- Bul. 177. Wages and hours of labor in the hosiery and underwear industry, 1907 to 1914.
- Bul. 178. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1914.
- Bul. 187. Wages and hours of labor in the men's clothing industry, 1911 to 1914.
- Bul. 190. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1914.
- Bul. 194. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 1, 1915.
- Bul. 204. Street-railway employment in the United States.
- Bul. 214. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1916.
- Bul. 218. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1915.

MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

Wages and Hours of Labor—Concluded.

- Bul. 225. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries. [In press.]
- Bul. 232. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1916. [In press.]
- Bul. 238. Wages and hours of labor in the woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1916. [In press.]
- Bul. 239. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton goods manufacturing and finishing, 1916. [In press.]

Employment and Unemployment.

- Bul. 109. Statistics of unemployment and the work of employment offices in the United States.
- Bul. 172. Unemployment in New York City, N. Y.
- Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
- Bul. 183. Regularity of employment in the women's ready-to-wear garment industries.
- Bul. 192. Proceedings of the American Association of Public Employment Offices.
- Bul. 195. Unemployment in the United States.
- Bul. 196. Proceedings of Employment Managers' Conference held at Minneapolis January, 1916.
- Bul. 202. Proceedings of the conference of Employment Managers' Association of Boston, Mass., held May 10, 1916.
- Bul. 206. The British system of labor exchanges.
- Bul. 220. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the American Association of Public Employment Offices, Buffalo, N. Y., July 20 and 21, 1916.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- Bul. 227. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference, Philadelphia, Pa., April 2 and 3, 1917.
- Bul. 235. Employment system of the Lake Carriers' Association. [In press.]

Women in Industry.

- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
- Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons.
- Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
- Bul. 122. Employment of women in power laundries in Milwaukee.
- Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
- Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 175. Summary of the report on condition of woman and child wage earners in the United States.
- Bul. 176. Effect of minimum-wage determinations in Oregon.
- Bul. 180. The boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts as a vocation for women.
- Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.

MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

Women in Industry—Concluded.

- Bul. 193. Dressmaking as a trade for women in Massachusetts.
- Bul. 215. Industrial experience of trade-school girls in Massachusetts.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.

Workmen's Insurance and Compensation (including laws relating thereto).

- Bul. 101. Care of tuberculous wage earners in Germany.
- Bul. 102. British National Insurance Act, 1911.
- Bul. 103. Sickness and accident insurance law of Switzerland.
- Bul. 107. Law relating to insurance of salaried employees in Germany.
- Bul. 126. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 155. Compensation for accidents to employees of the United States.
- Bul. 185. Compensation legislation of 1914 and 1915.
- Bul. 203. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 210. Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 212. Proceedings of the conference on social insurance called by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children. [In press.]

Industrial Accidents and Hygiene.

- Bul. 104. Lead poisoning in potteries, tile works, and porcelain enameled sanitary ware factories.
- Bul. 120. Hygiene of the painters' trade.
- Bul. 127. Dangers to workers from dusts and fumes and methods of protection.
- Bul. 141. Lead poisoning in the smelting and refining of lead.
- Bul. 157. Industrial accident statistics.
- Bul. 165. Lead poisoning in the manufacture of storage batteries.
- Bul. 179. Industrial poisons used in the rubber industry.
- Bul. 188. Report of British departmental committee on danger in the use of lead in the painting of buildings.
- Bul. 201. Report of committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [Limited edition.]
- Bul. 205. Anthrax as an occupational disease.
- Bul. 207. Causes of death by occupations.
- Bul. 209. Hygiene of the printing trades.
- Bul. 216. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building.
- Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
- Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
- Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
- Bul. 231. Mortality from respiratory diseases in dusty trades. [In press.]
- Bul. 234. Accidents and accident prevention in the iron and steel industry. [In press.]
- Bul. 236. Effect of the pneumatic hammer on the health of stonecutters in the Indiana Oolitic Limestone Belt. [In press.]

MONTHLY REVIEW OF THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

Conciliation and Arbitration (including strikes and lockouts).

- Bul. 124. Conciliation and arbitration in the building trades of Greater New York.
- Bul. 133. Report of the industrial council of the British Board of Trade on its inquiry into industrial agreements.
- Bul. 139. Michigan copper district strike.
- Bul. 144. Industrial court of the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of New York City.
- Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- Bul. 191. Collective bargaining in the anthracite coal industry.
- Bul. 198. Collective agreements in the men's clothing industry.
- Bul. 233. The Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada. [In press.]

Labor Laws of the United States (including decisions of courts relating to labor).

- Bul. 111. Labor legislation of 1912.
- Bul. 112. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1912.
- Bul. 148. Labor laws of the United States, with decisions of courts relating thereto.
- Bul. 152. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1913.
- Bul. 166. Labor legislation of 1914.
- Bul. 169. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1914.
- Bul. 186. Labor legislation of 1915.
- Bul. 189. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1915.
- Bul. 211. Labor laws and their administration in the Pacific States.
- Bul. 213. Labor legislation of 1916.
- Bul. 224. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1916.
- Bul. 229. Wage-payment legislation in the United States.

Foreign Labor Laws.

- Bul. 142. Administration of labor laws and factory inspection in certain European countries.

Vocational Education.

- Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
- Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment.
- Bul. 162. Vocational education survey of Richmond, Va.
- Bul. 199. Vocational education survey of Minneapolis.

Labor as Affected by the War.

- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
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