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CONTENTS.

	Page.
Special articles:	
Adjusting wages to the cost of living, by Prof. Irving Fisher.....	1-5
Food situation in Germany during the summer of 1918, compiled and translated by Alfred Maylander.....	5-28
Labor and the war:	
Awards and findings of the National War Labor Board.....	29-36
Organization of production committees at bituminous coal mines.....	36-38
Standardized contract clauses for Government purchases.....	38-40
Conference of State labor officials, Washington, D. C., September 30 and October 1, 1918.....	40-46
Demands of German agricultural workers.....	46, 47
Reconstruction in industry:	
Proposed legislation on reconstruction in the United States.....	48-53
Injunctions against strikes during war emergency.....	53-55
Postwar labor program of the International Association for Labor Legislation.....	55-62
Relation of industrial and social conditions to adult education.....	63-70
Socio-political program of the German employers.....	70-72
Reconstruction program of the Italian Superior Labor Council.....	72-74
Meaning of reconstruction.....	74, 75
Prices and cost of living:	
Retail prices of food in the United States.....	76-86
Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States.....	87, 88
Price changes, wholesale and retail, in the United States.....	89-92
Comparison of food costs in 45 cities, September, 1917, to August, 1918, by Elma B. Carr.....	93-103
Farm prices and retail prices compared.....	103, 104
General index numbers of food prices on a nutritive value base.....	104, 106
Food conditions in Brazil.....	106, 107
Increase in food prices in France, 1914 to 1918.....	107, 108
Cost of living in Scandinavian countries.....	108, 109
Food prices and cost of living in Switzerland during the war.....	110-113
Food control:	
New food conservation program in the United States.....	114-116
Regulation of prices in public eating places in the District of Columbia.....	116-117
Food control in Great Britain.....	117-120
Cost of food in national restaurants in London.....	121, 122
Food and fuel control in France.....	122-129
Cooperation:	
National cooperative convention at Springfield, Ill.....	130-132
Wages and hours of labor:	
Eight-hour basic day adopted by the steel corporation.....	133
Union scales in the building, metal, and stone trades and in freight handling.....	133-166
Wage situation in anthracite and bituminous coal districts.....	166-170
Minimum wage:	
Minimum wage decrees in California, Oregon, and Washington.....	171-179
Trade Boards Act, 1918, of Great Britain.....	179-181

	Page.
Women in industry:	
Federal policy in the employment of women.....	182-190
Conference of trade-union women under auspices of U. S. Department of Labor.....	190-192
Bureau of women in industry established in New York State.....	192, 193
Effect of industrial employment of women upon maternity.....	193-197
Industrial safety:	
Report of seventh annual safety congress, National Safety Council.....	198-204
Workmen's compensation:	
Fifth annual convention of International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.....	205-214
"Arising out of and in course of employment," by George A. Kingston..	214-226
Hernia as a factor in workmen's compensation awards, by C. F. Stoddard..	227-240
Lack of uniformity in compensation legislation, by Lindley D. Clark....	240-253
Workmen's compensation law of Wyoming held constitutional.....	253, 254
Reports of workmen's compensation commissions:	
Michigan.....	254
West Virginia.....	255, 256
Labor organizations:	
Movement for a Pan American federation of labor.....	257-259
Trades-union congress, Great Britain.....	259-265
Labor laws and regulations:	
Regulations by United States Department of Labor for admission of Mexican laborers.....	266-271
Housing:	
Public utility societies, England.....	272-275
Billeting of civilian war workers in England.....	275, 276
Employment and unemployment:	
Employment in selected industries in September, 1918.....	277-282
Placement of women in industry.....	282-284
Rôle of the employment department in securing and retaining employees	284-286
Extent of unemployment among discharged soldiers.....	287
Strikes and lockouts:	
Provision to prevent strikes and lockouts in Minnesota during the war..	288, 289
Recent strikes in Great Britain.....	289-298
Immigration:	
Immigration in August, 1918.....	299, 300
Conciliation and arbitration:	
Conciliation work of the Department of Labor, September 16 to October 15, 1918.....	301-308
Publications relating to labor:	
Official—United States.....	309-316
Official—foreign countries.....	316-320
Unofficial.....	320-331

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ADJUSTING WAGES TO THE COST OF LIVING.

BY PROF. IRVING FISHER, DEPARTMENT OF POLITICAL ECONOMY, YALE UNIVERSITY.

When prices in general are rapidly rising, whether the cause be inflation of money and credit or a real scarcity of goods, or anything else, wages usually lag behind. Even when special influences exist tending to raise wages, such as depletion of the labor supply by the draft or a new demand for labor for war purposes, there is no such close correspondence as ought to exist between changes in the prices of what the workingman buys, on the one hand, and changes in the wages by which he buys, on the other. The resulting labor discontent, unless the employer is sufficiently farsighted to satisfy the demands of his men in advance, is liable to culminate in strikes to force up the wages. Various remedies have been attempted to meet the situation, some on the initiative of the employers, some as the result of disputes.

After the first great upheaval of prices felt in this country since the war broke out in Europe, namely, the upheaval of 1915-16, several banks, trust companies, and commercial and industrial establishments made special Christmas presents to their employees to compensate partially for the reduced purchasing power of their salaries for the preceding year, the presents being a fixed percentage of the salaries. Some companies, which let Christmas go by, later followed the precedent set by giving special percentage bonuses in the spring of 1917.

Most of these attempted adjustments were by rule of thumb. Thus, one trust company of Albany added 10 per cent to the salaries for April, 1916, to April, 1917. The Westinghouse Lamp Co. voted an increase of $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent at the close of 1916, "because of the advancing cost of living." The Doehler Die Casting Co., of Brooklyn, voted to give all the employees who had been working for a year or more a dividend of 10 per cent of their yearly wages every time regular dividends were declared after January 1, 1917. The Tide Water Oil Co. similarly announced that on account of the high cost of living 12 per cent of the earnings in the year would be paid to all employees receiving less than \$3,000 a year. These are only a few of the many firms which used the custom of Christmas bonuses to make a more explicit recognition of the ills of the high cost of living.

Others attempted a more scientific adjustment. The Bankers' Trust Co., of New York City, appointed a special committee of its employees to investigate increased living costs. This investigation showed that the cost of living was 21 per cent higher in 1916 than in 1915. They used Bradstreet's price figures, omitting certain articles, such as metals, not entering into an employee's budget, leaving 54 articles actually used in determining the change in price level. This 21 per cent increase applied, not on the entire salaries, but on that part of them which is, on the average, expended on the necessities of life. Chapin's "New York Study" was used as the basis. The results were, in brief, that employees receiving salaries ranging from \$500 to \$1,199 should receive the 21 per cent additional on 80 per cent of their salaries; those receiving \$1,200 to \$1,499, on 77 per cent; and those receiving \$1,500 to \$2,499, on 70 per cent. The recommendation of the committee was adopted, and, accordingly, in these three classes the employees received 16.8 per cent, 16.17 per cent, and 14.7 per cent, respectively, of their entire salaries. Those earning over \$2,500 received the flat sum of \$365.

Apparently most employers who made such adjustments as those just mentioned assumed that they were made once for all. But it was found, of course, that living costs wouldn't "stay put," so that a new adjustment needed to be made next year. This led naturally to the idea of a periodical adjustment. The Bankers' Trust Co. appointed a committee to make further investigation. Its report, made December 15, 1917, covered 22 pages. The study was along similar lines to the one of the previous year. The index number based on the 54 articles was verified by comparison with other index numbers and by independent data secured from chain and department stores and other sources in New York. The conclusion was reached that the cost of living as to food and clothing in the last half of 1917 was 86.2 per cent above that of the year 1915. To be conservative, this figure was reduced to 80 per cent, and was applied simply to that portion of the budget which went for food and clothing. Rent was assumed to have advanced 10 per cent. Roughly, the net result was that the percentage increase in the Bradstreet number was applied to 60 per cent of the salary. Actual compensation, however, was reckoned relatively to more recent dates than 1915, varying according to the times the various employees entered the service of the company. Thus a clerk receiving \$1,000 a year and employed in July, 1916, was entitled to \$178.87.

This committee reported again in June, 1918, favoring a reduction of the percentage of compensation, because it was felt that the employees should bear a small proportion of the increase in living costs. In the words of the report, "The committee questions if Bankers' Trust Co., which can not in these times be assured of profits

commensurate with the decrease in the purchasing power of money, should, in equity, continue a policy which, for the duration of the war, would relieve its employees in every instance entirely from the common duty of retrenchment and reduced uses of essentials, which should now be a voluntary and willing sacrifice by all."

The Union & New Haven Trust Co. attempted for a time a monthly compensation for living costs, taking the index number (for wholesale prices of foods) of the Times Annalist as a basis and assuming that half of the budget was for food and that the other half remained invariable. This meant that for every 1 per cent advance of the Annalist index number one-half per cent was added to salaries. The plan was afterwards abandoned, apparently because other banks in New Haven had no such expense.

The American Association for Labor Legislation has adopted a similar plan in paying their office employees.

The Oneida Community inaugurated on January 1, 1917, a system of compensation for the high cost of living by the use of Bradstreet's index number for wholesale prices. Each workman receives two weekly pay envelopes—one containing regular wages and the other containing a certain percentage thereof calculated from Bradstreet's number. An initial adjustment of 16 per cent was made as representing the increase in the cost of living between January 1, 1916 (when the general wage scale had been revised), and January 1, 1917. This 16 per cent was applied to the wages for the first month. In each succeeding month a 1 per cent advance or decline of wages was made for each 20 points change in the Bradstreet number. This amounted to a compensation of about 60 per cent of the increase in living cost, which corresponds closely to the Bankers' Trust Co.'s results where the compensation was for the full percentage increase, but on only 60 per cent of the actual salary—i. e., that spent for food and clothing. An interesting feature which has been noted in the working of this plan at the Oneida Community is that the paying of the "H. C. L." compensation in a separate envelope is a great inducement to saving.

The Kelley-How-Thomson Co. (hardware), of Duluth, Minn., adopted, independently, a similar plan.

The George Worthington Co. (hardware), of Cleveland, Ohio, on October 1, 1917, followed the lead of the Oneida Community, with the exception that all employees were included excepting the directors or salesmen on a commission basis.

The Printz-Biederman Co. (clothing), also of Cleveland, received the idea from the George Worthington Co. The introduction of the plan here was through the employees' organization. This comprises a house of representatives, a senate, and a cabinet. A conference committee selected by them reported back their findings, with the result that the suggested plan was promptly and unanimously

adopted. In this case the "H. C. L." envelope was not given with the regular pay, but monthly. The plan was in operation for six months. In June, 1918, the index figures had gone up 12 per cent, and this 12 per cent was added to the wage rate then in existence and a general revision of all base rates was simultaneously made. Since then the index number adjustments have ceased, but a half-yearly revision of the wage situation is to be made by the wage committee.

The Index Visible (Inc.), of New Haven, Conn., has recently adopted a simpler plan based on the index number of retail prices of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. Though this index number is only for food it is taken as applying to all family expenses. Thus the basis is the average index number, 158, for the first six months of 1918. The index number for August was 171, or 8.2 per cent higher than the base. Consequently, for all wages received in August (by those employed prior to July 1, 1918) a high-cost-of-living supplement of 8.2 per cent was distributed about a month later.

Various flouring mills in Seattle and other points in the Northwest have raised the wages of their employees on several occasions. The adjustments were made at irregular intervals, but consciously to meet the increase in living costs. The survey of prices on which the increase was determined was made under the direction of Prof. W. F. Ogburn, of the University of Washington, who calculated the index figures finally used.

The chief use of index numbers in settling wage disputes has been in the decisions of the National War Labor Board. Strikes have been settled and wage increases made specifically on the basis of index numbers. So far the War Labor Board has not put into effect the whole of the plan as used by the firms mentioned above, for they have not provided for periodic adjustments. The board is now considering the introduction of quarterly index number adjustments.

The principle is also recognized by the Shipbuilding Labor Adjustment Board. This Board has adopted the plan of making half yearly (April 1 and October 1) adjustments of wages in all shipbuilding centers, based on changes in the cost of living as determined for the Board by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. The most recent wage adjustment in accordance with this plan was announced by the Macy Board on October 24, 1918, effective October 1.

All of the methods described are only approximate, for as yet we do not possess any exact index number of the general cost of living. But as long as our dollar is so unstable in its purchasing power the various attempts to compensate for its aberrations are worthy of careful consideration looking toward a general adoption of the principle involved.

On account of the present "emergency high wages," the method is especially valuable. If the price level suffers a decrease after the

war, those firms which have advanced their employees' wages on the basis of index numbers can make a reduction, at least to the point at which they started, with the understanding on the part of the employees that the reduction is the automatic result of a price change similar but opposite to that which gave the high cost of living compensation. Employers realize the danger of causing discontent by an unexplained reduction of wages, although reduction will nevertheless in many cases be inevitable. A second reason for the special timeliness of the method can be found in the increasing Government control and Government ownership of industry. Strikes and discontent on the part of the Government employees are plainly dangerous, and therefore devices which tend to create loyalty and content are increasingly important with the increase of the Government undertakings.

FOOD SITUATION IN GERMANY DURING THE SUMMER OF 1918.¹

COMPILED AND TRANSLATED BY ALFRED MAYLANDER.

THE GENERAL SITUATION.

At the beginning of June, 1918, the prospects of the German food supply darkened with remarkable rapidity. This was probably due in part to the risky policy followed in the spring of gambling in what may be called "Ukrainian futures," and in part to weather conditions. That the general situation of the food supply in the spring was on the whole slightly easier than last year was due in part, indeed, to the better stocks of potatoes, but partly to a policy of mortgaging the future; that is to say, the authorities kept up the rations of the staple foods at the normal level rather longer than the supplies at hand justified with a view to making up the deficit later by means of the "bread peace" with the Ukraine; partly also, perhaps, in the hope of extorting peace this year by the western offensive. But the prospects of help from the Ukraine have, speaking broadly, faded away, peace is as far off as ever, and the authorities are now reaping the consequences of their own rashness. The bread ration has been reduced below its lowest level last year, and it now seems as if it would be not altogether easy to maintain it even at this reduced scale. The Government is forced to resort, to an even greater extent than last year, to the expedient of "early thrashing," and it has, moreover, to interfere with the local arrangements of the communal unions. For many local authorities, by greater "stretching" of bread or a lower ration than in neighboring communes, had managed

¹ The present article has been compiled from various German daily papers in the form of translations and digests. For previous articles on the same subject see: "Foreign food prices as affected by the war," Bul. No. 170, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics; "Food situation in central Europe, 1917," Bul. No. 242; and MONTHLY REVIEW of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, May, 1917, pp. 703-727; June, 1917, pp. 921-923; July, 1917, pp. 66-69; January, 1918, pp. 91-95; May, 1918, pp. 45-53; and August, 1918, pp. 146-151.

to put by reserves with a view to a possible emergency such as has now occurred, and these authorities had fondly hoped by this means to avoid a reduction, wholly or in part. But now the Imperial Grain Office has intervened, declaring that local authorities will not be allowed to distribute a ration on a higher basis than 180 grams (6.3 ounces) as opposed to the official 160 grams (5.6 ounces) a day, and seizing the surplus over and above the amount required to yield this. The result is much indignation in municipal circles and a general resolve not to err on the side of economy again.

But other rations, too, had to be reduced. The maintenance of the meat ration at its old level of 250 grams (8.8 ounces) per week has reduced the stocks alarmingly and played havoc with the sources of the milk supply. It has, therefore, become necessary to introduce a graded reduction of the ration, beginning with August 12, by which, while larger towns receive 250 grams (8.8 ounces), smaller places are cut down to as little as 150 grams (5.3 ounces). Moreover, meatless weeks are being observed, beginning with August 19. The supplies of milk (and therefore of butter and cheese) have sunk so low that in Munich and other Bavarian towns the already scanty deliveries of milk are being drastically cut down in order to lay in a reserve stock of fats for the winter.

During the week of June 23-29 the outstanding feature of the German food supply was the sudden failure of the potato stocks. As late as the end of April the authorities were assuring the public that there were enough potatoes to maintain the 3½-kilogram (7.7 pounds) ration till the new harvest. At the beginning of June, however, the authorities discovered that the stores would "not be sufficient everywhere" to maintain the ration, and local reductions occurred here and there, usually to 2½ kilograms (5.5 pounds). Then during the last week of June, suddenly, and like a bolt from the blue, it was announced that stocks were exhausted, and almost everywhere the ration either fell considerably below 2½ kilograms or disappeared altogether.

The serious consequences of the food policy pursued in the spring have been aggravated by weather conditions—first long drought and then cold weather, heavy thunderstorms, snow, and night frosts have worked havoc with the alleged favorable prospects of this year's harvest. Harvest reports were plentiful and in some cases long in the German press in August. Weighing one with another and allowing for exaggeration and deliberate misrepresentation, and balancing failure in one locality with exceptionally good results in another, it seems fairly safe to conclude that this year's harvest is on the whole rather superior in quantity to last year's, though almost certainly inferior to it in quality. Its quality has been affected by wet weather during the harvest and by premature cutting and

thrashing of grain, much of which has been delivered in very damp condition. An order of the Bundesrath of June 15 has raised the price of all kinds of grain.

Fruit has been scarce during the summer, and is likely to remain so, since in most parts of Germany the crop seems to have been a failure. The vegetable supply though nowhere satisfactory is on the whole improving.

From a perusal of the German daily papers it becomes clear that there is much depression and discontent over the bad food supply. The efficiency of the workers is being steadily impaired by present conditions, and employers and authorities seem to live perpetually in the fear of possible strikes or even graver manifestations of discontent.

SPEECH OF THE FOOD MINISTER.

On the occasion of a food debate in the Reichstag on July 6 the food minister, Von Waldow, made an important speech on the food supply.¹ He referred in opening to the steady extension of State control, the unavoidable drawbacks of the system, and the recent proposal to substitute for it the system of assessment quotas. On this he said:

This system is uncertain alike for consumer and for producer. The experiences of our allies this year with the grain supply ought to put us on our guard. They have had the result of causing the Governments of Germany, Austria, and Hungary to agree on uniform principles for the control of the grain supplies; these are the principles on which our imperial grain order is founded.

After alluding to the necessity for continued economy, he said, with reference to the criticisms passed on the present system:

However useful these criticisms may be in themselves they should not go so far as has recently been the case, in order systematically to undermine confidence, with the cry "free trading, free production."

The important parts of the remainder of his speech may be summarized as follows:

We got through the winter better than could be expected, judging by the autumn prospects. This was due to the good potato crop and to greater elaboration of the communal organization. The supply of bread grain was insufficient from the very beginning.

Unfavorable weather caused a complete failure of the fodder grain harvest and a very scanty harvest of bread grain. In the occupied territories, too, and in Roumania the harvest was disappointing. Whereas imports of sugar and eggs from the Ukraine have begun promisingly, the deliveries of grain from there are insufficient. The general disorder in the Ukraine causes great difficulties, which we have so far been unable to overcome, and it will be a long time before any large transport can commence. Judging by present conditions, the harvest of autumn-sown crops in Germany should commence very shortly. The harvest of winter barley is already in full swing, and supplies from it are being received by the Imperial Grain Office. With very few exceptions the potato ration could be maintained in full till the beginning

¹ Vossische Zeitung. Berlin, July 7, 1918. Morning edition.

of this month (July) throughout the whole of Germany (protests from the Social Democrats: Untrue!). Now we have reached the last few weeks, when last year's stocks naturally grow scarce, and owing to their bad condition and great wastage a failure of the supply occurs in isolated¹ places. The cold weather has delayed the potato harvest by 10 days, and hence, contrary to expectation, a certain insufficiency of the supply makes itself felt. However, by drawing on the districts where the harvest is earlier and by the help of Dutch potatoes it will be possible to make up such local failures, and I am confident we shall be able to get through the last difficult weeks of this economic year without serious interruptions in the supply.

The failure of the fodder harvest and the want of concentrated fodder have had, with us as elsewhere, an unfavorable effect on our livestock. The necessary reduction of stocks and the decline in slaughtering weight have compelled us considerably to exceed the normal depletion of our cattle stocks, and we can not continue on this course without danger to our future meat supply, and in particular to the supply of milk and fat. We can not, therefore, avoid introducing, as soon as our bread ration is restored and the full potato supply is assured, a small reduction in the meat ration, and also, for a certain period, a meatless week at fixed intervals. In compensation, an extra allowance of flour will be given in the meatless weeks.

As to the prospects for the coming economic year, our own production will continue to be the deciding factor. The products of the occupied territories and the imports from Roumania and the Ukraine offer us a certain reserve, but are too uncertain factors to be reckoned with except with caution. Late frosts and drought have unfavorably affected the growth of the crops in parts of Germany, but the abundant rains of the last few weeks have made up for this, so that we may justifiably hope for a better harvest than last year's. There is therefore no reason for pessimism. Unfavorable weather has made the holding out more difficult for us these last four years; it brought us three bad harvests: 1915, a bad oats and barley harvest; 1916, a worse potato harvest; and 1917, a complete failure of all fodder crops. If this year we obtain, as we are justified in hoping, a medium good harvest, we shall, thanks to our own production, to the assistance of the available imports from the East, and to our better organization, be in a considerably better position than our enemies.

During the debate which followed the food minister's speech, Wels, a majority socialist, made the following remarks:

The patience of the people is marvelous. After the insolent rebuff the junkers in Prussia have given it, it accepts quietly the reduction of the bread and potato rations. Now meatless weeks are to follow. It seems as if it were the intention to discover how far the burdening of the people can be carried. The limit will soon be reached. A further deterioration of the food supply is unendurable. In certain quarters there is no conception of the misery prevailing among the masses. The Kaiser's speech at Aix about the alleged imports from the Ukraine showed how little he knows of actual conditions. The proposal to substitute a system of assessment quotas for the present system of food control would only make matters worse. In Austria potatoes were controlled on these lines, and the result is enough to frighten us despite our own misery. Workmen can not possibly get sufficient food on their present wages. Why, the war bonuses do not average more than 30 per cent. According to statistics of the local sick funds, 47 per cent of the Berlin workers get less than 4 marks (95 cents) a day. Now, too, unemployment is making itself felt in Berlin. If this sort of thing goes on, events like those in January (the general strike) must inevitably recur. Moreover, we have to face the possibility of an insufficiency of our bread supply before the new harvest.

¹ According to statements in the press from all parts of Germany as to reductions of the potato ration, Von Waldow's "isolated places" really means practically the whole of Germany.

COMMENTS OF THE PRESS ON THE FOOD SITUATION.

In articles published this summer in the German daily press there can be found plentiful evidence of the present unsatisfactory food situation and the consequent public discontent. Two of these articles will be quoted here in part. The first, which appeared in the *Vorwärts* under the title "Das Ernährungsvakuum" (The vacuum in the stomach), says:¹

The present time of distress is described in official language as the transition period between the economic years 1917-18 and 1918-19. In somewhat less anemic German this may be translated: "The old harvest is nearly used up, and the new is not yet here."

Between these periods the inhabitants of Berlin who are in easy circumstances can withdraw to those parts of the German Empire, such as Bavaria, etc., where there is plenty to eat. The chief stress has to be borne by the poor, who are tied to the districts where they work, and have no money for traveling. We may perhaps be offered the consolation that things were worse at this time last year. That may be admitted, but against it must be placed the grievous circumstance that now, year by year, the season returns in which the need of the human body for a certain number of calories, which must be supplied in the form of food, finds no place within the official orders. It proves that our organization for distribution is defective, if it can only secure distribution for 10 or 11 instead of 12 months.

The concentrated foods promised as a substitute for the potatoes are only an unsatisfactory substitute for the war stomach.

The early vegetables are supposed to help, and might help, but for the high price. For a family which can afford to pay 5 to 10 marks (\$1.19 to \$2.38) every day for the midday meal a tolerably satisfying vegetarian meal can be prepared, but such an outlay is quite impossible for most of the soldiers' wives, pensioners, workmen with small earnings, and lower Government officials.

The present conditions show clearly how unreasonable the proposals of the Conservative Party were to introduce a substitute for the system of requisition and seizure of food articles. The grain that disappears in illicit trade is estimated by the authorities at 1,000,000 metric tons² (984,200 long tons) and it is just this quantity which we lack in the eleventh and twelfth months of the economic year. Every effort must, therefore, be made to get this into the hands of the State.

Unfortunately the morale of the nation is being lowered not only by physical strain, but by political disappointments, scarcely calculated to produce a mood which will patiently endure the inevitable.

The second article, written by Erich Dombrowsky under the title "Der Schmachtriemen" (The tightened belt) appeared in the *Berliner Tageblatt*.³ It draws up two lists comprising the average daily fare, during May, June, and July, in prewar days and now, of a German of the middle class in comfortable circumstances.

In prewar days he consumed the following quantities of foodstuffs:

- Good coffee, $\frac{1}{2}$ liter (0.53 quart).
- Milk and a little cream, $\frac{1}{4}$ liter (0.26 quart).
- Butter, 125 grams (4.4 ounces).

¹ *Vorwärts*. Berlin, June 30, 1918.

² A metric ton is the equivalent of 2,204.6 pounds, or approximately 0.9842 part of a long ton.

³ *Berliner Tageblatt*. Berlin, July 3, 1918. Evening edition.

Bread, 750 grams (1.7 pounds).
 Sausage or cold meat, 125 grams (4.4 ounces).
 Meat, 250 grams (8.8 ounces).
 Potatoes, 500 grams (1.1 pounds).
 Vegetables, 250 grams (8.8 ounces).
 Soup, $\frac{1}{2}$ liter (0.53 quart).
 Cake or pastries, 250 grams (8.8 ounces).
 Sugar, 125 grams (4.4 ounces).
 2 eggs.
 Tea, $\frac{1}{2}$ liter (0.53 quart).

To-day he may consume the following rations:

Bad substitute for coffee, $\frac{1}{2}$ liter (0.53 quart).
 Milk, quantity unknown.
 Butter and margarine, 10 grams (0.35 ounce).
 Bread, 250 grams (8.8 ounces).
 Sausage (in addition to horseflesh), 7 grams (0.25 ounce).
 Meat, with 50 grams (1.8 ounces) bones added, 21 grams (0.74 ounce).
 Potatoes, 250 grams (8.8 ounces).
 Vegetables, if he is lucky enough to get some, 125 grams (4.4 ounces).
 Soup, containing $\frac{1}{3}$ pound of barley and groats, $\frac{1}{2}$ liter (0.53 quart).
 Fruit ("Polish," at 2.1 marks (50 cents) per pound), 125 grams (4.4 ounces).
 Cake (mostly jelly and foam), 125 grams (4.4 ounces).
 Sugar, 50 grams (1.8 ounces).
 One-fourth egg.
 German (camomile) tea, $\frac{1}{3}$ liter (0.35 quart).

This gives at least an approximate comparison between then and now; then, 2,875 grams (6.3 pounds) of solid food; now, 963 grams (2.1 pounds), or only one-third of the peace-time nutriment. An accurate estimate must, of course, take into account two more factors, the number of calories represented by the above, and the additional quantities of food obtained in illicit ways.

INTERNAL JEALOUSIES.

Another symptom of crisis is the intensification of local jealousies. All through the war there has been much heartburning between Bavaria and north Germany, the press of the latter tending to represent Bavaria as a land flowing with milk and honey, but too selfish to share its superfluity with the suffering north, whereas Bavaria, on her side, has complained bitterly of the shoals of north Germans who have flooded her summer and health resorts for the purpose of buying up food. These hoarding excursions led to the recent enactment of drastic regulations for the limitation of the tourist traffic, which in turn has caused much resentment outside of Bavaria. Recently there was a rumor that the central fuel authorities of the Empire had decided to limit the supply of coal to Bavaria as a retaliatory measure. This was denied, but it appears now that an unofficial body had really proposed a policy of the kind.

"Vorwärts" points out that such a procedure, if actually carried out, will be attended by serious consequences; it will end in the various German Federal States being hermetically closed against each other; and yet they all consider themselves part of the German Empire.

Indignation is rife in Bavaria, for, as the "Münchener Post"¹ explains, the limitation of the tourist traffic was rendered necessary by the food situation.

It seems an undoubted fact that till recently Bavaria was, as regards some foodstuffs at all events, in a better position than other parts of the Empire—not unnaturally, since she is a great agricultural State; and even now the milk supply of Bavarian towns is better than that of most German towns. But certainly conditions have been much less favorable in the past year, and something in the nature of a crisis seems to have arisen recently.

The announcement that only the city of Berlin was to continue the old meat ration of 250 grams (8.8 ounces) created a perfect hurricane of indignation. Munich women demanded of the burgomaster equal treatment with Berlin,² town councils made representations,³ and a striking incident in two Bavarian health resorts, Alexandersbad and Luisenburg, where armed women from the neighboring town of Wunsiedel attacked hotel guests, devoured their provisions, and threatened them with an even severer drubbing if they did not clear out, seems to be due in part to the indignation aroused in Bavaria by the favoring of Berlin. The Bavarian Government took the popular side and strongly protested to the War Food Bureau, being followed in this by Saxony⁴ and Hamburg.⁵ The Berlin press responded by fierce attacks on Bavaria. The War Food Bureau was, however, obdurate; but since the situation in Bavaria, where potatoes were still excessively scarce in August, was really very bad, the State government arranged for Munich and some other towns to retain their present meat ration of 200 grams (7 ounces), the ration elsewhere being reduced to 180 grams (6.3 ounces)

GRAIN.

The new grain prices.—It had been generally expected in Germany that grain prices would be raised above last year's level, and much speculation was rife as to the Government's action. Finally, on June 18, the Reichsanzeiger⁶ announced that the Bundesrath, by an order of June 15, had fixed the prices of grain for the coming harvest

¹ Münchener Post. Munich, July 31, 1918.

² Münchener Neueste Nachrichten. Munich, Aug. 8, 1918. Morning edition.

³ Münchener Post. Munich, Aug. 7, 1918.

⁴ Berliner Tageblatt. Berlin, Aug. 5, 1918. Morning edition.

⁵ Vossische Zeitung. Berlin, Aug. 6, 1918. Morning edition.

⁶ Deutscher Reichsanzeiger. Berlin, June 18, 1918. Evening edition.

and also the early thrashing bonuses. The rise in the price of grain is semiofficially¹ justified by the increase in the cost of production, the lowered value of money, and the necessity for preventing a reduced cultivation of grain. The official notice states:

When fixing the rise in the price of grain, it was also necessary to see to it that the price of food to the population should not be excessively increased. The increase therefore had to be kept within the limits of absolute necessity. In consequence the new order fixes the rise at 35 marks per metric ton in the case of wheat and rye (23 and 21 cents, respectively, per bushel) and 30 marks per metric ton in the case of oats and barley (10 and 16 cents, respectively, per bushel). It amounts in the case of wheat to 12 per cent of the old price, in the case of rye to 13 per cent, and in that of barley and oats to 11 per cent, and therefore is not as high as last year's increase in the cost of production nor the drop in the value of money. But it is assumed that these prices will cover the cost of production. The classification according to price districts has been retained. According to the district of production, the price of rye has been fixed at from 300 to 315 marks per metric ton (\$1.81 to \$1.90 per bushel). The maximum price per ton of wheat and spelt of all kinds is 20 marks (\$4.76) higher (about 13 cents per bushel) than that of rye for the same district. In the case of other grains the maximum price has been fixed uniformly for the entire Empire, viz:

	Per metric ton. ²
Barley.....	300 marks (\$71.40)
Oats.....	300 marks (71.40)
Maize (all varieties).....	450 marks (107.10)
Buckwheat, unhusked.....	600 marks (142.80)
Buckwheat, husked.....	800 marks (190.40)
Buckwheat, wild.....	500 marks (119.00)
Millet, unhusked.....	600 marks (142.80)
Millet, husked.....	970 marks (230.86)

These maximum prices are producers' prices and are inclusive of the cost of carriage to station or wharf.

The order authorizes the food minister to issue more detailed regulations. He also decides what extra work the prices include and what is the maximum compensation that may be granted for extra work. He can grant exceptions. He can raise or reduce the prices for definite periods, so far as this seems necessary for securing timely deliveries. He can make special arrangements as to prices for sale of grain for seed purposes.

In pursuance of the above authorization the food minister has fixed the rates of the early thrashing bonuses for all kinds of grain except oats and maize as follows:

In case of delivery before—

	Per metric ton. ²
July 16, 1918.....	120 marks (\$28.56)
Aug. 1, 1918.....	100 marks (23.80)
Aug. 16, 1918.....	80 marks (19.04)
Sept. 1, 1918.....	60 marks (14.28)
Sept. 16, 1918.....	40 marks (9.52)
Oct. 1, 1918.....	20 marks (4.76)

¹ Vossische Zeitung. Berlin, June 18, 1918. Morning edition.

² A metric ton is equal to 2,204.6 pounds.

Three supplementary announcements call for notice. First, the *Deutsche Tageszeitung*¹ states that with regard to the thrashing bonus all costs will be borne by the imperial treasury according to the same principles as last year; second, the *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten*² announces that the order makes all the communal unions of Bavaria self-administering; and, third, the War Food Bureau informs the press³ that the flour price will be raised by not quite 2 pfennigs per 500 grams (0.43 cent per pound) and that of bread by 2½ pfennigs (0.54 cent per pound) on the average.

The order has been by no means well received in the press. Urban papers are for the most part very indignant. *Vorwärts*,⁴ for example, stating, contrary to the War Food Bureau's estimate, that the new prices will mean an increase in the price of bread of about 5 pfennigs per one-half kilogram (1.1 cents per pound) from August onward, writes:

Just at the moment when the complaints of underfeeding and of the high prices of all the necessaries of daily life are producing the utmost anxiety and dissatisfaction, agrarians with their notorious ruthlessness are calling upon the people to accept an increase in the bread price. That is to say, they demand a new impost for the benefit of farmers—a class for whom the war (though it brought about many difficulties) yielded a substantial compensation for every disadvantage.

This increase means very considerable gain to the agriculturists. Reckoning the consumption of the army and civilians at 6,000,000 metric tons (236,207,143 bushels of 56 pounds), the extra 35 marks per ton (21.2 cents per bushel of 56 pounds) for bread grain means an extra 210,000,000 marks (\$49,980,000). Adding the early thrashing premium, the amount of which at a moderate average may be put at 50 marks per ton (30.2 cents per bushel), we get a further sum of 300,000,000 marks (\$71,400,000), and if the extra profit on barley and oats is similarly reckoned we must set the return of this agrarian offensive at about 1,000,000,000 marks (\$238,000,000).

The particularly serious aspect of these measures is the demand for an increase in the prices of cattle in accordance with the high prices of fodder; and in close connection therewith is the advancing of the prices of milk and butter. Pig prices have already been raised to 130 marks per centner (\$28.07 per cwt.), live weight—an increase of about 50 marks (\$10.79 per cwt). Although this increase is being principally borne by the army, as there is scarcely any pork for civilians apart from home slaughterings, consumers will be directly affected as taxpayers.

Representatives of the Social Democratic Party have pointed out to the food minister that the party regarded this increase of grain prices as quite unjustified.

Imports of grain from the Ukraine.—In an article on conditions in the Ukraine the *Hamburger Fremdenblatt*⁵ attributes the nonfulfillment of the promised exports to Germany to the general agitation against the Hetman Government, especially among railway employes. Actual exports of grain to the Central Powers up to the end of May amounted only to 1,750. carloads, of which the greater part

¹ *Deutsche Tageszeitung*. Berlin, June 18, 1918. Evening edition.

² *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten*. Munich, June 18, 1918.

³ *Vorwärts*. Berlin, June 19, 1918.

⁴ *Idem*. June 18, 1918.

⁵ *Hamburger Fremdenblatt*. Hamburg, June 26, 1918. Evening edition.

went to Austria-Hungary. Germany received only 564 carloads of the total shipments. The *Lokal-Anzeiger*¹ reports on June 5 that the first consignment of wheat from the Ukraine, consisting of 40 carloads, which were taken over by the Imperial Grain Office, had arrived in Berlin. The wheat was said to be of good quality.

At a later date the *Vossische Zeitung*² makes the following statement:

It became obvious by the beginning of July that there was nothing to be bought in the Ukraine commercially. From July 4 to 19 dealers were allowed, but it did not transpire that anything had been bought. The Ukrainian Government has now, following the German example, placed an embargo on the new harvest, reserving to itself the sole right of purchase, the self-providers' supply and the seed being assigned to farmers by the minister of agriculture. In this way large quantities of grain should now, at least during the first months of the harvest year, be obtainable for Germany.

Early thrashing.—With respect to the results of early thrashing the *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten* states:³

The deliveries to the Imperial Grain Office are progressing well. The rainy weather has rather delayed the harvest, but the preparations for drying have advanced so well that the supply of the necessary quantity of bread grain, about 8,000 metric tons (314,943 bushels of 56 pounds) per day, seems guaranteed. An expert on grain, Dr. Heim, a few weeks ago spoke of the possibility that we might not obtain sufficient grain during the first weeks of August to supply our reduced rations, but it can now be said that this anxiety was unnecessary.

Reference has repeatedly been made in the press to the delivery of damp rye. This seems to be a really serious danger this year; and in reference to this subject the *Schlesische Zeitung* writes:⁴

Bread grain can be considered fit for storing only if it contains not more than 16 to 17 per cent of water. But in order to favor the delivery of grain, the Imperial Grain Office has ordered the mills affiliated with it to accept grain containing up to 19 per cent of water. This has to be artificially dried to 17 per cent, and the farmer is debited with the cost. Unfortunately, a large amount of grain is being delivered which contains up to 25 per cent of water, and even up to 30 per cent. The large quantities delivered in this damp condition can not be dried sufficiently quickly, and they soon deteriorate, providing a flour with a musty flavor and unfit for human consumption. Farmers are, therefore, requested to keep their heads, and not to start thrashing before the grain is sufficiently dry, as they injure themselves and others.

BREAD.

The higher grain prices fixed for this year's crop necessitated an increase in the price of bread, and this new price was introduced in August. The Berlin bakers have been dissatisfied for some time past because no professional experts were consulted when the price of bread was fixed. They state that the bread prices do not correspond with the expenses of production, and that there is no profit to

¹ *Berliner Lokal-Anzeiger*. Berlin, June 5, 1918.

² *Vossische Zeitung*. Berlin, Aug. 1, 1918. Evening edition.

³ *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten*. Munich, Aug. 5, 1918. Morning edition.

⁴ *Schlesische Zeitung*. Breslau, Aug. 9, 1918. Morning edition.

be made. At a recent meeting of the Bakers' Union of Greater Berlin all speakers agreed that many bakers would soon be ruined unless a change in policy were made. A resolution to this effect was adopted.¹

At its meeting of August 8 the Food Union of Greater Berlin decided that from August 19 the bread ration will be raised to 1,850 grams (4.1 pounds) per week. The price of the black loaf was fixed at 97 pfennigs (23 cents) and of the white loaf at 1 mark (23.8 cents), so that there is a considerable increase in the price, while the weight of the loaf, though 100 grams (3.5 ounces) more than the recent weight of 1,750 grams (3.9 pounds), is still 100 grams less than the weight before the reduction of the ration. The Lokal-Anzeiger² in reporting this measure urges that the weight of the loaf must be increased to 1,950 grams (4.3 pounds) as soon as supplies of flour and stretching materials permit it.

The Berliner Tageblatt³ adds the further information that the price of 1,850 grams (4.1 pounds) of invalid's bread has been fixed at 1.23 marks (29 cents). Rye flour will cost 28 pfennigs per 500 grams (6.1 cents per pound), wheat flour, 32 pfennigs (6.9 cents per pound), and invalid's flour (superfine wheat flour), 38 pfennigs (8.2 cents per pound).

The quantity fixed for the new ration caused considerable dissatisfaction, and, according to the Vossische Zeitung,⁴ various Greater Berlin communes have requested the Food Union to approach the State authorities with a view to increasing the bread ration.

The Münchener Neueste Nachrichten⁵ had a long leader on the subject of the quality of the bread at present, which it declares is very unsatisfactory, and according to medical opinion, causes digestive disorders in not a few persons.

MEAT.

As has been briefly stated on a preceding page, an order was issued in July reducing the meat ration, the reduction to take effect beginning with the second week of August. For towns of over 100,000 inhabitants the reduced weekly meat ration was fixed at 200 grams (7 ounces); for those having between 50,000 and 100,000 inhabitants, at 150 grams (5.3 ounces); and for all smaller towns at 100 grams (3.5 ounces). Berlin is the only town in which a weekly ration of 250 grams (8.8 ounces) was allowed. The War Food Bureau justified this preferential ration by the great influx of visitors, German and foreign, to Berlin, the example of enemy countries

¹ Berliner Tageblatt. Berlin, Aug. 3, 1918. Morning edition.

² Berliner Lokal-Anzeiger. Berlin, Aug. 9, 1918. Morning edition.

³ Berliner Tageblatt. Berlin, Aug. 15, 1918. Morning edition.

⁴ Vossische Zeitung. Berlin, Aug. 16, 1918. Evening edition.

⁵ Münchener Neueste Nachrichten. Munich, Aug. 8, 1918. Morning edition.

with regard to their capital cities, the shortage of fish in Berlin, and the presence there of a large official population. The same order provided four meatless weeks for the entire Empire, from August 19 to 25, September 9 to 15, September 29 to October 6, and October 20 to 27.¹

These steps adopted to save the threatened cattle stocks have caused more friction and recrimination than any measures the War Food Bureau has adopted this year. The measure was strongly attacked from the agricultural point of view in an article contributed to the *Lokal-Anzeiger*² and entitled "As unpractical as possible." This article says:

It is hard to see why at this time townspeople should receive double the meat ration of the rural population. Self-providers are being stinted on all sides in order to supply towns and industrial centers, and even the authorities still foster the belief that everything can be obtained more easily in the country. There was a time when self-providers certainly did have more, but that was before the advent of hoarders and illicit traders.

Meatless weeks are necessary in order that the cattle may fatten up more before slaughtering and the stock be conserved to the utmost. For a long time agriculturists have known them to be inevitable, and have openly said so, but they should have been introduced in the period between Christmas and Easter, for then farm work is at its lightest and urban work is not any more difficult than in the autumn.

One of the few papers defending the above measure of the War Food Bureau is the *Germania*.³ In a lengthy article entitled "Our meat supply" it states:

On June 1, 1918, the entire number of horned cattle amounted still to approximately 19,300,000 head. But since the quality of horned cattle has become inferior it has become necessary to make great encroachments upon the supply to satisfy the meat rations. The normal amount of cattle slaughtered during a quarter of a year is about 4½ per cent, but this was exceeded last year. The reasons are the following:

1. During the past year a double ration of meat was distributed in place of the decreased bread ration. The result of this measure was that 9¾ per cent had to be slaughtered instead of 4½ per cent. In other words, 1,700,000 horned cattle were required instead of 900,000.

2. Because of the drought of last year and the lack of grain fodder and concentrated fodder there was a great decrease in the weight of the cattle. The former average slaughter weight was 200 kilograms (440.9 pounds), but now it is 159 kilograms (350.5 pounds), and in Russia still less. Therefore, to cover the meat ration, many more cattle had to be killed.

3. The decrease in the number of hogs has had a great effect upon the supply of horned cattle. In peace time 60 per cent of the meat consumed was pork, but we had 20 to 25 million hogs. But since fodder was scarce last year and we could not get foreign fodder, and the feeding of grain and potatoes to hogs had been prohibited, the hog supply had to be decreased. On March 1, 1918, the supply had decreased to 5,700,000 head. Even though it may have increased considerably since then, yet the population must depend principally on beef.

¹ Berliner Tageblatt. Berlin, Aug. 8, 1918. Evening edition.

² Lokal-Anzeiger. Berlin, Aug. 6, 1918.

³ Germania. Berlin, July 19, 1918.

4. The former great importation of live stock and meat has ceased almost entirely. We are receiving, of course, nothing from belligerent countries and the neutrals have not enough for themselves. Therefore, Germany has to depend entirely upon its own production and consequently we have considerably less meat than in peace time.

5. Besides we have a great number of heavier consumers. The men in the army consume on the average more meat than they consumed in peace time. The army regulations call for one pound of meat a day per head. Even if this ration is no longer being supplied to-day, it must be considered that the fighting troops alone, not including the noncombatant troops, the hospitals, prison camps, and the navy consume much more meat than the entire civilian population. The necessity that the fighting troops be well supplied with meat is clear to all.

The same article estimates that 30,000,000 kilograms (66,138,000 pounds) of beef, equivalent to 200,000 cattle, will be saved by the meatless days, and that by the reduction of the meat ration a saving of 22,000,000 kilograms (48,501,200 pounds) of beef, or 140,000 head of cattle, will result.

The meatless weeks starting on August 19 will not be entirely meatless according to an announcement of the War Food Bureau, for game and poultry, sold without coupons, may be bought by those who can afford it.

The Lokal-Anzeiger¹ announces that during the meatless weeks $\frac{1}{4}$ kilogram (8.8 ounces) of flour or $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (3.3 pounds) of potatoes will be distributed in the place of meat. On August 11 the same paper states that during the first week the substitute at Berlin will be $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms of potatoes; on the children's card $\frac{3}{4}$ kilogram (1.7 pounds).

SAUSAGES.

In consequence of an order by the State meat office the Berlin municipal administration has been obliged to issue new regulations on the manufacture of sausage. In discussing these regulations the *Fleischer-Zeitung*² says:

After June 20 the heads and tongues of cattle and calves have to be used for sausage. Up to the present the flesh of heads has been in great demand; also the head bones. All those parts are to be used in the "uniform" sausage. The regulation that uniform sausage must be taken instead of meat at the rate of one-fifth of the meat quantity remains in force. This new regulation is causing great difficulties, especially as regards the cooking of a large number of heads of cattle, and two sausage factories have had to stop work. The profit for manufacturers has also been cut down so fine that there will scarcely be any profit at a price of 2.3 marks per one-half kilogram (49.8 cents per pound), if one takes into consideration the loss in weighing and drying; also in the sale of end pieces. In order to prevent loss from drying and to prevent the guts from getting oily, butchers are to keep the sausages in a 5 per cent solution of salt. It is to be seen how the public will take to this sausage coming out of a salt solution.

The *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten*³ reports that the Bavarian meat supply office after having entirely forbidden the manufacture

¹ Berliner Lokal-Anzeiger. Berlin, Aug. 3, 1918. Morning edition.

² Fleischer-Zeitung. Berlin, June 20, 1918.

³ Münchener Neueste Nachrichten. Munich, June 22, 1918. Morning edition.

of rabbit sausage for sale has now taken this production into its own hands. Inferior sausage (*Stockwurst*), sausage meat (*Leberkäse*), meat pies (*Pastete*), and potted meat (*Streichwurst*) will be sold at a uniform price of 4.25 marks per 500 grams (92 cents per pound). Rabbit sausage will be obtainable without coupons on Wednesdays, Thursdays, and Saturdays.

On the subject of the price and nutritive value of rabbit sausage the Brunswick Volksfreund writes as follows:¹

In order to stretch the scanty meat supplies, sausages made of rabbit have been on the market for some time past, and they are hardly distinguishable from real meat sausage, though very high prices are charged. It is, therefore, desirable that a comparison should be made between the actual nutritive value and the prices charged. The nutritive value of rabbit is not very high in itself, but not so small as is sometimes thought, for it is relatively rich in albumen and also contains nearly 10 per cent fat. But in the process of converting into sausage the nutritive value is appreciably decreased partly by the large increase in water and partly because the fat fails to blend with the meat, and, therefore, does not get treated with it.

Despite the small proportion of fat, rabbit sausage would still be a nourishing dish if the large admixture of water were dispensed with. The prices are decidedly too high, in view of this decrease in nutritive value.

POULTRY.

An article in the *Düsseldorfer Nachrichten*² by Julius Kopsch, member of the Reichstag and of the lower house of the Prussian Diet, calls for the abolition of maximum prices for imported geese.

In the spring of 1917 a goose trading company was established under the auspices of the War Food Bureau and the Ministry of Agriculture to import geese live and killed, from the occupied districts of the East. In July, 1917, maximum prices were fixed which resulted in the stoppage of imports, as the prices asked in Poland could no longer be paid. In place of free trading illicit trading began and only 375,000 geese were imported from Poland in place of the 600,000 to 800,000 expected.

In spite of these experiences practically the same maximum prices have again been fixed this year by the War Food Bureau, with the result that only 42,000 geese have been imported and no more can be got hold of. A speedy abolition of the misguided price policy for imported geese is urgently necessary.

FISH.

The following statement by the chief of the Fish Distribution Office in Berlin is published in the *Berliner Tageblatt*.³

Very little fresh fish comes into Berlin at present owing to unfavorable weather. Only a little comes in from abroad. We have already had more than our allowance of sea fish from Denmark, and Holland, that used to furnish us with large quantities of river fish, needs these now for her own people. The main season for smoked fish is past; only a few bloaters come to Berlin, and some small flounders. Salt herring are provided by the imperial commissary to a much greater extent than last year. While in May and June some 2,000 centner (2204.6 cwt.) of fish arrived daily, we can now count only on 200 to 400 centner (220.5 to 440.9 cwt.).

¹ Volksfreund. Brunswick, June 11, 1918.

² *Düsseldorfer Nachrichten*. Düsseldorf, Aug. 12, 1918. Morning edition.

³ *Berliner Tageblatt*. Berlin, June 27, 1918. Evening edition.

MILK, BUTTER, AND CHEESE.

There seems to be an increasing general scarcity of dairy produce in Germany and a consequent raising of prices. On August 9 the morning edition of the *Münchener Neueste Nachrichten* states that an increase of milk and butter prices is again contemplated. The *Vossische Zeitung*¹ says:

The prices in illicit trade—2 to 3 marks per liter (45 to 67.6 cents per quart) of milk and of 25 marks per $\frac{1}{2}$ kilogram (\$5.41 per pound) of butter—are immoral and indefensible, but they are doubtless an infallible measure of the people's necessity. Legal prices can never approach the illegal, but it is certain that insufficient maximum prices for production breed the profiteer just as much as scarcity does.

But the decision had already been taken. An announcement in the *Berliner Tageblatt*² says:

The present shortage of milk products is due to the inroads made by slaughtering in the stocks of milch cows, the utter failure of last year's fodder harvest, and consequent dearth of feeding stuffs, and other well-known causes.

Dairy farming has been still further handicapped by the disproportion between the cost of production and the maximum prices fixed, and particularly by the loss sustained through the surrender of slaughtering cattle and restocking with milch cows. In order to help dairy farming to some extent the supplying districts have found it necessary to raise the price of whole milk by about 10 pfennigs per liter (2.3 cents per quart) as from September 1.

In order to maintain the milk supply for Greater Berlin, this decision will entail a simultaneous increase of the producer's price to 46 pfennigs per liter (10.4 cents per quart) for milk delivered to Berlin. In the interests of those entitled to receive whole milk, consisting chiefly of households with many children, it has been decided provisionally to increase the current retail milk prices by only a few pfennigs and to cover the greater part of the price increase by other means.

EGGS.

The *Leipziger Neueste Nachrichten*³ states that according to the *Dresdner Nachrichten* the supply of eggs to Dresden in June was still far below what was promised. It reports, also, that of 260,000 eggs contained in two carloads of eggs which had just reached Dresden from the Ukraine, very many were unfit for human consumption. They were examined one by one and a Berlin expert estimated that about 15 per cent in one car and 25 per cent in the other were bad. The bad eggs are being sent to Berlin to make washing material. Eggs have also arrived from Lithuania, as to which complaints are made.

According to the *Vorwärts*⁴ Herr Stubbe (Socialist) spoke in the Reichstag food committee on deliveries of eggs and dried eggs from the East. Up to the beginning of June, to his knowledge, only 50 carloads of eggs had reached Germany from the Ukraine. In order

¹ *Vossische Zeitung*. Berlin, Aug. 12, 1918. Evening edition.

² *Berliner Tageblatt*. Berlin, Aug. 11, 1918. Morning edition.

³ *Leipziger Neueste Nachrichten*. Leipzig, June 24, 1918.

⁴ *Vorwärts*. Berlin, June 25, 1918.

to save transportation it was proposed that the eggs should be dried in Roumania. It was doubtful whether this would be an advantage. People had a great prejudice against egg powder. Bakers would scarcely use it in spite of its cheapness. In the upper East the military authorities had all the eggs broken into large casks, good along with bad, so that the whole lot was spoiled.

POTATOES.

It has already been stated on a previous page that the most striking feature of the German food situation during the summer of 1918 was the sudden failure of the potato supply around the end of June. This sudden collapse of the supply was at first a little difficult to account for, as the public had been assured that the ration of $3\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (7.7 pounds) per week could be maintained until the new potato harvest. One reason seems to be revealed by the following statement of the mayor of Düsseldorf published in the *Düsseldorfer Nachrichten*.¹

We are now again in the worst weeks of the year. So far we have had our full ration of $3\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (7.7 pounds) of potatoes per week. This week for the first time it is $2\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (5.5 pounds). We ought to have been able to receive the $3\frac{1}{2}$ -kilogram ration for some weeks longer, even up to the new harvest, if the army had not unexpectedly, in consequence of the oats shortage, needed large quantities of potatoes for the army horses. Until quite recently we had figured on having a full supply of early potatoes by now. But the terrible drought which unhappily affected the whole of Germany prevented the growth of the early potatoes and now deprives us for some weeks of our customary and necessary measure of potatoes. From this week onward throughout our whole district the potato ration is fixed at $2\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (5.5 pounds) per week. Any failure in this respect will be met by prepared foods (hulled barley, farinaceous foods, groats, soup cubes, etc.) at the rate of 100 grams (3.5 ounces) of prepared foods for every missing half kilogram (1.1 pounds) of potatoes.

The universality of the potato shortage is evident from the fact that the potato ration has been reduced in all large municipalities, as articles discussing these reductions are to be found in all German dailies. A few extracts of such articles are quoted here.

In Potsdam the ration was reduced to 1 kilogram (2.2 pounds) of potatoes and 250 grams (8.8 ounces) of hulled barley per week.

At Neukölln, a large industrial suburb of Berlin, the authorities content themselves with the announcement that as, "owing to the irregular supply of potatoes, it is possible that not all of the inhabitants will be able to receive the amount of potatoes due to them on section 25 of the Neukölln potato card" prepared food will be sold as a substitute in the municipal shops, viz., in lieu of $3\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (7.7 pounds) of potatoes, 125 grams (4.4 ounces) of pulse, 125 grams of pulse flour, and 500 grams (1.1 pounds) soup cubes.²

¹ *Düsseldorfer Nachrichten*. Düsseldorf, June 23, 1918. Morning edition.

² *Lokal-Anzeiger*. Berlin, June 28, 1918. Morning edition.

At Hamburg the ration was reduced for the week June 30 to July 6 from $2\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (5.5 pounds) to 1 kilogram (2.2 pounds), and no guarantee was given that everybody would actually receive even that amount. As substitute for the missing $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (3.3 pounds), 250 grams (8.8 ounces) of hulled barley were to be given, and the meat ration was increased from 200 to 250 grams (7 to 8.8 ounces). The war kitchens received only enough potatoes to serve as thickening material.¹

Finally, at Munich the food supply office announced that in the first week of July only $1\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (3.3 pounds) of potatoes will be available per head and until it is possible to draw on the new crop no more potatoes will be distributed. Vegetables and prepared food will be sold instead. The *Münchener Post*,² which gives this information, remarks that to cook expensive vegetables nutritiously fat, which is lacking above all, is necessary; and it adds bitterly: "Have our war prolongers and annexationist 'holders out' any conception of all this? If so, the greater their irresponsibility."

The reduction of the ration caused great indignation in Berlin.

During August the supply of potatoes became again fairly adequate over most of north Germany, the ration varying from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ kilograms (5.5 to 7.7 pounds). In Bavaria, however, it was still very unsatisfactory.

FRUITS AND VEGETABLES.

The fixing of maximum prices for early fruit and vegetables has led to the practical disappearance of these in June from the urban markets. Complaints to this effect are to be found in the daily press of nearly all large cities.

On June 18, Von Tilly, the chief of the Imperial Food and Vegetable Office, had an interview with representatives of the press at which he declared the office was not to blame for the conditions in the Berlin fruit and vegetable market.³ There was not much consolation for consumers in his remarks. They may be summed up as follows: The peace imports from Spain, France, Italy, and North Africa are lacking and the home harvest is not good and in many parts of the country is late, while the demand for fruit has increased enormously. It is therefore quite out of the question for the fruit and vegetable office to procure as much as is wanted.

Discussing Von Tilly's statements a writer in the *Vossische Zeitung*³ points out:

The consumers complain not so much of the shortage, which is to be expected in the fourth year of the war, as of the unfairness of the distribution of what there actually is available, of the illicit trade, of the maximum price system, and of the waste of precious food in the cumbersome machinery of organization.

¹ *Hamburger Fremdenblatt*. Hamburg, June 28, 1918. Morning edition.

² *Münchener Post*. Munich, June 29, 1918.

³ *Vossische Zeitung*. Berlin, June 18, 1918. Evening edition.

A correspondent writes to the *Deutsche Tageszeitung*:¹

"Owing to the good crop of kohlrabi and carrots in 1916 the prices of kohlrabi were fixed considerably below mangolds which, after all, are more prolific." In addition to the low prices he complains of the unnecessary amount of officialdom and writes: "Who will be bothered with cultivation contracts at the present low prices, the compulsory terms, and the annoyances? Most farmers are just cultivating sufficient vegetables for their own use." He describes the long process of obtaining permits for purchasing seeds, which, on arrival, were charged at the rate of 130 marks per kilogram instead of 40 marks (\$14.06 per pound instead of \$4.33), and 39.50 marks per kilogram instead of 12.40 marks (\$4.27 per pound instead of \$1.34) for yellow carrots. Remonstrances sent to the provincial vegetable office were of no avail, the answer obtained stating that these were foreign seeds and subject to other prices. He concludes: "All this shows the inadequacy of the Imperial Fruit and Vegetable Office, which can not guarantee a supply of vegetables for the people, since it can not even guarantee a supply of seeds for farmers."

On July 5 the *Berliner Tageblatt*² publishes the following article on the state of the supply:

The Berlin vegetable supply is improving. The Berlin municipal administration has made extensive arrangements for stocking the market with large quantities of kohlrabi to make up for the absence of potatoes. Abundant supplies of green peas and carrots are expected for the next few days. The fruit supply, except for the expensive Polish cherries, is still very scanty. The question arises as to what has become of the cherries that were to have come from Werder, Posen, and Thuringia. No currants or gooseberries are to be seen. The shops instead exhibit a plentiful supply of wild strawberries. It is a regrettable sign of the times that fruit disappears from the market as soon as maximum prices are fixed, while on the other hand, uncontrolled goods fetch exorbitant prices. The authorities seem unable to cope with the situation; meanwhile the inhabitants of Berlin will have to go without fruit again this year.

According to the *Lokal-Anzeiger* of July 29³ the fruit and vegetable office has published the following new producers' maximum prices for apples, pears, and plums:

Kind of fruit.	Price per $\frac{1}{2}$	Price per
	kilogram.	pound.
	<i>Pfennigs.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>
Table apples and pears.....	35	7.6
Household apples and pears, including windfalls and cider fruit.....	15	3.2
Plums, household, stewing, common, and Thuringian.....	20	4.3
Plums for distilling.....	10	2.2

¹ *Deutsche Tageszeitung*. Berlin, June 17, 1918. Evening edition.

² *Berliner Tageblatt*. Berlin, July 5, 1918.

³ *Lokal-Anzeiger*. Berlin, July 29, 1918. Evening edition.

SUGAR.

The Schlesische Zeitung of July 28 reporting on the sugar beet crop states that warm weather and showers have been uncommonly favorable to the beets, both leaf and root. The satisfactory appearance of the fields justifies hopes of a fine crop.

The Lokal-Anzeiger¹ reports that the Association of Sugar Manufacturers has been urged by parliamentary circles to address a memorial to the central committee, explaining the position of the German sugar industry with respect to the extortionate price paid by the Government for Ukrainian sugar. The home industry, which has been hard hit by the scarcity of fuel and difficulties of transportation, was not invited to assist in determining the prices for the imported supplies, which so far are said to total about 48,700 metric tons (1,073,640 cwt.). The government has therefore paid an excess price amounting to 260,000,000 marks (\$61,880,000), an amount not easily counterbalanced by German exports to the Ukraine.

TEA, COFFEE, AND COCOA SUBSTITUTES.

The Vossische Zeitung² contains an article on the different plants and shrubs used with more or less success as substitutes for tea, cocoa, and coffee. Among other things this article says: "To find substitutes for tea has not been considered a very difficult problem, and coffee substitutes had been largely used before the war; but cocoa has offered the greatest difficulties." However, the article states that the firm of Branco Bros. has invented a cocoa, "Brancoa," which is made of powdered reeds, and, mixed with milk and sugar, is said to taste like chocolate.

In an article on "German tea" in the Düsseldorf Nachrichten³ the writer says that last winter he bought a packet of tea which was labeled "A mixture of 20 different herbs," and the contents proved themselves to be nothing more than hay from a woodland meadow, chopped, packed up, and sold as German tea.

BEER.

It was stated by the Government representative at a meeting of the Reichstag committee for trade and commerce, when discussing a petition by the malt factories, that during the last brewing year only 63,000 metric tons (2,893,538 bushels) of brewer's barley had been distributed in the Empire exclusive of Bavaria—i. e., a third of the previous year's amount. This was in consequence of the inferior barley crop and the increased use of barley as a bread-stretching

¹ Lokal-Anzeiger. Berlin, July 30, 1918. Evening edition.

² Vossische Zeitung. Berlin, June 9, 1918. Morning edition.

³ Düsseldorf Nachrichten. Düsseldorf, Aug. 8, 1918. Morning edition.

material for the production of prepared foods and as a substitute for oats for the army horses.¹

The *Frankfurter Zeitung*² prints an article on the outlook in the German brewing industry, where working conditions become increasingly difficult as the war goes on. In part the article says:

Scarcely any industry has suffered more through the general limitations of the present time and the special restrictions and regulations imposed by the Government. Circumstances are considerably worse this year, for the supplies of barley are shrinking and the quota of production allowed has been further reduced. In 1916-17 the quota for north Germany, including the Palatinate, was 25 per cent and for Bavaria 35 per cent of the 1912-13 average, but the actual output amounted only to 15 and 30 per cent, respectively. For the current year 1917-18 the quota has been further lowered to 10 per cent for North Germany and 15 per cent for Bavaria. Even then supplies have fallen short, so that north German breweries produced only about one-half of the quantity permissible, Bavarian concerns a trifle more. Moreover, some 2 per cent was requisitioned for army needs, leaving North Germany some 3 per cent for the civilian population. In peace time North Germany consumed 1,200,000 metric tons (55,115,000 bushels) of barley, so that a 10 per cent quota should have 120,000 tons (5,511,500 bushels) in place of the 63,000 tons (2,893,538 bushels) actually delivered, but the balance was needed for food.

This further considerable reduction of the raw material most necessary for brewing has lessened the possibilities of the output. Some establishments have curtailed their output, others have closed down, so that out of 12,000 breweries of normal times more than half are idle, and scarcely more than between four and five thousand working.

To help the insufficient supplies to cover the output needed, the breweries intend to "stretch" the beer still further and lower the quality. The Government ordered that beer containing more than 3 per cent of malt should no longer be supplied to private persons, whereas army deliveries must contain at least 6 per cent. In the light of previous conceptions the "beer" of the civilian population is scarcely worthy of its name. The lowering of the quality has reacted upon the consumption which has fallen, and breweries compete with one another in their efforts to get rid of the stuff. For so-called plain beer the price has been raised from 20 to 23 marks per hectoliter (82.5 cents to \$1.04 per 5-gallon keg) but army beer remained at 30 marks per hectoliter (\$1.35 per keg). Breweries have turned their attention to substitute beverages, soda water, lemonade, etc. Some have undertaken the drying of vegetables, turnips and potatoes, the production of flaked oats or disintegrated straw fodder, much to their advantage.

VINTAGE PROSPECTS.

The *Deutsche Tageszeitung*³ quotes the *Zeitschrift des Württembergischen Weinbauvereins* as giving an unfavorable report on this year's vintage, in spite of the fact that the vineyards have a good appearance. The cold weather in June retarded the blossoming, as is evident from the unequal development of the grapes. The prospects are better in some districts, some especially favored regions in the lowlands even anticipating an equally good crop with last year, but, on the whole, neither the quality nor the quantity of last year's vintage will be attained.

¹ *Munchener Neueste Nachrichten*. Munich, Aug. 6, 1918. Morning edition.

² *Frankfurter Zeitung*. Frankfurt-on-the-Main, Aug. 3, 1918. Evening edition.

³ *Deutsche Tageszeitung*. Berlin, Aug. 10, 1918.

DECREASE OF ALCOHOLISM.

The *Schlesische Zeitung*,¹ quoting from an article on the "Decrease in mental diseases due to alcoholism in Silesia during the War," published in the *Psychiatrisch-Neurologische Wochenschrift*, of June 9, 1918, by Dr. Ziertmann, superintendent of the Provincial Asylum at Bunzlau, and consulting physician to the lunacy board, writes:

In all the public asylums and general hospitals of Silesia there is an unusual decrease in the number of cases of mental disturbances due to alcoholism. In the twelve public institutions the decrease in male alcoholic cases was 85.6 per cent, in delirium tremens cases, 96.1 per cent, in chronic alcoholic mental diseases, 80.1 per cent. In the general hospitals cases of acute alcoholic poisoning fell 90.5 per cent in the male wards. The decrease in the reception of women is as noticeable, so that alcoholic mental cases, so frequent before the war, have practically disappeared. The cause is chiefly official restraint upon the consumption of alcoholic liquors.

This decrease means for the Silesian asylums in the year 1917 alone a saving on maintenance expenses of about 80,000 marks (\$19,040). Taking into further consideration the asylums and general hospitals of Breslau and the institutions in other Silesian towns the total saved would be twice this sum. Similar figures hold for Berlin and the Rhine Province. Taking Germany as a whole, far more than 1,000,000 marks (\$238,000) has been saved in asylums, and her prewar poor relief burden of 50,000,000 marks (\$11,900,000) has also been appreciably lightened.

At the offices of the Silesian National Insurance Association the number of disablement and sickness allowances attributable to alcoholism averaged 83 during the period, 1907 to 1913, falling in 1914 to 56, in 1915 to 43, in 1916 to 22—a saving of 181,134 marks (\$43,109.89). Their expenses in connection with curative treatment of inebriates show a remarkable decrease. The association spent 125,817 marks (\$29,944.45) in 1913, 95,000 marks (\$22,610) in 1914, 27,293 marks (\$6,495.73) in 1915, 8,920 marks (\$2,122.96) in 1916, and nothing in 1917.

The withdrawal by the army of men under 45 is not the chief factor as one would think. It is Government control of the liquor traffic which has saved the nation in health and work and happiness an amount not to be expressed in terms of money. The author hopes that the reduction in alcoholic consumption will be continued beyond the war.

WAR KITCHENS.

According to the *Berliner Tageblatt*² the Imperial Statistical Office has published a comprehensive survey as to the extent of mass feeding in war kitchens in Germany during 1917. It was ascertained that the number of mass-feeding establishments in communes of over 10,000 inhabitants amounted to 2,828. Of these, 1,497, i. e., more than half, were public kitchens, 121 middle-class kitchens, 629 factory kitchens, and 581 other kitchens. The prices varied between 20 pfennigs (4.8 cents) and 1 mark (23.8 cents) and over for 1 liter (1.06 quarts) of food. The general rise in prices has recently slowly made itself felt, particularly in the middle-class kitchens. The millions of portions show what a number of people are using these kitchens, which are more patronized in the larger than in the smaller towns.

¹ *Schlesische Zeitung*. Breslau, July 28, 1918.

² *Berliner Tageblatt*. Berlin, Aug. 20, 1918. Morning edition.

In large towns with over 500,000 inhabitants the yearly average was 10.9 portions to every 100 inhabitants; in towns with between 250,000 and 500,000 inhabitants, 7.3. The figures drop in medium-sized towns to between 6.7 and 6.1 portions, and only in small towns with between 10,000 and 25,000 inhabitants does the number again mount to 7.3. Still more interesting are the figures for the individual months. Here a great similarity in the rise and fall of patronage is apparent in all towns; occasionally, indeed, the rise is higher or the decline lower, but almost everywhere the rise or fall occurs during the same month. This corresponds to the ups and downs in the food supply during the harvest year. The potato and bread shortage in the spring leads to an increase of patronage, which drops off for awhile in June, when the young vegetables appear, but returns in July when supplies grow scarce again. From August onward the potato and grain harvests cause a considerable decrease in the number of patrons. With the approach of winter the public again patronizes the kitchens, the patronage falling off again in December, during the Christmas holidays.

FOOD SUPPLY OF HOTELS, RESTAURANTS, ETC.

The hotel, restaurant, and sanatorium owners of Germany held a national conference at Frankfort-on-the-Main on June 22 that was largely attended. Below is quoted in part a report of its proceedings contained in the *Lokal-Anzeiger*:¹

Privy Superior Government Councillor Von Eynern, of the War Food Bureau, gave a detailed statement of food conditions, which he depicted in a very pessimistic light. In these circumstances it was not possible to comply with the wishes of hotel and restaurant helpers. If compulsory control of trade was done away with they would arrive at the same state of things as in Austria. There the authorities had kept their eyes closed the whole time; now they can see the consequences. Restaurants were said to be frequented not only by those who were dependent on them, as, for instance, bachelors, etc., but by a great number of the wealthy, who thereby saved their provisions. This must be avoided absolutely. Moreover, a restriction of tourist traffic was desirable. In conclusion Herr Von Eynern advocated the general introduction of a restaurant food card.

Commenting on the conference the *Frankfurter Zeitung*² writes:

The national conference of hotel and restaurant keepers has not yet found a solution of the restaurant food problem. The restaurant card, however right in principle, would not mean that the hotel or restaurant keeper would receive full recompense for the meals given and on the restaurant vouchers. In Frankfort, where this card is already in force, the insufficient supply of meat, given not according to the vouchers delivered, but according to a cut-and-dried scheme of distribution, has led to many justifiable complaints.

As things are, however, there must under no circumstances be any preferential supply of the hotel and restaurant trade. If a great nation has to submit to restriction and must adapt its needs of nutrition to the scanty supplies, restaurants can have no claim to a satisfaction of their ever-present luxurious requirements in quantity and

¹ *Lokal-Anzeiger*. Berlin, June 23, 1918. Morning edition.

² *Frankfurter Zeitung*. Frankfort-on-the-Main, June 23, 1918. Second morning edition.

quality. Within the limits of possibility their just claims should be met. The order issued, assuring them of a sufficient supply of everything necessary, but making them dependent for this supply on the communes, is of course worthless. For as the communes receive no more supplies than heretofore, the extra supply of hotels, restaurants, etc., would mean a corresponding reduction for the rest of the population, and increasingly so, as the commune concerned is the center of tourist traffic.

The difficulties in supplying hotels and restaurants with food have led the Bavarian Ministry of the Interior to issue an order providing for a simplification of the menus.¹ According to this order only two meat dishes may be served on meat days in hotels, restaurants, and clubs. Meat from the same class of animal served in different ways will count as one dish. A patron may be served with one meat dish only at a meal. Table d'hote dinners at fixed prices may contain the following courses only: One soup, one fish or entree without meat, one meat dish, two vegetables, one dessert or cheese, or stewed or fresh fruit. On meatless days another kind of fish or entree may be inserted. The regulation that at one meal the choice between two meat dishes only may be allowed applies to beef, veal, mutton, pork, goat's meat, and to poultry and game of all kinds, but it does not apply to dishes made from head, tongue, inner parts, fried or stewed sausages, or to meat supplied in sandwiches. The serving of butter or butter sauce with hot dishes is prohibited. Slaughter feasts may not be held either at home slaughtering or at commercial slaughtering. Contraventions of the order are punishable with heavy fines or imprisonment.

FOOD ADULTERATION.

A report on food adulteration was issued in August by the municipal chemical laboratory of Leipzig, edited by Prof. Armin Ruhrig.² This report shows very clearly that adulteration of foodstuffs has developed to a very great degree. The report says:

Three phenomena are clear and striking with regard to adulteration of foodstuffs during the war. The continued mineralization of foodstuffs, the unusual increase of the amount of water in them, and the use of worthless or even spoiled articles for the preparation of foods. Plaster and whiting are increasing in price the more they are being used for the preparation of food, whether as substitute for flour or baking powder, or to increase the quantity and weight of spices. Alum, sodium phosphate, table salt, and even bolus and soda are found used to increase the weight and quantity of foods. Sawdust, straw dust and corozo-nut meal have become articles in demand and are sold as substitutes at incredible prices. But worse mischief is done with water as an adulterant, which is very suitable for many purposes of this kind and has the advantage of being easily obtained without expense. In all kinds of foods there is a noticeable increase in the contents of water, in most cases of course to a harmless degree. Water is being used to stretch milk, and it is found in great quantities in preserved sausages, chopped meat, cottage cheese, butter, marmalade, jam, spirits, and soap. A solution of mucilage containing 99.8 per cent water and produced at a cost of 20 pfennigs

¹ Münchener Nueste Nachrichten. Munich, Aug. 13, 1918. Morning edition.

² Berliner Tageblatt. Berlin, Aug. 20, 1918.

(4.8 cents) per kilogram (2.2 cents per pound) was put on the market as a substitute for glycerine at 14 marks (\$3.33) per kilogram (\$1.51 per pound). Expert dairymen will be interested to learn the secret of the preparation of butter, samples of which were shown to contain 54 per cent water as against normal contents of 12 to 14 per cent.

Disgusting refuse of the slaughterhouse has been found in sausages and meat jelly. The sweepings of a bakery were used in making bread, and carpenter's glue has been sold in pudding powders. Many a housewife has been led by anxiety and care to pay excessive prices for substitutes of fats, cooking oils, and of other food articles. Since real good substitutes such as margarine, cooking oils, war marmalade, soup cubes, artificial honey, etc., have disappeared from the market, partly because they have been requisitioned and partly because seizure by the Government of the raw materials has made impossible their manufacture, a real flood of worthless substitutes has poured over the market. Experts and inexperienced people have become manufacturers of food preparations and numerous "food factories" have reaped profits formerly never dreamed of. The prevailing distress makes even the most worthless rubbish salable.

Slaughterhouse refuse, formerly only used as animal fodder, such as tendons and other dog feed, brings the highest prices. The laboratory has in many instances prosecuted the use of slaughterhouse refuse in human foodstuffs such as black puddings liver pudding, meat jelly, etc. Butchers make large sales of self-prepared bouillon. Owing to lack of extract-producing bones and meat they make abundant use of spices and artificially colored bone extract. In this manner they are able to sell 150 to 200 liters (158.5 to 211.3 quarts) of bouillon at 20 pfennigs (4.8 cents) per liter (4.5 cents per quart) and make a large profit. Canned liver pudding of very small nutritive quality is also being sold; the fat contents of some were found to be only 1.47 per cent, while the percentage of water contained in the pudding was excessively high.

In the chapter given over to bread the report says:

Even if we have to get along on war bread the distress of war times does not excuse gross uncleanness and incomprehensible faults in baking. Among the foreign substances found in bread were the following: Mice (twice), flax fibers, cotton, lysol (once), paper, wood, straw, plaster, chalk, wood splinters, and sand. It is incomprehensible that the bread of one of the largest bakeries contained 0.13 per cent copper in the form of verdigris, which caused serious sickness. Bread that is wet, moldy, and full of maggots points to faulty processes in the bakeries and gross carelessness. "Ropy" bread has also been encountered frequently.

Sugar sold by a grocery contained 10 per cent flour. Peppermint tablets contained 60 per cent chalk. Pepper has been found to contain up to 84.7 per cent ash and up to 2.1 per cent sand. Samples of marmalade showed up to 73 per cent water as against 43 per cent normal contents. They were thin, had a bad taste, and often were spoiled or showed trace of uncleanness.

In cases in which adulterations of food were prosecuted by the courts, and officials of the municipal laboratory were heard as experts, fines in the total amount of 37,800 marks (\$8,996.40) were imposed by the courts in 1917, as against 17,365 marks (\$4,132.87) in the preceding year. Adulterators were punished with imprisonment in 16 cases as against 9 in 1916.

LABOR AND THE WAR.

AWARDS AND FINDINGS OF THE NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD.

THE EIGHT-HOUR DAY—WHEELING MOLD AND FOUNDRY CO.

An agreement entered into between the members of Local No. 364, International Molders' Union of North America, and the foundrymen of Wheeling (W. Va.) and vicinity, contained the following provisions:

1. That eight hours constitute a day's work for all molders and coremakers.
2. That the wage rate be \$6.50 for the basic eight-hour working day.
3. All overtime shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half.
4. Sundays and legal holidays as provided for in the constitution of the International Molders' Union of North America (viz, Memorial Day, Fourth of July, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, Christmas, and New Year's Day) be paid for at the rate of double time.

A controversy having arisen between the Wheeling Mold and Foundry Co. and its employees over the meaning of paragraph 1 of the agreement, the case was submitted to the National War Labor Board which, being unable to agree as to an award, referred the matter to Chief Justice Walter Clark of the Supreme Court of North Carolina, one of the 10 umpires appointed by the President to decide questions upon which the members of the board do not agree.

The opinion by the umpire, issued under date of September 16, is noteworthy in that it places the National War Labor Board definitely on record as in favor of (1) a real eight-hour day as distinguished from a basic eight-hour day, and (2) the appointment of a committee of four, representing equally the management and the employees, to determine whether an emergency may at any time exist calling for overtime work and consequent extension of the working day beyond eight hours. This portion of the opinion is brief, the main discussion centering about the eight-hour day proposition as set forth in paragraph 1 of the agreement. When Justice Clark's award was made public, Frank P. Walsh, one of the chairmen of the National War Labor Board, said:

Justice Clark's decision is the first great step in the application in fact of the national policy to industry in general; and it will serve as a strong precedent in the adjudication by the War Labor Board of future controversies involving the question of the length of the working day. Of the utmost importance to workers in the United States is Justice Clark's provision for a democratic, rather than an arbitrary decision of the question of emergency.

After quoting the agreement to which reference has been made, Justice Clark's opinion, concluding with the award, continues as follows:

The only controversy presented is as to the meaning of paragraph 1.

It is clear that that paragraph standing alone would mean the eight-hour working day, beyond which the employees can not be required or permitted to work. Upon the principle that the whole of an agreement should be construed together so that no part shall be invalid, section 2 can not be held as substituting a basic eight-hour day for the actual eight-hour day provided by section 1. It is not reasonable to suppose that the employees having agreed upon an eight-hour day, should by the next rule repeal it by substituting a 10 or 12 hour day for extra compensation.

The basic eight-hour rule is not an eight-hour day at all but simply a wage agreement. If the eight-hour day is extended to 10 hours then the 50 per cent added pay for the two extra hours in effect is an agreement to pay 11 hours' wages for 10 hours' work, an increase of 10 per cent. It was doubtless thought that the extra 50 per cent for the extra hours would discourage requiring extra hours, but this has not been the result in all cases, for in some plants 10 hours from day to day, every day, has been exacted, and in others even 13 hours a day has been known to be required. The object of the eight-hour law is to protect the health and lengthen the lives of employees, which would be seriously compromised by an excessive length of the day's work.

It has been seriously contended that the "principles" adopted by this board deprive it of jurisdiction to enforce an actual eight-hour day. Those principles, however, specify that in all cases in which existing law does not require the basic eight-hour day, "the question of hours of labor shall be settled with due regard to governmental necessities and the welfare, health, and proper comfort of the workers."

President Wilson, in his address before a joint session of the two Houses of Congress August 29, 1916, said that "the whole spirit of the time, and the preponderant evidence of recent economic experience spoke for the eight-hour day. It has been adjudged by the thought and experience of recent years a thing upon which society is justified in insisting as in the interest of health, efficiency, contentment, and a general increase of economic vigor. The whole presumption of modern experience would, it seems to me, be in its favor, whether there was arbitration or not, and the debatable points to settle were those which arose out of the acceptance of the eight-hour day, rather than those which affected its establishment. I, therefore, propose that the eight-hour day be adopted by the railroad managements, and put into practice for the present as a substitute for the existing 10-hour basis of pay and service." And he recommended "the establishment of an eight-hour day as the legal basis alike of work and of wages in the employment of all railway employees who are actually engaged in the work of operating trains in interstate transportation." Congress enacted what is known as the "Adamson Eight-Hour Law" in consequence.

Previous to that time the Federal eight-hour law, approved June 19, 1912, limited "the hours of daily service of laborers and mechanics employed upon work done for the United States, or for any Territory, or for the District of Columbia," to eight hours and provided that no laborer or mechanic so employed should "be required or permitted to work more than eight hours in any one calendar day, upon such work."

Judge Alschuler, in his decision in the Packing House case, quotes the above expression of the President, and says: "The public policy of the eight-hour workday has been given oft-repeated sanction by legislation in the majority of the States, as well as by Congress, through enactments of various kinds too numerous for specific mention," and quotes the unanimous report of the President's mediation commission on January 9, 1918, which declared "the eight-hour day is the established policy of the country."

He further said: "The voluminous evidence adduced at the hearing in support of the contention for the eight-hour day is in the main logical and convincing, and it is particularly to be noted that in so far as concerns the general principle of the eight-hour day no evidence to dispute it was presented. Indeed on behalf of the employers it was repeatedly, openly, and frankly admitted that a workday shorter than the 10-hour day was desirable. On behalf of the employers and in the presence of their superintendents it was freely stated that they all believed in a shorter workday; that they had said so, and that there was no room for argument about it." There is a vast body of experience that a 10-hour day shortens the lives of the employees, injures their health, and that in point of production there is an increase by the substitution of eight hours for a longer period. Even if this were not true as to one day, the accumulated fatigue of working more than eight hours for a series of days reduces the production below the quantity produced by strict adherence to that limit.

Especially is this so as to the molder's occupation, the life of whom, working at 9 or 10 hours per day, subject to the heat and noxious fumes, is said to average not more than 14 years. In work of this kind there can be no doubt that greater production will be had by the working of an eight-hour day than by working 9 or 10 hours.

It is not conclusive, though a subject for consideration, that the majority of the other shops in Wheeling and vicinity are working on a nine-hour basis. All betterment has come by improving conditions, and not continuing them when bad. Improving conditions is the object of this proceeding.

The subject of an eight-hour day is not new, but has been discussed by the general public, by writers and public men and governmental officials for many years. The first act for an eight-hour day was passed by Congress in June, 1868, and provided: "Eight hours shall constitute a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics who may be employed by or on behalf of the Government of the United States." This act proved ineffective because, for some reason, Congress had failed to impose any penalty for violation of the act. More effective laws on the subject were passed and were approved August 1, 1892, June 19, 1912, and in the amendment to the naval appropriation bill, approved May 3, 1917. The latter amended the statute which had authorized the President to suspend the eight-hour law "whenever Government necessity required it," by providing that while the President in an emergency could suspend the eight-hour day in such case, the basic eight-hour day should obtain and overtime should be paid for at no less than time and one-half.

Since that time the President has acted in conformity with the act but his suspension applies only to the prohibition of working more than eight hours, and does not require it. It is still open to the employees to decline to work longer than eight hours, and in event of a difference with their employers to submit the matter to the National War Labor Board.

The railroad employees, from coast to coast, nearly 500,000 in number, are now operating on the basis of the eight-hour day. The same is true of the coal-mining industry, the packing industry, the news print industry, the garment industry, in Government construction, and in the lumber mills and saw mills of the great Northwest.

It may be that there are industries where it is still necessary to use a longer workday than eight hours during the duration of the war, but it does not seem that in consideration of the conditions that more than eight hours should be exacted in the work that a molder has to perform.

It is the consensus, as President Wilson stated, of students of the subject, that the maximum production is to be had by the adoption of the eight-hour day; and that the preservation of the health and the lives of the employees will be promoted by that limitation.

The employers have, as a rule, patriotically given full aid to the prosecution of the war by placing their splendid plants and their highly skilled chiefs at the service of the Government. The employees, as a rule, have also, with the same patriotism, yielded the eight-hour limitation wherever it has been necessary to speed up production for the Government. The former have received great increase in profit. The latter have contributed an increase in the hours of labor, and vast numbers of men to fill our armies. The former have received from the Government, the latter have given to it. They should not be asked to do so, beyond the necessity of the occasion.

The Census of Manufactures for 1914, page 482, shows more than 7,000,000 industrial employees, of whom not more than 12 per cent were under the eight-hour day. This number has since been increased considerably, but not as rapidly as would have been the case, but for the emergency of the war. Statistics also show that while Australia and New Zealand have frankly adopted the eight-hour day limit in all their industries, in this country the average is still above that figure. This is largely due to the fact that in the southern mill industry the limit is still 60 hours per week and in the northern mills 54 hours.

This, however, is no reason why more than eight hours should be required of the molders, whose trade exacts greater fatigue and exposure to noxious and dangerous fumes.

That the country has not yet reached the eight-hour day in all cases is no reason why in this case it should not be upheld. Indeed it may be well considered that as the world and especially all free countries are "on their way" to the adoption of the eight-hour law, might it not be for the interests of the employers frankly to accept it and avoid the constant struggle for its attainment by settling the question once for all?

When industries were on a small scale and the employer and employee worked together, face to face, the fellow-servant doctrine was created by the courts, which exempted the employer from liability for injury inflicted upon an employee by the negligence of his fellow-servant, upon the ground that the servant contracted with a knowledge of the character of his coemployees. This became absurd when there were thousands of employees engaged in the same employment, but it has required statute after statute to change the judge-made law which had exempted the employer.

In like manner, until very recently, and until changed by statute, the courts held that if an employee contributed in any degree by his own negligence to the injuries he sustained, he could not recover. For this there has now been substituted by an enlightened statute the provision that the damage shall be apportioned, and that the business shall bear part at least of the loss and the crippled employee shall not bear it all, or his destitute wife and children, in case of his death. For the same reason an employee, one of many thousands, is unable to contract on equal terms, either as to hours of labor, or rate of wages, or proper sanitation, with the employers of vast numbers of men. The law must step in and require protection in these particulars of its citizens against injury to their health, or shortening of their lives by the fatigue of excessive hours, inadequate wages, and lack of sanitary provisions.

By the introduction of machinery and numerous inventions, production has been increased many fold, in some cases a thousand fold. It is not just that the profit accruing therefrom shall go to the employers alone without the employees receiving a fair share of the vastly increased profits.

In *Pressly v. Yarn Mill* (138, N. C. 424) it was said by this writer: "The law is not fossilized. It is a growth. It grows more just with the growing humanity of the age, and broadens 'with the process of the suns.' * * * Labor is the basis of civilization. Let it withhold its hand, and the forests return and grass grows in the silent

streets. Not so long since, in England, labor unions were indictable as conspiracies. The wages of laborers were fixed by officers appointed by capital, and it was indictable for a laborer to ask or receive more. There was no requirement that employers should furnish safe appliances, no limitations as to hours of labor, no age limit. With the era of more just legislation in this country and England, and elsewhere, shortening the hours of labor, forbidding child labor, requiring sanitary provisions, and safe appliances, labor has been encouraged, and the progress of the world in a few years has more than equaled that of all the centuries that are dead. Justice to the laborer has been to the profit of the employer. The courts should not be less just than the laws."

EMPLOYEES GIVEN VOICE IN THE MANAGEMENT.

While an eight-hour day is stipulated for in paragraph 1 of the agreement, there are emergencies likely to occur when for a brief period that limit may be exceeded. But the protection of the eight-hour day will amount to nothing if it rests with the employer alone to declare the emergency. The 50 per cent allowed for overtime is too small a penalty in view of great profits that may arise. It is true that what is "an emergency" can be and has been defined. Still it rests with the employer to declare that the facts place the demand within the definition of an emergency. Such emergencies can ordinarily be met by the adoption of the three-shift system or an increase in machinery. It is better that the machinery should be worn out than the bodies of the employees. Man passes through this world but once, and he is entitled in the language of the great Declaration of some "enjoyment of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness."

It has been suggested, as some protection against the abuse of constantly exceeding the limitation of hours by the employer declaring in his judgment "an emergency" to exist, that such extra days should be limited to three days in the week. This would only be a very partial remedy, for if the employee is overworked three days in the week his product will not only fall off during those days, but also during the remaining days of the week. A better plan would seem to be a provision that the employer shall appoint a standing committee of two and the employees a similar committee of two, and as the burden of establishing an emergency is upon those who assert it, the eight-hour limitation should not be exceeded unless at least three members of the joint committee of four agree that there is an emergency justifying working overtime. This would avoid also the objection that if there was only one member of the committee on each side, factious opposition by the representative of labor might prevent operation even when there was an emergency requiring it.

For these reasons the following is

THE AWARD.

The molders employed by the Wheeling Mold & Foundry Co., at Wheeling, W. Va.; shall not be required or permitted to work more than 8 hours within any day of 24 hours, except in cases of emergency, and then under the following terms and conditions:

1. Overtime work shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-half for all hours worked in excess of eight hours, with double time for Sundays and holidays.
2. The question whether or not an emergency exists, together with the length of time over which such emergency may extend, and the number of extra hours per day, shall be determined by agreement between the management and the working molders in the shop.
3. For the purpose of effectuating the agreement mentioned in paragraph 2, a permanent committee of four persons is hereby created, two of whom shall be designated by the management of the plant and two by the working molders in the shop, the

assent of at least three of whom shall be necessary for permission to work more than 8 hours in any day of 24 hours.

4. *Interpretation of award.*—For the purpose of securing a proper interpretation of this award, the secretary of the National War Labor Board shall appoint an examiner, who shall hear any difference arising in respect to the award between the parties and promptly render his decision, from which an appeal may be taken by either party to the National War Labor Board. Pending such appeal the decision of the examiner shall be binding.

ATTITUDE OF THE BOARD ON OVERTIME ABUSES.

It appearing to the National War Labor Board that overtime abuses have been committed by employees in a number of plants where the workers were charged with making a practice of laying off a day or two during the week and then working on Sunday in order to draw the regulation overtime pay, the board decided in four cases in which awards were made on October 9 and 11 that no overtime allowance could be made unless the employee had actually worked 48 hours in any one week. The following are the cases which reflect this attitude of the board: International Association of Machinists, District Lodge No. 64, *v. Mason Machine Works, Taunton, Mass.*; International Brotherhood of Foundry Employees, Local No. 18, *v. American Locomotive Co., Schenectady, N. Y.*; International Molders' Union, Local No. 196, *v. The United Engineering Co., Youngstown, Ohio*; *Employees v. St. Louis Car Co., St. Louis, Mo.*

Each award covers the matter of hours of labor, wages, and rates of pay for overtime. More specifically the awards provide that the regular working time of each full week shall consist of 48 hours, divided into six daily periods of eight hours, but that by mutual agreement between the management and the workers the daily working schedule may be so lengthened as to permit of a half holiday on one day of each week. It is also provided that no worker shall be entitled to payment for overtime or extra time unless he shall work 48 hours in said full week (or 40 hours when a holiday intervenes), except in case of illness, accident, misfortune, or other just and necessary cause. Workers employed on the first day of any week are to be guaranteed the opportunity to work at least 44 hours in such week, or 36 hours where a holiday intervenes, exclusive of overtime or extra time, "and in default of providing such employment [the employer] shall pay the worker full wages for such hours, exclusive of overtime and extra time." The awards do not permit excessive overtime, and in order that the same may be kept within reasonable limits it is decreed "that where in any one day more than two hours overtime in excess of eight hours is required, then for that day overtime shall be paid without regard to whether or not the worker shall during that week have worked the weekly schedule provided

for." Provision is made in each award for the creation of a permanent committee of four (two designated by the management and two by the workers) through which the equitable application of the provisions of the award may be secured and differences which may arise between the management and the workers may be adjusted. If the committee fails to reach an agreement the matter in dispute shall be referred to an examiner appointed by the National War Labor Board, whose decision shall be binding, subject, however, to appeal.

OTHER AWARDS BY THE NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD.

Other minor awards by the National War Labor Board are referred to here as a matter of record. The award in the case of Franklin Union No. 4 *v.* Franklin Division of Franklin Typothetæ of Chicago, dated September 27, 1918, increased by the sum of \$3.50 per week the wages of printing pressmen and assistants belonging to the union, after having ascertained that the index number of the Bureau of Labor Statistics for the cost of living in Chicago showed a percentage increase of 16.2 since the date of the wage adjustment between the parties to the controversy in December, 1917.

On September 27, also, the board announced an increase of 10 cents per hour, effective as of May 31, 1918, in the rate of wages of journeymen painters as a result of the controversy between Painters' Union No. 47 and Painters' District Council No. 27 and Master Painters' Association and Building Contractors' Association, Indianapolis, Ind.

Two awards affecting employees of transportation companies were made by the board on October 2. That of the joint chairman in the case of *Employees v. Boston Elevated Railway Co.* gives "for the period of the war only" a wage scale of 43 to 48 cents per hour, depending upon length of service, to surface-line motormen and conductors, a scale of 45 to 50 cents per hour to motormen, 43 to 44.5 cents per hour to guards, and 40 to 42.5 cents per hour to brakemen, on the rapid transit lines. As to the wages of other employees the award states:

The wages of employees other than those fixed above, which have been submitted to the arbitrators for fixation and over which the arbitrators have jurisdiction, shall be increased by the same percentage that the maximum of the wage scale paid to surface motormen and conductors is increased by this award: *Provided, however,* That if this percentage increase does not bring the wage of any adult male employee up to the minimum of 42.5 cents per hour, he shall be paid said minimum of 42.5 cents per hour, and provided further, that where women are employed in the same classification as men, they shall be paid equal pay for equal work.

It is recommended that an agreement be made so that 55 per cent instead of 70 per cent of the schedule runs shall be arranged with outside time not to exceed 11 hours.

The other case affects the employees of the Rhode Island Co., Providence, R. I., and fixes a wage scale of 43 to 48 cents per hour for all motormen and conductors. The same provision as to other employees is made as that quoted above, except that the word "surface" in the fourth line is omitted.

The controversy which arose between the New York Central Iron Works Co. (Hagerstown, Md.) and its employees having been settled by mutual agreement, approval of the National War Labor Board was requested. On September 26 the agreement was affirmed. It recognizes the following principles: (1) Right of workers to organize; (2) no discrimination for or against nonunion men; (3) no employment of coercive measures by the men to induce persons to join their organization; (4) nine-hour basic day, with time and one-half for overtime and on holidays; (5) selection of a committee of five by employees, through which points of difference with the management shall be settled; (6) women to receive the same pay as men for the same work. A wage scale was adopted ranging from 25 cents per hour for a first-class rivet heater to 75 cents per hour for a "layer-out."

In the controversy between the Willys-Overland Co., Elyria, Ohio, and its employees over the matter of wages, the National War Labor Board made an award on October 11 granting a 30 per cent increase to all employees who were receiving under 45 cents per hour on May 1, 1918, and a 25 per cent increase to all who were receiving 45 cents or over per hour on that date, provided that no adult male worker shall receive less than a minimum of 40 cents per hour and that no adult female worker of 18 years of age or over shall receive less than 30 cents per hour. These minimum wage rates do not apply to those who by reason of old age or permanent physical incapacity are unable to perform a normal day's labor, and in the case of women under 21 years of age the minimum rates shall not be rigidly applied to inexperienced beginners or apprentices. The award is effective as of May 1, 1918.

ORGANIZATION OF PRODUCTION COMMITTEES AT BITUMINOUS COAL MINES.

At most of the mines in the 28 districts of the bituminous coal fields there are being organized, under the direction of the United States Fuel Administration, what are known as production committees, each consisting of three representatives of mine workers and three men representing the company. In each district the fuel administrator has appointed a man to serve as production manager for his district. The duties of the production committee are:

1. To stimulate patriotism.
2. To set a good example of patriotic industry.

[1186]

3. To arrange for local patriotic meetings at which patriotism and increased production alone shall be discussed. No questions as to wages, working conditions, etc., may come up.

4. To make known the fact that there must be a large increase in tonnage without which the United States Government will fail in its war work. * * *

5. To make clear to each man and boy employed in and about the mines that it is his patriotic duty to work the full prescribed hours during six days each week, unless prevented by causes beyond his control, and to do his utmost to increase the output. * * *

6. To pass careful and impartial judgment upon the reasons given for absence, short hours worked, or other occurrences which may have resulted in loss of tonnage. * * *

7. To be governed by the majority rule in their committee work and, in case of disagreement, to accept the decision of the production manager as final and binding. * * *

8. To stimulate production by urging regular attendance and efficiency during working hours upon their fellow workers and to attend faithfully each day to their own work. * * *

9. To elect as secretary of the committee a man to be chosen by the production manager and paid by the operator, whose duty it will be to assist the production committee in investigating and learning the truth as to absence, short hours worked, or loss of tonnage. * * *

10. To post on a bulletin board provided for that purpose a list furnished by the proper employee of the company showing the names of the men who were absent on a working day, the names of the men who worked less than the prescribed hours, and those who produced less than a fair amount of coal. After each name shall be noted the cause which the committee believes to be the true cause for absence, short hours worked, or low tonnage. In some cases the cause may lie with the operator, and in other cases with the men. * * *

11. To clear the record of any worker who has lost time or tonnage through his own fault, provided the worker is willing to make up the lost time or tonnage and the operator is satisfied to have him do so, and provided also that in doing so he will not violate any rules or mining laws and will not render it difficult or impossible for the operator to give an equal turn of cars. * * *

12. To dissolve on notice from the United States Fuel Administration, and one or more members of the committee may be removed at any time for cause by the production manager. * * *

13. To perform any other duties prescribed by the production manager.

14. To be governed by the wishes of the production manager as to all details in connection with the work of increasing production.

The Fuel Administration states that the qualifications for membership of these committees are (1) patriotism; (2) personal interest, because of relatives or friends at the front, in giving every possible support to the forces; (3) fair-mindedness, enabling them to pass unprejudiced judgment as to whether the blame for absences, short hours, or low tonnage lies with the workmen or the company. It is also suggested that, if possible, the largest group of foreign-speaking mine workers should be represented on the committee; and if two nationalities have large representations at the mine it may be well to have both represented.

The organization of these committees is proceeding slowly, but on October 15 approximately 70 per cent of the mines had such committees. Where stimulation of production is not so badly needed, notably in the western part of the country, committees have not been organized.

PRESIDENT'S PROCLAMATION.

The President himself has emphasized the very great importance of the largest possible production of coal, issuing on August 9, 1918, the following proclamation addressed to those engaged in coal mining:

To all those engaged in coal mining:

The existing scarcity of coal is creating a grave danger, in fact, the most serious which confronts us, and calls for prompt and vigorous action on the part of both operators and miners. Without an adequate supply our war program will be retarded, the effectiveness of our fighting forces in France will be lessened, the lives of our soldiers will be unnecessarily endangered and their hardships increased, and there will be much suffering in many homes throughout the country during the coming winter.

I am well aware that your ranks have been seriously depleted by the draft, by voluntary enlistment, and by the demands of other essential industries. This handicap can be overcome, however, and sufficient coal can be mined in spite of it if everyone connected with the industry, from the highest official to the youngest boy, will give his best work each day for the full number of work hours. The operators must be zealous as never before to bring about the highest efficiency of management, to establish the best possible working conditions, and to accord fair treatment to everybody, so that the opportunity to work at his best may be accorded every workman. The miners should report for work every day, unless prevented by unavoidable causes, and should not only stay in the mines the full time, but also see to it that they get out more coal than ever before. The other workers in and about the mines should work as regularly and faithfully so that the work of the miner may not be retarded in any way. This will be especially necessary from this time forward, for your numbers may be further lessened by the draft, which will induct into the Army your fair share of those not essential to industry. Those who are drafted but who are essential will be given deferred classification, and it is their patriotic duty to accept it. And it is the patriotic duty of their friends and neighbors to hold them in high regard for doing so. The only worker who deserves the condemnation of his community is the one who fails to give his best in this crisis, not the one who accepts deferred classification and works regularly and diligently to increase the coal output. A great task is to be performed. The operators and their staffs alone can not do it, nor can the mine workers alone do it; but both parties, working hand in hand with a grim determination to rid the country of its greatest obstacle to winning the war, can do it. It is with full confidence that I call upon you to assume the burden of producing an ample supply of coal. You will, I am sure, accept this burden and will successfully carry it through, and in so doing you will be performing a service just as worthy as service in the trenches, and will win the applause and gratitude of the whole Nation.

STANDARDIZED CONTRACT CLAUSES FOR GOVERNMENT PURCHASES.

It is the announced policy of the Government in all of its war activities to maintain in its own establishments and plants, and to require those filling war orders to maintain in their plants, the most

favorable labor conditions possible, in order to encourage contentment among workers and promote efficiency of operation. To this end the various purchasing agencies of the War Department, through which passes a very large per cent of the money expended for war purposes, have incorporated in their contracts certain clauses affecting labor with the purpose of making uniform labor standards on Government work. Considerable study has also been given to the matter by officials of the various production departments, the thought being to standardize and put in all their contracts these clauses which refer not only to labor but to prices, costs, disputes over performance or nonperformance of contracts, the right to terminate contracts, etc.

This standardization has now been effected through a recent agreement between the War Labor Policies Board and the production departments, which include the War Department, Navy Department, Emergency Fleet Corporation, and United States Housing Corporation, the result being the adoption of certain clauses providing for the eight-hour basic day, the settlement of labor disputes, the restricting of child and convict labor, and observance of State labor laws, which will hereafter be written into all contracts entered into by these particular agencies. The clauses referred to are as follows:

1. *Clause on eight-hour basic day, with time and a half for overtime.*—To be introduced into contracts which come under such a provision by reason of existing Federal laws:

Wages of laborers, operatives, and mechanics doing any part of the work contemplated by this contract, in the employ of the contractor, shall be computed upon 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 in excess of eight hours. Compliance by the contractor with the provisions of this article shall be of the essence of the contract.

2. *Clause on laws and restrictions relating to labor.*¹—All work required in carrying out this contract shall be performed in full compliance with the laws of the State, Territory, or District of Columbia where such labor is performed: *Provided*, That the contractor shall not employ in the performance of this contract any minor under the age of 14 years or permit any minor between the ages of 14 and 16 years to work more than eight hours in any one day, more than six days in any one week, or before 6 a. m. or after 7 p. m. Nor shall the contractor, directly or indirectly, employ any person undergoing sentence of imprisonment at hard labor which may have been imposed by a court of any State, Territory, or municipality having criminal jurisdiction: *Provided, however*, That the President of the United States may, by Executive order, modify this provision with respect to the employment of convict labor and provide the terms and conditions upon which such labor may be employed. These provisions shall be of the essence of the contract.

3. *Clause on adjustment of labor disputes.*—In the event that labor disputes shall arise directly affecting the performance of this contract and causing or likely to cause any delay in making the deliveries and the — (head of department) shall have requested the contractor to submit such dispute for settlement, the contractor shall have the right to submit such dispute to the — (head of department) for settlement.

¹ See also MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1915, p. 75.

The — (head of department) may thereupon settle or cause to be settled such disputes, and the parties hereto agree to accede to and to comply with all the terms of such settlement.

If the contractor is thereby required to pay labor costs higher than those prevailing in the performance of this contract immediately prior to such settlement, the — (head of department) or his representative in making such settlement and as a part thereof may direct that a fair and just addition to the contract price shall be made therefor; provided, however, that the — (head of department) or his representative shall certify that the contractor has in all respects lived up to the terms and conditions of the contract or shall waive in writing for this purpose only any breach that may have occurred.

If such settlement reduces such labor cost to the contractor, the — (head of department) or his representative may direct that a fair and just deduction be made from the contract price.

No claim for addition shall be made unless the increase was ordered in writing by the — (head of department) or his duly authorized representative, and such addition to the contract price was directed as part of the settlement.

Every decision or determination made under this article by the — (head of department) or his duly authorized representative shall be final and binding upon the parties hereto.

CONFERENCE OF STATE LABOR OFFICIALS, WASHINGTON, D. C., SEPTEMBER 30 AND OCTOBER 1, 1918.

Thirty-four States¹ sent delegates to the Conference of State Labor Officials, which was called by the War Labor Policies Board to meet in Washington on September 30 and October 1, 1918. Its prime purpose was to discuss effective cooperation in carrying out the war labor program.

The Secretary of Labor opened the first session. The need of safeguarding workers—the six to ten men and women in the rear who are required to maintain every soldier at the front—in order that they may give their utmost of efficiency to the Nation, was the theme of Secretary Wilson's address. He said:

When we entered the war we deemed it absolutely necessary that we should make every possible provision for the purpose of maintaining the health of our boys whom we are taking into the camps. We are doing the same with the boys that go over the seas. The saving of man power is the all-important purpose at this time.

Now, what is true with regard to the preservation of our boys in the camps and in the trenches against disease and against any other form of destruction or injury is true with regard to the industrial workers. The more we can conserve the lives and the health of our workers the more men we have available for the trenches. The more the lives of our people are destroyed in industry the fewer we have for military operations.

And so you are dealing with a very important problem in connection with the proper conduct of the war—the question of securing the largest possible production from the available man power and woman power of the country, and securing it with the least possible sacrifice of life, limb, and health. * * *

¹ Alabama, California, Connecticut, Colorado, Delaware, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, West Virginia, Wisconsin.

There has been an agitation for the elimination or lowering of standards in order that we might, by the lowering of those standards, increase productivity.

I recall something more than a year ago, when the anthracite coal miners and coal operators were in conference for the purpose of making a new wage scale, that a suggestion was made to the Council of National Defense that we ought to impress upon the conference the need in the crisis through which we were passing of yielding the eight-hour working day which had been established in the anthracite fields, and returning to the nine-hour day which had previously obtained there, the assumption being that if the anthracite coal miners went back to a nine-hour working day more coal would be produced.

At that time I suggested to the Council the advisability of making an intensive investigation of the subject before we made any recommendations. Our Bureau of Labor Statistics made an investigation with an interesting result. We found that the anthracite coal miners working eight hours per day in 1916-17 were producing approximately 2 per cent more coal than they had produced in nine hours in 1915-16.

It does not follow that because in a mining industry men have been producing more coal with an eight-hour working day than they did in a nine-hour working day the same would be true in all other lines of industry. I simply cite this to show some of the problems that we are confronted with in connection with the question of standards. * * *

It is absolutely imperative that we shall do all in our power to maintain the standard with regard to at least the minimum age at which children may be admitted into gainful occupations, for the welfare of the child itself, the welfare of the community, for the future of our country.

We have a special problem in connection with women in industry. There are many lines of industry that women are not physically fitted to fill. There are many conditions of industry that affect not only the physical development of women, but their own self-respect. I can conceive of no greater injury that can come to our country than the introduction of our women into lines of industry that they are not physically fitted to perform, or into lines of industry that reduce their own self-respect.

The rapidity with which other countries, when compelled to deal with the problem, introduced women into industries where they should not have been introduced, is well known. We have had more time to deal with the subject; and still there is a tendency on our part to introduce women where they should not be introduced.

Some eight or nine years ago I had the honor of representing the American Federation of Labor as its fraternal delegate to the British Trade Union Congress. During my visit over there I was shocked to find the kinds of industry that women were then engaged in in Great Britain. I found women there at that time working on the pit heads, dumping the coal out of the mine cars into the railroad cars. I saw women there with their wheelbarrows taking bricks away from the molds, wheeling them into the kilns and piling them up to be burned; and I saw those same women going into the extremely hot kilns after the brick had been burned and when the time had come to remove them, taking the brick from the kiln, wheeling it out into the yards and piling it there. * * *

As I have said, there may come a time when it will be necessary to reduce the standards that we have established in order that we may preserve the conditions under which those standards have been built up and under which we may go on to work out our own destiny in our own way. But that sacrifice of standard should not be made upon the responsibility of those who are only in a position to see the local situation. When standards are lowered, it should be upon the responsibility of those who are in a position to observe the entire field, and then only after every other means of supplying our armies has been exhausted.

Mr. Frankfurter, chairman of the War Labor Policies Board, impressed upon the conference the responsibility of the States in carry-

ing out this phase of the war administration program. In part, he said:

This is an extraordinarily vast country. No one who has not had the opportunity of comparing the difficulties of administration in England, in time of war, where officials sitting in London can get anybody from anywhere in the kingdom certainly within a day's ride, even under congested traffic conditions, can quite get into his own intellectual perception the feeling, the realization, the emotion of what it means to have administrative responsibility in the United States in time of war. Therefore the method which has made the administration of the selective service law so effective, the method which is making Mr. Hoover's administration so effective, is peculiarly the method which we must pursue in the field of labor, namely, that we must have the vitalizing energy and intelligence of you men and women in the various States throughout the country. There can not be, even with the vast intelligence and the vast machinery of the administration, direction here from Washington. It must be from the field; and you are stationed in the various fields throughout the country. We must ask you gentlemen, you men and women and the various agencies throughout the country, to be the enforcing agencies for the Federal departments; therefore it is that we feel we have the right to bring you from your field duties here to counsel with us, to tell us your difficulties, and to let you see, if we can, the general plan of which you are the executing organs.

Methods were discussed for enforcing the clause relating to State laws and child labor, recently adopted by the War Labor Policies Board for introduction into Government contracts. The clause reads in part as follows:¹

All work required in carrying out this contract shall be performed in full compliance with the laws of the State, Territory, or District of Columbia, where such labor is performed: *Provided*, That the contractor shall not employ in the performance of this contract any minor under the age of 14 years, or permit any minor between the age of 14 and 16 years to work more than eight hours in any one day, more than six days in any one week, or before 6 a. m. or after 7 p. m.

To assist in enforcement of this clause the heads of State labor departments have been designated by the Secretary of War, the Secretary of the Navy, the president of the United States Housing Corporation, and the president of the Emergency Fleet Corporation. It was made clear that they will thus act as Federal representatives as well as State officials, and that their authority can be delegated to their inspectors. Government-owned industries are outside the jurisdiction of State laws: industries whose products are commandeered or plants on subcontract work for Government contractors are not affected by the contract provision, but are, as before, subject to State laws. In plants holding direct contracts two methods are possible in case of persistent violations—prosecution under State law or report for action by the Federal department giving the contract. After discussion it was generally agreed that local action was preferable except in special cases, but whenever

¹ Cf., also, p. 39 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

desirable in his judgment the head of the State department would have recourse to Federal authority.

A discussion of child labor followed, led by Miss Julia C. Lathrop and Miss Grace Abbott of the United States Children's Bureau. Miss Lathrop called especially for criticism and suggestion based on the experience of cooperation during the brief period of the bureau's enforcement of the Federal child-labor law.

Miss Lathrop called attention to the fact that although this act was declared unconstitutional on June 3, the bureau still had the responsibility which Congress had placed upon it at the time that it was created to investigate and report on the employment of children. By action of the War Labor Policies Board it has become the duty of the bureau to see that the child-labor clause of the Government's war contracts is enforced. In this work, Miss Lathrop said, the bureau is relying on a continuance of the cooperation it has had in the past from State officials.

It was generally agreed that the experiment of joint inspection by the State departments and the Children's Bureau had been useful in the beginning to acquaint each with the methods and policies of the other. Representatives from the States were unanimous in desiring reports of Federal inspections. Several States, notably Tennessee and Ohio, told of excellent results from the follow-up work that had been done on the violations called to their notice by Federal inspections. Requests were made, to which the Federal bureau acceded, that reports to the States be made promptly and that they be specific.

State reports to the bureau both on violations of the contract clause and on issuance of working certificates to children came up for discussion. Miss Abbott made clear the need, in cases of non-compliance, for full evidence which the Children's Bureau would submit to the contracting department concerned. The plan with reference to reporting on the issuance of certificates was referred to a committee.

A number of States reported special difficulty in excluding underage children from the war industries. In Kansas the telegraph service was taking on as messengers children whose employment had been illegal under State control. Maryland cited a case of 200 violations dismissed in court with a nominal fine which the manufacturer would be "willing to pay every day for working the children." In Massachusetts the attitude of the court in a group of cases had been: "These are war times. We do not believe it hurts these children."

On the other hand the experience in Illinois had been that the employer could be made to understand that he can not violate the law. It was felt that a large share of the difficulty was due to a mistaken idea that the departments in Washington were relaxing

the standard. Strong approval was accorded to the policy of setting the manufacturer straight on this point by the terms of his contract.

Mr. Ethelbert Stewart, Director of the Investigation and Inspection Service, organized in the Department of Labor during July, 1918, spoke on the work of that Service. Its function is "to furnish facts for other services of the Government upon which to base action where a service is empowered to act, or recommendation where the service has power only to recommend." He mentioned the wide range in the kind of information which the service was called on to supply, and expressed the desire to utilize State forces whenever they were available.

Miss Florence Thorne, Assistant Director of the Working Conditions Service of the Labor Department, outlined the plan of organization of that Service. Its work is divided into three general parts—safety, industrial hygiene, and labor administration. The Service plans the development of safety codes in cooperation with other departments, notably the United States Bureau of Standards and the National Safety Council. Its industrial hygiene program is to be worked out with the Public Health Service, which will detail sufficient personnel to man the hygiene section of the Working Conditions Service. Dr. A. J. Lanza will be in charge.

A suggested plan for physical examination of workers by the United States Employment Bureau at the time of employment was brought up by Dr. Selby of the Working Conditions Service. The War Labor Policies Board had recommended that such a plan be tested in a few industrial centers. This evoked considerable discussion, which brought out the necessity for eliminating abuses which have occurred in some of the previous schemes of physical examination adopted by private plants; namely, the use of the examination to throw a man out of work, and the publicity given to the reports from such examinations. It was agreed that a system properly worked out ought to assist the men in procuring suitable work, and that the application of this idea on a large scale would mean a greater socialization of the medical profession.

Miss Mary Van Kleeck, Director of the Woman in Industry Service (Federal), presented the subject of women in industry. Much attention was given to the question of controlling night work for women in all States.¹ The injurious results of night work were brought out, especially for women, whose tendency is to work at home during the day, with a net loss of sleep. The lowered vitality at night, as pointed out, makes night shifts less productive than day shifts.

¹ Night work for women in factories is forbidden by law or regulation in the following States: Oregon, Massachusetts, Indiana, Nebraska, New York, Pennsylvania, Delaware, Wisconsin.

Public-health studies have proved also that long hours at night are utterly wasteful.

Experience was cited by Mr. Frayne, of the War Industries Board, and Mr. Mulready, of the Massachusetts State Board of Labor, showing that requests for exemption from State laws regulating night work and hours of labor for women have often been made when such action was unnecessary.

Miss Van Kleeck, speaking of her former experience with the Ordnance Department, said:

In a very large majority of cases it was perfectly clear that night work was the last thing that the plant needed. Sometimes it was merely a problem of transportation. Sometimes it was a problem of too long hours interfering with labor supply. Sometimes it was a general problem of employment management.

Yet emergencies arose increasingly which could not be met by these methods. As more and more men were drafted, the cases began to show much more serious aspects. Situations came up such as this: A labor shortage of 5,000 in a plant working on a product upon which the winning of the war could clearly be shown to depend; housing facilities in process of construction for 2,000, leaving a shortage of 3,000 at best; added to that a new program by which orders should be completed from three to six months in advance of the original date set for completion.

In that town there were women in the families of workmen already there who would be available without any additional housing. You all know that in many plants which have not hitherto employed women it is not possible to put women on a solid day shift, because there are many occupations that women can not perform. The process of replacement of men by women goes forward by introducing women here and there where they can take men's places. Then, when you add to that a practice which is followed in many plants—and certainly a desirable practice—namely, rotation of shifts, you have an additional complication; that is, that if the shifts rotate the employer is quite right in asking, "How are we going to meet the problem of introducing women without night work if we are to have rotation of shifts?"

A national plan under consideration was outlined. It would mean a uniform policy of control of night work in all States. The employment of women at night in any plant working on Army and Navy contracts would be granted only after careful investigation in each plant of the rush demand for the product and of other possible means for supplying it, and only after the transmission of an emergency certificate to the particular plant for a specified period, transmitted through the State department of labor by the Secretary of War or the Secretary of the Navy, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor. This certificate would then allow suspension of the law for a specified period and under required conditions to be determined by the preliminary inquiry. Certain requirements would be made in every case, and the plant would be under the supervision of the Woman in Industry Service.

No plant would be allowed to employ a woman more than eight hours by day or night. Every plant would be required to give an intermission of three-quarters of an hour for the night lunch period and to see to it that it was possible to secure a

wholesome hot meal at night. Ten-minute rest periods would be required in the working periods. It would be necessary that transportation should be provided which would be safe and convenient for the women. It would be necessary that there should be adequate supervision of the night shifts.

This suggested program raised discussion, but met with decided approval as protecting the existence of the present laws and establishing control where none now exists.

The introduction of women into hazardous occupations was considered. An account of a joint investigation in Niagara Falls illustrated a method for study of occupations new to women. It had been conducted by a committee on hazardous occupations appointed by the Woman in Industry Service, with representatives from the War Department, the Navy Department, the Public Health Service, the War Industries Board, the Bureau of Standards, and the New York State department of labor.

Discussion demonstrated the need for more scientific study of effects of industrial processes, whether on men or women, and of hazards to which women are peculiarly susceptible. Conclusions reached about a given process in one industry would be applicable to similar occupations in others. Also the pooling of experience from State to State was urged in order to meet the demand for speed in utilizing women as workers.

The conference closed after adopting the following resolution:

Resolved, That this conference go on record as opposed to any lowering or repealing of labor laws and labor standards set up in the various States unless on recommendation from Federal authority with competent jurisdiction.

DEMANDS OF GERMAN AGRICULTURAL WORKERS.

According to the *Soziale Praxis*,¹ the Landarbeiterprogram (Agricultural Laborers' Program) has now been laid before the Reichstag by the Central Association of German Forestry, Agricultural and Vineyard Workers. In a petition to the Reichstag the association requests the imperial chancellor to confer with the governments of the individual Federal States with regard to the wishes of the agricultural laborers. The program insists upon the right to combine and strike, the abolition of the regulations relating to servants, the issue of regulations for the protection of workers, the proper representation of agricultural laborers, and the creation of a system of arbitration of agricultural labor disputes. In addition, collaboration in municipal and provincial administration in chambers of agriculture, compulsory continuation and domestic science classes, as well as the drawing up of forms of contract, the opening of offices to

¹ *Soziale Praxis*. Berlin, June 20, 1918.

check contracts, a ruling on wage-scale agreements, and the improvement of housing conditions are demanded. The following quotation from the petition emphasizes the importance of the agricultural workers question from the point of view of industry and population and as a socio-political problem.

According to the agricultural census, the number of agricultural workers fell from 18.7 million in 1882 to 16.9 million in 1907, while the population of Germany increased from 45 to 68 million. The depopulation of agricultural districts is affecting all agricultural circles, but especially the laborers, a fact which, by causing lack of man power, has a disastrous effect on agriculture as a whole. During the 12 years from 1895 to 1907 statistics show a decrease of 820,000 in the agricultural population, 626,000 of whom were laborers, whose children, naturally, were also lost to agriculture. That this movement continued from 1907 to the outbreak of the war is proved by the increase in the number of foreigners employed, which rose from 257,329 in 1907 to 397,364 in 1912. Women and children form a larger proportion of the workers in agriculture than in any other industry. Of the total of 15 million agricultural workers, 8.3 million are women, and 600,000 children under 14 years of age. Any increase of this proportion can not be advocated in the interests of the population. The war and its results have withdrawn 1.5 million laborers from agriculture. These facts are sufficient to show the great seriousness of the question.

The petition finds that the reason of this depopulation lies in the social conditions in rural districts, and urges that the neglect of agricultural laborers should cease.

RECONSTRUCTION IN INDUSTRY.

PROPOSED LEGISLATION ON RECONSTRUCTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

Second only in importance to the successful termination of the war is the solution, properly considered and wisely executed, of the many social and industrial problems affecting the readjustment of domestic and national affairs which will demand the immediate and thoughtful attention of the Government as soon as peace shall be declared. Great Britain made a start in this direction by establishing a Ministry of Reconstruction and by appointing many subsidiary committees, each under the chairmanship of a man specially qualified to direct the work of investigation. The interim reports of these committees will form the basis of legislation which is even now under consideration. Thus when peace is declared, Great Britain will have placed herself in position to act more promptly and effectively than she otherwise would in grappling with the vitally important questions of national policy presented by afterwar conditions. France also has appointed many commissions to look into all matters of trade and finance that will demand proper consideration after the war. A similar policy is being pursued by the German Government.

Not until recently has the matter of making a scientific and detailed study of every conceivable question relating to afterwar conditions, pertaining primarily to the social and industrial life of the country, received the attention of Congress. On September 27, Senator Weeks, of Massachusetts, introduced a resolution (S. Con. Res. 21) calling for the creation of a "joint congressional committee on reconstruction" composed of six Senators (three to be selected by the Democratic senatorial caucus and three by the Republican senatorial caucus) and six Representatives in Congress (three to be selected by the Democratic House caucus and three by the Republican House caucus) "who shall make an investigation of the following subjects and report to Congress from time to time with such recommendations as to additional legislation or otherwise as it may deem advisable":

1. Problems affecting labor, including—
 - (a) Unemployment which may follow the war.
 - (b) Utilization of discharged soldiers and sailors in civil employments.
 - (c) Conciliation and arbitration of labor disputes.
 - (d) The relation of men and women in similar employments.
 - (e) Substitution of female employees for male and vice versa.
 - (f) Feasibility of organizing permanent employment agencies.

- (g) Requirements for labor after the war, both in agricultural and industrial occupations.
- (h) Distribution of labor.
- (i) Employment of surplus labor on public works of which the construction or completion has been suspended due to the war.
2. Problems affecting capital and credit, including—
- (a) All matters relating to trusts and combinations.
- (b) Federal loans to private enterprises.
- (c) Federal supervision of capital issues.
3. Problems affecting public utilities, including—
- (a) The establishment of a railroad policy after the war, and the relation of the Interstate Commerce Commission to the railroads.
- (b) All questions relating to communication by wire.
4. Problems resulting from the demobilization of our industrial and military war resources, including—
- (a) The disposal of surplus Government properties and supplies in this country and abroad.
- (b) The conversion of munition industries into those of peace.
- (c) The demobilization of the war strength of the Army and Navy, and the disposition of the men who have been in the service.
- (d) The demobilization of civil war workers.
5. Problems affecting our foreign trade, including—
- (a) The development of new markets.
- (b) Combinations for the purpose of increasing our selling facilities.
- (c) Changes in our banking facilities necessary to cooperate with such trade.
6. Problems affecting the continuance of existing industries and the establishment of new industries, including—
- (a) The supply and control of raw materials.
- (b) The encouragement of the production in the United States of articles that have not been made in this country heretofore.
- (c) The encouragement of private enterprise in the development of the resources of the public domain.
- (d) The utilization of a tariff on imports as a means to protect and encourage home industries.
7. Problems relating to agriculture, including—
- (a) The advisability of continuing after the war price fixing of food products.
- (b) Federal loans to farmers.
- (c) Distribution of food products.
- (d) The allotment of lands to returned soldiers and sailors and their establishment in new homes on the public domain.
8. Problems affecting the adequate production and effective distribution of coal, gasoline, and other fuels.
9. Problems relating to shipping, including shipyards, and especially in regard to the sale, continuance of ownership, or leasing of both yards and ships.
10. Housing conditions and the disposition of houses constructed by the Government during the war.
11. War legislation now on the statute books, with reference to its repeal, extension, or amendment.
12. And in general all matters necessarily arising during the change from the activities of war to the pursuits of peace, including those that may be referred to it by the Senate or House of Representatives.

In a speech suggesting the appointment of this committee, Senator Weeks explained that the purpose is not for the committee to make

all of the investigations required, but to have power to appoint subcommittees to consider such questions as may be assigned to them and that the members of these subcommittees shall be citizens especially trained in the particular matters to be examined, and shall serve in the capacity of investigators and advisers. The very great necessity of considering at once the afterwar questions suggested in the resolution was explained in some detail by Senator Weeks, and he referred to the general labor situation and the problems intimately connected with the question of labor, such as social insurance, in the following words:

Let us turn to the general labor situation. I am not now referring to that phase of it which affects war workers or returned soldiers and sailors. Many new conditions have developed since the beginning of the war. Millions of women are now doing work heretofore performed by men and with which they were not connected until the war required it. Are they to return to their former employments or unemployment, or are they to continue their present pursuits in competition with the millions returning from military service? Would it be well for us to provide for permanent employment agencies throughout the country and not only find employment for those seeking it, but arrange for the transferral of unemployed to localities where there is a dearth of labor? It has frequently happened in the past that labor conditions have been acute in one section of the country and there has been a surplus in other sections. In my judgment, comprehensive plans must be made for the distribution of labor.

Intimately connected with the question of labor is the one relating to social welfare. Many European countries and other nations have taken steps, nationally, relating to many social-welfare questions; for example, like providing for old-age pensions, life insurance, and other similar matters. Those questions are being agitated in the United States in some localities, and a pensioning system has been adopted applying to a limited number of civil employments. It is being done in a desultory and probably unsatisfactory and unjust way. If it is wise to do it at all, it should be wise for the National Government to do it; but before any comprehensive action is taken the whole subject should be thoroughly investigated and the results obtained in other parts of the world carefully canvassed so as to properly determine the question paramount in considering such matters; that is, whether action of that kind is beneficial or otherwise. It seems to me that this is the time when that series of questions should have careful consideration.

FEDERAL COMMISSION ON RECONSTRUCTION.

Believing it to be an executive rather than a legislative function, Senator Overman, of North Carolina, on October 3d, introduced a bill (S. 4968) to provide for the creation and establishment of a Federal commission on reconstruction to be appointed by the President by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. This commission shall be composed of five members, not more than three of whom shall be of the same political party and each of whom shall receive a salary of \$10,000 a year. Provision is made for the appointment of a secretary at a salary of \$5,000 a year. The duties of the commission are thus outlined in the bill:

SEC. 3. That it shall be the duty of the commission to examine into the problems and conditions that are arising out of the war and that may arise out of the transition

of the economic, industrial, and social life of the Nation from a state of war to a state of peace; and with a view of meeting, as far as possible, such problems and conditions before their solution is actually forced upon the Government, the commission shall report to Congress from time to time the results of such investigations with recommendations for new and additional legislation.

SEC. 4. That it shall be the duty of the commission to investigate and report as above described on any and all questions that may be referred to it by the Senate or the House of Representatives or by the President arising out of the conditions of war above described; and more particularly it shall investigate and report on the following problems:

- (a) The financing, regulation, control, and development of the merchant marine.
- (b) The development, financing, expansion, and direction of foreign trade.
- (c) The reorganization, financing, and readjustment of industries engaged in war work by way of reconvertng them to normal production.
- (d) Technical education and industrial research as a means of developing and strengthening of industry.
- (e) The redistribution and employment of labor in agricultural and industrial pursuits and the problems of labor growing out of demobilization.
- (f) The supply, distribution, and availability of raw materials and foodstuffs.
- (g) The conservation and development of national resources.
- (h) Inland transportation by rail and water.
- (i) Communication by telephone, telegraph, and wireless.
- (j) The reorganization of Government departments, bureaus, commissions, or offices, with a view to putting the Government on an economical and efficient peace basis.
- (k) The consolidation of such acts and parts of acts of Congress which relate to the same subject matter but which now appear at various places in the statutes.

OTHER MEASURES PERTAINING TO RECONSTRUCTION PROBLEMS.

Senator Owen, of Oklahoma, introduced a resolution (S. Con. Res. 22) on September 28 "to authorize and create a committee on reorganization for the purpose of making investigations and recommendations upon the reorganizations required for a return to the occupations of peace." It is proposed that this committee shall consist of six Senators and six Representatives in Congress "fairly representative of the Democratic and Republican Parties, to be nominated by the party organizations of the two houses and approved by the respective Houses." Their duties are thus outlined in the resolution:

That such a committee shall make an immediate investigation and report to Congress not later than January first, nineteen hundred and nineteen, and from time to time subsequently, with suitable recommendations upon the reorganizations required for a return to the occupations of peace of the men and women, capital investments, and supplies now employed in war.

It shall be the duty of such committee to propose the ways and means by which the soldiers of the United States and those directly or indirectly employed in making war, both men and women, or engaged in any of the activities connected with war, shall be found employment; to prepare and assist in restoring the activities of peace; to make concrete proposals for the utilization of the materials, buildings, and supplies which have been prepared for war purposes, but which may be used for the service of the country in times of peace.

To propose methods by which the capital, credit, and labor of the American people after the war may be actively employed in production and distribution of goods at home and abroad; the supply and distribution of raw materials and food products arranged to that end; to report upon the construction of national hard-surfaced roads throughout the United States; building of internal and coastal canals; reclaiming and cultivation of swamp lands and arid lands; utilizing water powers; and the permanent maintenance of the American merchant marine, and in general to report upon those problems arising from the change from the activities of war to those of peace, so that all the productive activities of the American shall be continuously and profitably employed.

On October 2, in the House of Representatives, Congressman Madden, of Illinois, introduced a resolution (H. Con. Res. 53) which is identical with that presented by Senator Weeks in the Senate on September 27.

Congressman London, the Socialist member from New York, also introduced a resolution (H. Con. Res. 54) under date of October 4, differing somewhat from the others. It provides for a "joint congressional committee on reconstruction" to be composed of six Senators (three Republicans and three Democrats) and seven Representatives in Congress (three Republican, three Democrats, and one Socialist), whose duties are stated in the resolution, as follows:

It shall be the duty of the committee to prepare and recommend legislation for the securing of employment to all immediately after the termination of the war.

It shall be the duty of the committee to prepare and recommend legislation for the taking over by the Nation of the basic industries; for the democratic control of credit and finance; for the nationalization of the railways, telegraph, and telephone lines, waterways and canals, steamships and steamship lines, and all other means of transportation which are public in their character; for the acquisition and retention of agricultural lands which may be needed by the returned soldiers; for the reclamation of arid and swamp lands; for the acquisition, retention, and exploitation of the natural resources; for the encouragement of agricultural cooperation and for collective aid to the farmer; for the establishment of a national system of obligatory education.

It shall be the duty of the committee to make a special study of the extent to which the powers exercised by the Federal Government to promote the national defense may be utilized for the promotion of the national welfare, and to report to Congress its conclusions and recommendations for the promotion by legislation of the Nation's welfare and security.

RECONSTRUCTION COMMISSION.

On May 16, 1918, a bill (H. R. 12139) was introduced in the House by Congressman George W. Edmonds, of Pennsylvania, "to create a commission to investigate the problems of reconstruction." It is proposed that this commission shall be called the "Reconstruction Commission," and shall be composed of 10 Senators elected by the Senate and 10 Members of the House of Representatives elected by the House, not more than 6 of whom, in each case, shall be members of the same political party. The commissioners shall serve without salary. The duties of this commission are given in section 3 of the bill, as follows:

That the commission, through subcommittee or otherwise, shall investigate in this and other countries conditions which have arisen during the present war, and seek to ascertain the conditions which are likely to arise at the termination of the war, and shall from time to time report to Congress its findings, and make such recommendations as it may deem proper, including drafts of bills for such legislation as it finds to be necessary to meet such conditions.

INJUNCTIONS AGAINST STRIKES DURING WAR EMERGENCY.

A new doctrine for the courts is embodied in a decision by Judge Scudder, of the Supreme Court of New York, who on the 5th of September, granted a permanent injunction against strikes for any cause whatever in the case of workmen engaged in the manufacture of supplies for the armed forces of the United States. The plant of the Rosenwasser Bros. (Inc.) was engaged in the main in the manufacture of shoes, leggings, raincoats, gas masks, etc., for the Army, and had suffered from the effects of labor stoppages to the extent, as alleged, of reducing the normal output to one-fifth. A strike in September, 1917, had been adjusted after investigation by the War Labor Board, higher wages and shorter hours being allowed, but the plant being run as an open shop. The present strike was instigated by officers and agents of the United Shoe Workers to secure the unionizing of the plant, and while Justice Scudder held that they might lawfully solicit members and appeal to the Government agencies in regard to any grievances that they might claim to have, the right to strike enjoyed in times of peace must be considered as waived for the term of the war emergency.

The United States is a participant in this, the greatest war of all times. In the performance of its part it has been sending hundreds of thousands of men to Europe who must be clothed and equipped. The President has called upon both manufacturers and workers to do their utmost in the way of supplying our forces with clothing and equipment. * * *

The production of war industries is so closely and immediately connected with actual military operations that it may be said to be a part of them. Can it then be that with means afforded by the Government to adjust differences between employers and employees in our war industries a labor union has the right, for any cause whatever, to induce or incite workmen in such industries to strike or not to work, and thereby to jeopardize the successful outcome of our country's military operations and all that depends upon them, even though so to do would have been lawful in times of peace? Any answer other than "No" is unthinkable.

Holding that the present circumstances, involving tortious acts, would warrant the issue of an injunction against such conduct in any case, the court said:

The question of greatest importance, however, is whether, under the facts presented here, the court should not go further and enjoin defendants from inciting, aiding, and abetting strikes of plaintiff's employees for any cause, in view of the fact that the parties to this controversy have devised and set in motion appropriate machinery to

settle by arbitration all differences existing between them, and because the life of our nation is dependent upon an uninterrupted production of those things needed to successfully carry on the war in which our country is engaged.

Attention was called to the subject of collective bargaining, recommended by the Government as a means of avoiding disputes. "Therefore the Government favors organization of labor unions to the end that there may be collective bargaining." While therefore this injunction was granted at the instance of an employer, the principles apply with equal force and directness to lockouts or to any arbitrary action on the part of either employers or employees interfering with production and the maintenance of satisfactory working conditions. This is, so far as has come to the notice of the bureau, the first application by a court of law or equity, of the principles laid down by the National War Labor Board and the War Labor Policies Board. Available sources of information do not indicate whether the case will be appealed to the court of appeals of the State or whether the injunction will stand without further controversy.

While the foregoing decision is apparently unique in its acceptance of the principles enunciated by the War Labor Board—a nonlegislative body—as a basis for action and in its prohibition of all strikes in the field under consideration, it is approximated by the ruling of the United States District Court of the Eastern District of Missouri, in which Judge Trieber enjoined grocery clerks from striking so as to cause the loss of large amounts of food products, basing his action in part on the food conservation law of August 10, 1917. This act makes it unlawful "knowingly to commit waste or willfully to permit preventable deterioration of any necessities in or in connection with their production, manufacture, or distribution," or to conspire or combine "to restrict distribution of any necessities." In the case in hand (*Kroger Grocery & Baking Co. v. Retail Clerks' International Protective Assn., et al.*, 250 Fed., 890), the employees in a chain of grocery stores struck and were picketing to prevent patronage and the employment of other helpers. Threats, insulting language, and intimidation were indulged in, according to the findings of the court. The evidence showed that "harsh terms, opprobrious epithets, were used toward these [new] employees. They were called scabs. One man was called "Kaiser," and while, ordinarily, that could hardly be deemed an insulting term, yet, considering the conditions now prevailing in the minds of the public toward the Emperor of Germany, who is generally alluded to as the Kaiser, we know it was intended as a term of insult, and not as a commendation."

Like the court in the New York case, Judge Trieber referred to the necessities imposed by war conditions, on account of which "the Government is dependent upon the work of wage earners and manu-

facturers in order to carry this war to success, and, while the court is not willing to say that an unjustifiable strike in times like this is treason, it comes mighty close to it, morally." The limitations under which a court must act were referred to, and particularly those prescribed by the Clayton Act (38 Stat., 730), restricting the issue of injunctions. Of this it was said, however, that "it is a mistake to suppose that by these provisions of the act any act or acts which were unlawful at the time the act was passed were legalized. The only effect of this act is to prevent United States courts, sitting as courts of equity, from granting injunctions in the cases mentioned therein; but so far as the legality of the acts is concerned, if they were illegal at that time, they are illegal to-day, and if the plaintiff has been damaged thereby, he may obtain from the courts any remedy which could have been obtained before that time, except an injunction."

Notwithstanding this, the circumstances were found to warrant the issue of an injunction, particularly the danger of the irremediable loss of some \$36,000 worth of perishable food, in violation of the food conservation law already noted, and a temporary injunction was issued against such interference with the business of the plaintiff as was shown to have been practiced by the striking employees and those associated with them. In this latter class was a rival grocer, who, while not a member of the union, had contributed to its strike fund and encouraged the continuance of the strike, especially if they would succeed in closing a store that was just across the street from his own place of business. Being a contributor to the union and a supporter of its efforts brought him within the scope of the injunction, as well as those members of the union who had not themselves engaged in the unlawful acts complained of but who had evidently approved of the strike and of the methods used to carry it on.

POSTWAR LABOR PROGRAM OF THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION.

Since millions of workmen have lost their lives in the present war and more millions have been totally or partially disabled, the raising of a new generation of skilled workers and the prolongation of the duration of the productive life of all classes of workers will be among the most imperative tasks of the period of reconstruction. It is clear that under a system of unrestricted exploitation of the working forces by individual employers after the termination of the war these results can not be achieved.

In addition to these reasons for the enactment of protective labor legislation there are also to be considered the demands of the workmen themselves. Workmen's earnings have increased everywhere during the war in order to enable them, at least partially, to meet the

greatly increased cost of living. This increase in earnings has, however, been paid for too dearly by Sunday, night, and overtime work and undernutrition. The combined effect of the high wages and of the physical overexertion of labor caused by the war has led to the result that from the ranks of the masses themselves who have worked with heroic self-effacement has come the demand not only for restoration of prewar conditions but for improvement upon those conditions. It is the desire for conditions which produce zest for work and give some aim to life that rings through these demands and may be found in numerous statements in the report of the commission of inquiry into industrial unrest in Great Britain.¹

These phenomena are not limited to one country. They may be perceived everywhere and therefore require international action. It is for this reason that the International Association for Labor Legislation has submitted to the Swiss Federal Council a memorandum requesting the latter's support for the incorporation in the world's peace treaty of a program of international protective labor legislation and for its adoption by all signatory powers. This memorandum covers a number of minimum demands for protective legislation which if universally adopted would standardize labor conditions in many important points. A translation of the original text of the memorandum follows:

MEMORANDUM OF JUNE 11, 1918, SUBMITTED BY THE INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION TO THE SWISS FEDERAL COUNCIL THROUGH THE ECONOMIC DEPARTMENT.

In view of the declaration of the High Federal Council that it would support the creation of a league of nations, the International Association for Labor Legislation requests the Federal Council that when a world peace conference offers suitable opportunity, it lay stress upon the following considerations and demands in the interests of international protection of labor:

Switzerland not only has been the home of those international institutions which serve to care for the wounded on the battle fields and to facilitate business intercourse in the whole world, but also is the point of origin and the seat of the movement for the international protection of the human productive forces. The agreements of Bern of 1906 relating to the prohibition of industrial night work of women and of the use of poisonous phosphorus in the match industry, as well as the drafts of international treaties of 1913 relating to the prohibition of night work of juvenile workers and the establishment of a 10-hour work day for juvenile workers and women, denote great progress, because experience has shown that such general treaties offer to socially progressive countries like Switzerland the opportunity to develop their own national legislation, while in the case of bipartite treaties political considerations which have nothing to do with the protection of labor frequently necessitate that the less progressive legislation be considered.

The directorate of the International Association for Labor Legislation is convinced that the sections of the association fully agree with it that the treaties of Bern of 1906 and the drafts of 1913 form valuable initial steps toward a system of agreements for

¹ Bauer, Stephan. Arbeiterschutz und Völkergemeinschaft, pp. 1, 2.

the protection of labor and that the mutual obligation of the various countries included in the peace treaty to develop this system would be of great importance. These obligations should include:

1. The revival of the international protective labor treaties of Bern of 1906.
2. The adoption of the draft of 1913 relating to the protection of juvenile workers with reservation of the right to shorten the 10-hour workday by the number of hours' attendance at continuation schools required, should attendance be made compulsory.

3. The supplementation of the preceding agreement by one relating to the protection of children and establishing (after the model of Switzerland) 14 years as the minimum age for admission to employment in all industrial establishments employing more than 5 workers, with the reservation of the right to raise this minimum if development of the continuation-school system requires it, and advancing the minimum age to 16 years (after the model of most American mining States, Holland, Luxemburg, and Spain) for underground employment in mines.

4. The adoption of the draft of 1913 relating to the 10-hour workday for female workers, supplemented by provisions requiring shorter hours on Saturdays, in industrial establishments employing more than 10 workers, whereby the weekly hours of labor would be reduced to 54 (as in Norway), and providing for eight weeks' leave for women with child, distributed over the period before and after confinement (after the model of Germany and in supplementation of article 69 of the Swiss factory law).

5. The introduction of eight-hour shifts in mining (after the model of England) and in establishments with continuous operation (in accordance with the principle laid down in article 53, paragraph 3, of the Swiss factory law), which, according to the resolutions of the International Association, should form the subject of an international agreement to become effective after the conclusion of peace.

6. The regulation by special agreement of the Sunday rest, and in particular the abrogation of the numerous exceptions from the Sunday and holiday rest.

7. For protection against industrial poisoning, the addition to the international treaty of 1906 of Bern prohibiting the use of white phosphorus in the match industry, of an international prohibition of the use of other injurious substances (especially lead compounds) for which substitutes exist; and of an international prohibition of the employment of children and juveniles on work with such substances and, in establishments particularly dangerous for women, of the employment of women also.

8. The enactment of international safety measures for workers engaged in international transportation on water and on land (after the model of the United States).

9. The assurance, through international agreement, of the protection of legal claims of workers abroad against unequal treatment with respect to their pension claims in all fields of social insurance, and provision for the neutralization, even in case of war, of the insurance contributions of alien workers, through the transfer of their claims to a neutral country.

10. The conclusion of a special agreement regulating the labor contract, in order to prevent international labor disputes.

This agreement should guarantee the recognition of the right of free coalition by a provision (like that of Switzerland) that collective agreements shall not be set aside by private special agreements (articles 322, 323, of the Swiss law on obligations) and should assure the enactment of minimum wage laws, covering underpaid occupations, such as now are in force in Australia, England, France, Norway, and a number of States in the United States of America, and the introduction of which has been found necessary in Germany by the military authorities, for the clothing industry, and in Switzerland, for the embroidery industry.

11. Provision for the protection of emigrant labor through international agreements and organizations; the limitation of the duration of the labor contracts of colonial contract labor to one-half year in mining and to a maximum of 3 years in agriculture, as proposed by the International Association for the Protection of Native Labor.

12. A special international agreement providing that the reports of supervisory officials as to the enforcement of protective laws be made in comparable form.

The International Association for Labor Legislation would be designated as the recognized official agency for the enforcement and promotion of protective labor legislation and would charge the International Labor Office in Basel created by it with the scientific preparation of the form which these reports shall take, as a means of the international protection of labor. The signatory countries would have to assure the furnishing of the funds required for the development of the International Labor Office as a social-statistical central office and bureau of information.

To each of the above agreements should be added a proviso under which the agreement could be amended every 6 to 10 years in accordance with the progress of international labor legislation. These amendments would automatically replace the minimum demands incorporated in the peace treaty.

The significance of such a program lies in the fact that it does not serve the occupational interests of labor alone. When statesmen and publicists of both enemy camps to-day urgently support the incorporation of socio-political demands in the peace treaty, these demands are based on the following considerations:

First, no encouragement should be given to particular nations, by means of longer hours of labor and lower wages, in the intensive post-war competition of the various nations for trade. It is a known fact that in certain industries, particularly in home work, the costs of production can be reduced through a reduction of wages, and that this would bring about a policy of underselling and dumping. Such a state of affairs would cause an economic war of the producers, which, without doubt, would be followed by a war of the consumers against producers. If, therefore, industry wishes to avoid reprisals, it must prefer an international régime of self-restriction to unrestrained exploitation of the working classes.¹

Second, international protective labor legislation will prevent the class strife that threatens after the war; for this reason it should be extensively developed simultaneously with the peace treaty. In this connection Senator Henry Chéron, on June 5, 1917, while reporting the Saturday rest bill for the clothing industry, said:

We must resolutely reenter this road so that we may not sacrifice the industry and commerce of the most democratic countries to those whose social legislation is less developed. In the peace treaty which will end the present war the employers' representatives must set aside a special space for labor legislation. This not only is required by a sense of justice but will be one of the surest means to avoid disputes on working conditions which is of such great importance to both wage earners and their employers.²

Third, uniformity of labor legislation is one of the democratic bases of the coming international democratic regime. "Democracy," declares Prof. Rowe, secretary general of the Pan American Union, "means something more than a governmental system; something far

¹ *Lysis: Vers la démocratie nouvelle*, 1917; H. Lammasch: *Das Völkerrecht nach dem Kriege*, 1917, p. 58.

² *Doc. parl. Sénat*, annexe No. 188, p. 260.

deeper than the election of public officials; something far more significant than a particular type of written constitution. It means, in the last analysis, the solution of certain basic industrial and social problems, such as the elimination of peonage, the governmental guaranty of a minimum standard of life to the masses, a well-organized system of protective labor legislation, an agrarian system based on a numerous land-holding class, an educational system open to all on terms that are really and not merely nominally equal."¹

The peace-assuring, although not peace-promoting, character ascribed to international protective labor legislation is therefore due not only to economic but also to internal and foreign political reasons.

It is clear that a mere armed peace (*Rüstungsfriede*) can not contain such demands for the protection of labor as the equalization of the labor laws. The sacrifices which such a peace must newly impose upon the great mass of the working classes bear no relation to the moral and physical strengthening to be achieved by protection of labor. Ten years with the eight-hour workday can not make up for four years of woman labor underground, the compulsory labor of war prisoners, and the hunger and exhaustion which a war brings with it. An armed peace means the continuation of the war with the same means, and its supporters have at all times been the most pronounced adversaries of national protection of labor.

Only when a profound change of spirit has removed domination by the military interests, when the allurements of profits based on force and monopolies have lost their effectiveness, and when a democratic peace (*Arbeitsfriede*) intended to be permanent has been concluded, may one think of a renaissance of the working classes of all countries. Whether and when the conclusion of such a peace can be brought about can not be predicted in the fourth year of the world war.

If fate should will it that a democratic peace be realized, a program aiming at the speedy conclusion of a system of protective labor agreements would form a part of the peace instrument no less essential than the announcement of a new adjustment of trade regulations and financial obligations.

Just as modern constitutions, like that of Switzerland and the more recent one of Mexico, have charged the legislatures with the enactment of specified forms of social legislation, so can the rudiments of a world constitution, which a world peace treaty represents, lay down specified principles for world legislation, and by the fixing of suitable time limits provide against retarding the realization of these principles.

The guaranties for the development and enforcement of social international law lie in the permanent cooperation and watchfulness of international organizations, in the promotion of comparative

¹ Rowe, L. S. Bringing the Americas together, in *The Foreign Relations of the United States. Part I. Proceedings of the Academy of Political Science.* Vol. VII, No. 2, July, 1917, p. 273. New York, 1917.

research in the field of social and administrative science and hygiene, and in the cultivation of an international spirit. Only a new reign of reason, experimental research, abnegation, public-spiritedness, and a belief in higher aims than those of the material tendencies of subjugation can give to these guaranties the power of resistance which we grievously miss to-day. Above all there must be no doubt as to the indispensability of the cooperation of international organizations in this work. The international protection of labor is not a legal phantom hovering above the world of material interests. It requires steady supervision and continuous contact with industrial life, constant exchange of experiences, and scientific and parliamentary control of conflicts of interests. An international *laissez faire*, a merely recording activity in this sphere, is inconsistent with its vital conditions. The German insurance laws of 1884 gave rise to a wish for international study of the new principles of sickness and accident insurance and led to the foundation in 1889 of an international permanent committee. A strike in the Ruhr district during the same year led to the convocation in 1890 of the Berlin conference on protective labor legislation. Discerning the fact that the care of the healthy workman, of the growing generation, and of the mothers, which, owing to circumstances of international competition, has been neglected, is no less urgent than the care of those injured by accident, the sick, and the infirm, the International Association for Labor Legislation in 1901 adopted these ideas. The endeavor to centralize the procuring of employment in times of great unemployment and to organize the insurance of the unemployed either through State or municipal subsidies to the trade-unions and other insurance funds led in 1910 to the foundation of the International Association for the Prevention of Unemployment.

Strengthened internally by common, pertinent work these associations have weathered the storms of the present war. "It is solely the experimental method and not a special doctrine which has created them and bound them together."¹

The scientific study of labor phenomena—the demand for labor, industrial fatigue, the limits of efficiency, the minimum wage, occupational morbidity and mortality, unemployment, social hygiene, social insurance, administration of labor and comparative protective labor legislation—forms the second basis of international protection of labor. The study of these spheres requires comparable bases. In several States it was this requirement that has given rise to interest in the study of the labor factor, demanded the administrative activity of these States and increased the consciousness of membership in the family of nations.

¹ Leon Bourgeois: *L'organisation internationale de la prévoyance sociale*, 1913, p. 13.

At a time when an international bond unites the protective legislation of the various countries this comparative study becomes more indispensable than ever. The international miracle does not take place by putting the commune back of all the working machinery of social legislation and by transferring to it the motive power. Such a simple process may be adopted in transportation and postal systems which from the outset have an international character, but it fails to work wherever the national apparatus must be adapted to international tasks.

It was the comparative study of these international premises and of the efficiency, the technical development, and the administrative results in the spheres of social hygiene and social insurance that led to the perception of international possibilities. This study has also led to the perception that smaller countries such as Finland, Denmark, Greece, Norway, Portugal, Switzerland, Australia, and Mexico may, under certain conditions, accomplish much more for the protection and conservation of human labor than large States such as the former empires of Russia and Brazil—proof that in this sphere there can not exist a supremacy or compulsory dominion but only a working community which achieves results not by forcible interference but by imitation and education.

The resolutions of the International Association for Labor Legislation are the result of these experiences. They have been incorporated with slight changes and additions, comprehensible on account of the present state of war, in the labor programs of Leeds and Bern to which American labor has given the impetus. If the contents of this program should become internationally binding, these acts would be as incomplete as the Magna Charta was as a constitutional instrument on the date of its signature. A large number of the protective labor laws of our time are not applicable to workers in small establishments, to home workers, or to transportation and agricultural workers, even if this is not explicitly stated in the law. Only a protracted state of peace will make clear the occupational changes in these groups. How much the numerical strength of these groups will be increased through war pensioners and persons added to the proletariat by the war can not be estimated. It is clear that this new field can be opened only step by step by common social reforms.

The international regulation of the rights of salaried employees, a class which continuously assumes greater importance as public and cooperative establishments take the place of individual entrepreneurs, forms another virgin field of activity. A world-comprehensive study of the regulations in existence for this class, and of their demands for participation in profits and administration has hardly begun.

The end of the war may be expected to bring a strong flaring up of strikes. If the inflation of prices recedes with the end of the

gigantic loans and of the demand caused by building operations and ship construction, a period of unemployment will set in. Formed into national, and perhaps international federations, employers and workmen will oppose each other. But till now the principles according to which disputes over hours of labor and wages are settled have not been developed beyond the suggestions of well-meaning persons skilled in conciliation. Wherever powerful strikes have stopped the production of necessaries, as in the coal mines of Wales in December, 1916, recourse has been had to assumption of operation by the State. It is one of the international tasks of the future to collect the pre-war and war experience of the systems of conciliation and arbitration and to profit from it, and to elucidate the great problems of the purchasing power of minimum wages.

Finally the extension of protective labor legislation in Asia, Africa, Central and South America is of great importance also for the European working classes. As labor reserves and as countries producing raw materials of which European and American capital will make greater use than ever, these unprotected territories are exposed to a repetition of that exploitation the prevention of which is of international interest.

All the more to be recommended is the organization in the colonial territories of centers of social research and social reform for the strengthening of the existing institutions for the protection of the natives, the reporting of their management, and for the completion of the international task.

Inasmuch as the preliminary work of the treaties of Bern and of the International Association for Labor Legislation and the new labor programs of the trade-unions have created promising bases for an international legal regulation of labor, the task is not finished but has merely begun. It is far more important in what spirit and with what energy the task is being completed than in what form this completion takes place. International protective labor legislation which at one time it was attempted to make serve the purpose of procrastination has proved to be an admonisher and lever of national reforms. It should not be deprived of this task of acceleration of the most necessary of all transitions.

After the collapse of the old policy of interests the new ideals of the masses require room for development and care. A new hard life full of duties requires more educational facilities, more activity and more trust in the future. The assurance of health, a minimum rest, and a minimum income as guaranteed by the systematic development of international labor legislation forms the matrix for the raising of a generation which will stand above monopolistic profits, business egotism, and class interest.

RELATION OF INDUSTRIAL AND SOCIAL CONDITIONS TO ADULT EDUCATION.

There is a wide and growing demand among adults for education of a nonvocational character, i. e., for subjects like general and industrial history, economics, political science, philosophy, biology, and literature. This is brought out in the interim report of the British Ministry of Reconstruction's committee on adult education.¹ This demand is attributed to two motives. One is the wish for fuller personal development. The other motive is a social purpose which is the "evidence of an appreciation of the responsibilities of citizenship, of the existence of political, social, and industrial ideals, and of a growing determination to realize them." The committee thinks that, in view both of the grave problems which must be met after the war and of the ever-increasing complexity of social organization, the need for the intelligent interest and the active cooperation of the mass of citizens will be greater than ever before. But it is pointed out that "you can not 'educate' a man whose uppermost thought is the economic 'struggle for existence.' Nor can a spirit of intelligent and responsible citizenship be readily developed in those whose mainspring to activity is a continual struggle for the bare necessities of physical existence."

The committee, therefore, studied, "from the human rather than the economic point of view," some of the industrial and social factors which tend, by their mental and physical effect on the workman, to hinder his making the fullest use of existing educational opportunities and in many cases to deter or even to prevent altogether his seeking to take any advantage of these opportunities. The evidence obtained from interviews with workers themselves and with tutors of long experience in continuation school work shows that these social and industrial factors form "in many cases almost insuperable obstacles to adult education."

The matters studied with reference to their bearing on adult education were: Hours of labor, overtime, the shift system, night work, heavy and exhausting work, monotonous work, unemployment, holidays, the industrial background, housing and town planning, and the rural problem.

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS.

Hours of labor.—The committee finds that excessive hours of labor form one of the greatest obstacles to adult education. In many cases the hours of labor absorb so large a part of each day as to leave little time for "the duties of the home, social intercourse, public duties,

¹ Great Britain. Ministry of Reconstruction. Committee on adult education: Interim report on industrial and social conditions in relation to adult education. [Cd. 9107.] London, 1918. 32 pp.

and study." It is pointed out that among English male workers only the miners have the length of their working day regulated by law, and that, though many women employees are protected by the Factory and Workshop Act and the Shops Act, domestic and clerical workers do not come under the act and therefore have no legal protection in regard to hours.

The existing legal limitation of working hours, confined as it is to certain industries, though these are amongst the more important, and inadequate in the stringency of its regulations, even in the case of those to which it applies, is an obstacle to the pursuit of intellectual and other interests the seriousness of which can hardly be exaggerated.

One of the greatest needs is the provision of a greater amount of leisure time; this is the more necessary because of the increasing strain of modern life. The view sometimes held that the community must necessarily suffer economic loss as a result of a shortening of working hours is not one to which modern economic science lends any confirmation, and has, indeed, received an impressive practical refutation from the inquiries into the relation between output and working hours conducted on behalf of the Ministry of Munitions during the present war.

Overtime.—The report states that in so far as concerns its effect on the would-be student's opportunities to attend part-time classes, overtime where it constantly occurs is even worse than long hours of labor because of its uncertainty. "In seasonal trades where the period of pressure happens to be the winter months (when educational facilities are most readily available) there is an additional hindrance."

The limitation of the working day would not in itself yield the desired result unless at the same time steps were taken to minimize overtime employment (which, as many point out, is often another name for long hours). In certain industries, the further limitation of overtime would be attended by considerable difficulties, but perhaps the greater part of the overtime worked in the past was the result, not so much of inherent conditions, as of a lack of adequate industrial organization. In some trades overtime during certain periods of the year has become stereotyped as part of the normal system, and we can not but feel that, in some degree at least, it would be possible to spread work more uniformly throughout the year.

The shift system.—Interviews with workers brought out the fact that working hours in many instances are 10 or even 12 a day, and that even in cases where the hours are not excessive the time at which the working day ends is such as to preclude the employee's attendance at evening or continuation classes. This is especially true in occupations where the shift system or the "split turn" system prevails, such as those of railway and street-car workers, postal employees, policemen, miners, and restaurant and hotel employees. The committee found that while the "split turn" system affects unfavorably the workman's opportunity for education, this system is less serious than the shift system in that it concerns considerably fewer workers.

As regards the effects of the shift system on adult education the following statement of a class organizer is quoted in the report:

It is no exaggeration to say that in any industrial district hundreds of would-be students are prevented from taking up courses of study owing to the fact that they work on a shift system, which means generally that they are only able to attend classes once in two weeks, or once in three weeks, according as they are employed on the two-shift or three-shift system, and that therefore they can not secure any continuity of study. Yet so keen are some that rather than be shut out altogether they will join a class and attend when they can, which means a very considerable effort of will. It is difficult enough with a two-shift system, but a three-shift system is perfectly demoralizing, as it leaves a man free first in the morning, then in the afternoon, and then in the evening, in consecutive weeks; and this carried on throughout the year really shuts him out from any continued participation in the higher things of life.

For many reasons part-time education for those engaged in earning a livelihood takes place almost invariably in the evening hours, and the writer has seen groups of would-be students who have wished to take up serious study denied the fulfillment of their desire for a fuller life through education owing to the conditions of their daily work.

Where workers are employed on continuous processes and in essential services (e. g., railways and postal service), "shift" working appears to be inevitable. In these circumstances the interests of the community will be best served by a reduction of the normal working day. A good many shift workers, however, are not engaged upon continuous processes. The choice here appears to lie between the satisfaction of the claims of maximum production and the claims of the human being. We frankly say that if the desire for maximum output can not be realized without robbing the human being of his opportunities for full participation in the organized life of society and its educational facilities, we would unhesitatingly give preference to the satisfaction of the claims of the human being.

Night work.—The report states that where shift work involves, as a rule, frequent periods of night work, due to the transference of the worker from one shift to another, it should be remembered that there are many who regularly work during the night. The persons interviewed by the committee were strongly opposed to night work and almost without exception condemned it as "unnatural." One frequent ground of objection was that it requires too great a sacrifice of individual freedom and the normal methods of life to industrial purposes.

The general evidence shows that night work is more exhausting than daywork, that the night worker requires longer hours of sleep, that the noise of traffic and the performance of domestic duties interfere with sleep, and that night workers are either periodically or permanently cut off from the normal life of the community and participation in its organized activities. Public work and education become well nigh impossible. We are therefore inclined to agree with a Birmingham mechanic who says: "Of all the evils which infest industrial life, night work is the most damnable."

Monotonous work.—In the course of the study it was found that two theories are held as to the effect of monotonous work upon the worker's desire to improve his mind. One is that monotonous forms

of labor which require no intellectual application leave the mind of the worker free and unexhausted by his duties, so that in the course of the daily task "the intelligent worker browses upon the subject in which he is interested." The second theory is that monotonous work dulls the mind, destroys initiative, and "gradually stifles all intellectual interests," with the result that educational facilities offer little or no attraction.

After considering the information received, the committee comes to the following conclusion:

The effects of monotonous work depend largely upon the strength of the intellectual interests of the worker and upon the nature of the worker's temperament. Something also depends upon the pace of working, as where the process is performed with great rapidity the effects of monotony are intensified. Young workers employed on monotonous processes easily succumb to the deadening influences of their daily work. And if they continue upon work of this character, the evil results pointed out above appear almost inevitable. On the other hand, workpeople who already possess wide interests strongly developed when they enter upon monotonous work, may, if the hours be not excessive, not only survive the crushing effects of their labor, but may find counterbalancing advantages in the opportunity for reflection.

Heavy and exhausting work.—That work which requires "the constant expenditure of an excessive amount of physical and nervous energy must necessarily deprive the workers of the vigor which might otherwise be devoted to the pursuit of personal interests and public affairs" is emphasized, and the statement is made that such excessive labor "degrades" those who perform it. The committee in commenting upon this point says:

We do not think that any economic reasons can be urged in justification of its continuance. The sacrifice of health, of vigor, or of both, and of opportunities for engaging in the full round of educational, social, and political activities, to the supposed needs of industry would not, we are convinced, be tolerated in this country if the facts were more generally known.

Unemployment.—The report shows that unemployment, especially if prolonged, unfits a man for any participation in educational and intellectual pursuits, and in social activities.

The urgent need of finding work, the wearing anxiety as to the present and future maintenance of himself and his family, make mental concentration upon anything else than the struggle for existence an impossibility. It is the decent, self-respecting citizen who, finding himself unemployed by no fault of his own, but through the exigencies of industry, suffers most; and it is precisely this kind of man, because of his very self-respect, who can not bring himself to take advantage of the means (so often savoring of "charity" and the poor law) provided for alleviating distress caused by unemployment. As all observers are agreed, the result is, save in very exceptional cases, physical and mental deterioration. Moreover, should unemployment be prolonged beyond a certain point, it is often found that the process of deterioration has gone too far for the victim entirely to retrieve his position, and thus a permanent loss is inflicted on the nation's citizens.

"Holidays" or vacations.—With respect to "holidays" the committee found that while in the north of England the annual vacation of one week has become well established; in the south such a vacation is the exception and not the rule. This is particularly true of agricultural laborers. The report declares that "at the best the average town worker can only look forward to not more than one week's leave" and this is often subject to the demands of industry, and usually has to be taken at the worker's own expense, so that in the last analysis what the worker has is not a vacation but a period of unemployment.

This inadequacy of "holiday" provision constitutes a very real limitation of the educational opportunity. Many summer-school courses are open to the worker, but under present conditions if he attends these courses he must do so at a sacrifice to himself and very often to his family. In the committee's opinion the fact that such sacrifices are made "is one of the most convincing pieces of evidence of the reality of the demand for nonvocational education," and means in many cases that the student must "suffer an economic loss by foregoing his wages, and in practically every case that he gives up to study his one brief period of leisure in the year, which he would otherwise have devoted to a much-needed rest and relaxation from strenuous pursuits."

It may be that the question of holidays will, in the future, be the subject matter of agreements between employers and employed,¹ but in any case we think it important that the present custom among salaried workers with regard to payment during holidays should be extended to wage earners and incorporated in the factory acts and similar laws.

The industrial background.—Stating that adult nonvocational education is primarily concerned with the relation of the whole industrial organization to the intellectual, esthetic, and spiritual life of the Nation, the committee reviews briefly the evolution of the present industrial system and continues:

Whilst a very large proportion of the working population has not clearly formulated its fundamental objections to the conditions and circumstances of industrial life, the articulate minority is placing an increasing emphasis upon what may be called the moral factors. There is undoubtedly a growing feeling of dissatisfaction on the part of work people with what they regard as their position of inferiority. This inferiority, it is urged, is due to a forced submission to undesirable conditions, to the subjection of the worker both to the machine and to the will of others who are vested with an authority in which the workers have no share. The new currents of thought, which during the past few years have increasingly agitated labor, are a sign of a deep-seated reaction against the dehumanizing influences surrounding industrial life. * * *

¹ We (the committee) understand that an agreement has recently been arrived at in the chemical industry whereby the workers engaged in it will obtain an annual week's holiday with pay.

We are not concerned with the methods which should be adopted, but with the problem of the reaction upon human personality of the conditions of industrial life, and with the fundamental criticism that the present industrial system offers little opportunity for the satisfaction of the intellectual, social, and artistic impulses.

If that issue be approached from the standpoint suggested by the terms of our reference, it is not possible, in our view, to accept the suggestion sometimes advanced that the exigencies of industrial efficiency are of such paramount importance that the development of personality must inevitably and rightly be subordinated to them. We do not admit, indeed, that there is any necessary antithesis between the interest of the community in industrial efficiency and its interest in strengthening the character and developing the intelligence of its citizens, for it is on their character and intelligence that even its material wealth ultimately depends. But industry exists for man, not man for industry, and if it be true, as it is, that modern industrial conditions have often tended to deprive the worker of the education which he previously derived from the intrinsic interest offered by his work, that fact makes it doubly important, we suggest, to supplement their deficiencies by a humane and generous educational policy.

Adult education and, indeed, good citizenship depend in no small degree, therefore, upon a new orientation of our industrial outlook and activities. Improved conditions and the diffusion of responsibility for the proper conduct of industry will strengthen the need for educational opportunities. In so far as that need is fulfilled, industry will gain by a more effective "industrial citizenship," and will itself become more truly educative. Thus increased opportunities for adult education and the stimulus of a freer and finer industrial environment are correlative, and help to develop each other.

SOCIAL CONDITIONS.

Housing and town planning.—In support of its contention that the condition of working-class housing is unsatisfactory as regards both quality and quantity, the committee gives statistics showing that overcrowding is common in Great Britain. Even the best type of workman's dwelling is "only too often" inconvenient in arrangement and lacking in reasonable accommodation, and in the older houses, which are occupied by so large a part of the working population there is little privacy and comfort. But for the pursuit of education a certain amount of privacy, seclusion, and quiet is necessary. The committee points out that in the usual workingman's cottage this can be obtained only after the other members of the household have retired for the night and at the expense of rest and often, eventually, of health.

The fact is emphasized that while housing conditions are bad for the man they are worse for the woman, whose entire day is spent at home. Thus any scheme of housing reform will be of vital importance to the housewife, and the committee expresses the opinion that women should be appointed to any committees that may be constituted for that purpose.

The question of housing is intimately connected with that of town planning. In its report the committee strongly urges that housing schemes be considered in relation to town planning and calls atten-

tion to the fact that hitherto too little attention has been paid to the reaction of the physical environment on the esthetic and moral sense of the people, since "an inspiring environment is a strong educational influence."

Rural conditions.—The problem of the adult education of rural workers was found to be one of considerable complexity. The rural population suffers from special disabilities with regard to educational opportunities and social intercourse. The study developed the fact that the agricultural laborer works long hours, often for seven days a week and, in most cases, without an annual vacation; that he is unorganized and consequently receives very low wages, so low that in the majority of cases "it is true to say that the vitality of the agricultural worker, who is subject to constant muscular strain, has suffered through inadequate feeding." It was also found that in many parts of the country the housing problem is acute, that good libraries are very few, and that religious differences and social cleavages have done much to paralyze social effort.

Because of these conditions the rural worker has hitherto manifested little inclination for work of an educational character. The committee expresses the belief, however, that continuation schools, if properly adapted to the conditions of rural life, would do much to stimulate the rising generation to educational effort.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE COMMITTEE.

The committee summarizes its conclusions on the relation of industrial and social conditions to adult education as follows:

We recommend on educational grounds—

(a) That there should be a general shortening by law of the normal working day and that, subject to the qualifications already suggested in the case of certain industries such as agriculture, it should not be more than eight hours.

(b) That in heavy and exhausting kinds of work, and work accompanied by special disabilities, the maximum legal working day should be shorter than the normal, and that heavy and exhausting occupations should be specially regulated, and wherever possible mechanical devices introduced.

(c) That overtime should be more closely regulated by law and reduced to a minimum.

(d) That where "shift" work continues, the hours should be reduced below those of the normal working day; and that, except where it is absolutely essential, regular night work, whether periodical or continuous, should be prohibited by law.

(e) That efforts should be made to meet the evil effects of monotonous labor by alternating forms of employment, by creating opportunities for the exercise of initiative, and by establishing works committees for the consideration of matters affecting workshop life.

(f) That steps should be taken to guarantee to the worker some reasonable security of livelihood, either by such a reorganization of industry as may prevent or minimize fluctuations in the volume of production, or, where that is impossible, by some extension of the principle of insurance which would protect the wage earner against the ruinous effects of such fluctuations as can not be prevented.

(g) That wage earners should be entitled by law to an annual holiday, with pay; and that the weekly half holiday should be extended by law to the worker in agriculture.

(h) That the preparation of schemes of housing and town planning should be accelerated; that such schemes should be drawn up in consultation with the best expert advice available, and in cooperation with representatives of the people for whom such schemes are intended; and that, particularly, representatives of women, who are the persons most concerned, should be included in the housing and town planning, public health, and other committees dealing with this question.

(i) That adequate washing facilities should be required to be provided in all places of employment where the nature of the work makes it desirable.

(j) That special consideration should be given to the peculiar problems of rural housing.

(k) That a village institute, or at least a hall, should be established in every village under public control.

SOCIO-POLITICAL PROGRAM OF THE GERMAN EMPLOYERS.

The organizations of German employers, says an article in the *Soziale Praxis*,¹ take every opportunity to bring before the public, by means of the press, pamphlets and speeches, their own special point of view in every economic and socio-political question. At every meeting of employers the same ideas of "free" social policy are ventilated. The argument is skillfully adduced how nobly German industry and private enterprise have worked together in the war, and how fervently desired is the abolition of all State control, the motto being "Away with State socialism, and a free course for the fittest." If these expressions of opinion are collected and attention is given to the views of Dr. Tänzler, secretary of the United Employers' Association, the socio-political program of the German Employers' Association may be represented somewhat as follows:

By "social policy" the organized employers understand "the laying down of principles for a suitable standard of living by statute and practice, as well as the encouragement of the individual in his work and his capacity for doing it and the raising of the status of the worker generally by strengthening and enlarging his responsibilities."

Wage policy is, according to the memorandum of Dr. Tänzler, sound, "when it combines the possibility of a competent livelihood for the workers with that of increased prosperity of the undertaking." To grant wages beyond the scale of moderate pretensions would be "to change the undertaking into a charitable institution" and permanently injure the whole business, since no corresponding increase could be put against the higher wages, for which reason "the introduction of a minimum wage postulates a requisite minimum standard of efficiency." On the other hand, more consideration

¹ *Soziale Praxis*. Berlin, Aug. 22, 1918.

than before will be shown to family circumstances and length of service. (This is an important admission in the employers' memorandum.) Maximum working hours and the concession of free half days to weaker persons, women, and juveniles are to be recognized, but the universal introduction of such measures would infringe on the principles of economic policy directed toward maximum productivity.

High and steadily increasing wages are not, however, the only desideratum in social policy; no less important are measures to secure that the wages be profitably and suitably expended on housing and domestic requirements, and employers of labor should cooperate with the communities and the State in this object. All legislative enactments which deal with the safety of the workers in industrial establishments are to be carried out effectively. The united body of employers will gladly promote the physical and mental development and will give advice as to the choice of trade, apprenticeships, and vocational training. The existing principles of social insurance must be upheld and any unnecessary details eliminated. The frequently advocated insurance against unemployment is deprecated, since no hands need be left idle, and the unemployed should be given work, not pensions.

This somewhat tardy recognition by the employers of the principles which should obtain in the labor world is the best justification of the attitude taken hitherto by German social reformers. However closely the views of the employers in this respect tally with those of the social reformers, they diverge where the personal rights of the worker are concerned.

The socio-political program of the United Employers' Association demands complete right of organization for all employees and employers. All organizations are to have equal rights. "A strike is no comparison of right, but a test of might, which must be settled." There should, therefore, be no compulsion brought to bear on external bodies to make them participate. Employers will in their own interests avoid disputes. Labor ought to have its wishes represented in the undertaking.

The abandonment of the right to strike in certain works of national importance demands fresh safeguarding of the interests of the workers. The ultimate aim of the employers' appeal for freedom is evident from other announcements.

The national auxiliary service law, with its social regulations, "especially the conciliation boards and judgment offices" must be done away with; so also "equal representation." This has been advocated at many meetings. "It is in the national interest that the employers' information offices be supported, since they constitute the best guaranty that the employee fills the position most suitable

to him, and that the employer possesses the powers which he wishes, and accordingly the conditions of labor are permanent."

Dr. Tänzler gave full expression to the view that the labor rights claimed by the workmen must be opposed by employers' rights based on the principles of liberty.

The employer must not be restricted by statute in his choice of employees and in his power of discharging them. This applies to the engagement of disabled soldiers, in which matter the employer must be left complete freedom of action. In public contracts the employer is to have the benefit of the strike clause. So, also, no compulsion is to be applied to employers who consider collective wage agreements injurious to their establishments or industry.

"The goal of our economic policy, i. e., the greatest possible productivity, can not be reached except by assuring the liberty of development for private industrial enterprise" is the predominant idea in all the program of the United Employers' Association. There is an element of truth in this notion, but much depends on practical developments and applications. Critical investigation of this socio-political program issued by the employers shows that for the greatest possible productivity are needed free and enthusiastic workers no less than free and enterprising employers. Such a body of labor will not exist in Germany until "freedom" in all relations of labor exists in equal measure for employee and employer and the just claims of social solidarity are upheld.

RECONSTRUCTION PROGRAM OF THE ITALIAN SUPERIOR LABOR COUNCIL.

The permanent committee of the Superior Labor-Council of Italy presented recently its report on the most important steps to be taken in the transition period.¹ Its proposals may be summarized as follows:

1. The increase of national production is the basis of all preparation for the economic reconstruction of the country in the transition period, and for this are required: (a) The coordination of all national energies; (b) the financial policy which realizes the difficulties inseparable from the abnormal war conditions; (c) the prompt carrying out of necessary public works; (d) the careful transformation of war industries into peace industries; (e) the constitution of a domain of public lands; (f) the regulation of emigration of workers.

2. Legislation is demanded for the satisfactory protection of labor, in addition to health measures, for the development of co-

¹ Italy, Ministero per l'Industria, il Commercio e il Lavoro. Bollettino dell' ufficio del Lavoro. Vol. VI, No. 15. Rome, Aug. 1, 1918.

operation in every form, and for the welfare generally of working classes. Every step should be taken to raise the economic and political status of labor which must have a direct share in the Government and in production, thus acquiring personal interests in the country and the nation as a whole.

A scheme of general and technical education, liberally supported, should form the basis of a program of intensive production and social legislation.

3. The State must adopt an industrial and commercial policy which, unshackled by adherence to any system of protection to the prejudice of the consumer, will safeguard production in the interests of consumers, towards which end powerful assistance can be lent by cooperation.

4. The representatives of capital and labor ought to be allowed to exercise direct influence upon transition economics.

INDUSTRIES AND AGRICULTURE.

The Superior Labor Council recognizes the importance of a good supply of raw materials after the war, and since that supply should be provided by the State, calls the attention of the Government to the urgency of the program. As to agriculture, the council expresses the following wishes.

1. That a proportion of the munition factories ought to be devoted to the production of nitrates as fertilizers, using the atmosphere as the source of nitrogen, and to the manufacture of agricultural machinery, more especially motor plows, rendered so necessary since the war, owing to the shortage of draft animals.

2. That in order to encourage and stimulate the growth of food-stuffs at home premiums should be offered to the most successful cultivators of cereals.

3. That any draft animals in excess of the army requirements should be allotted to agriculturists direct.

4. That home colonization be promoted by taking measures to stamp out malaria and extending the laws for the cultivation of unpopulated parts of Italy, and that where necessary, new villages, aqueducts, etc., be constructed.

The idea of a large domain of public lands should be developed and the extensive cultivation of such domain be encouraged by subsidies and loans on easy terms. For the execution of these plans, the council considers it will be necessary to pass social agrarian laws by which the public lands may be granted to cooperative societies of workers or to individuals. Legislation also will be desirable to secure the interests of the small proprietors. A reform in the civil code is required to remove the glaring contrasts between the rights

of ownership and the ultimate interests of the community, and no delay in carrying out operations necessary for the development of agriculture should be caused through the opposition of individual proprietors.

PUBLIC WORKS.

In regard to this question, the council advocates the following measures:

1. A vigorous policy should be adopted to carry out forthwith the most urgent works—highways, railways, waterways, buildings, especially schools, etc.

2. Systematic methods should be initiated for constructing in the country itself the largest possible amount of what is required for the public services—ships, engines, tractors, railroad cars, etc.

3. Encouragement should be offered to all hydroelectrical works for production of power for traction, illumination, etc. Special attention should be devoted to the fullest utilization of mountain streams for power purposes and irrigation.

MEANING OF RECONSTRUCTION.¹

The purpose of this book, which is a reprint of a series of essays which appeared in *The Athenæum*, is not to formulate a program or offer suggestions upon the complex practical problems Great Britain will need to face at the close of the war, but rather to consider the real purpose of reconstruction in its broader aspects. Running through all the essays is the idea of differentiating between the two schools of thought upon reconstruction—the materialistic, which is mainly concerned with the material benefits to be found in increased output, better wages, industrial peace, commercial supremacy, etc., and one which might be called the spiritual idea, which would seek to make the country a land of truth, righteousness, and freedom, thereby justifying the sacrifices the men and women of the country have made in the name of these principles.

The author considers that an unparalleled opportunity will be offered at the close of the war to cast away customs, traditions, and institutions which have lost their value and which persist because of inertia, privilege, or vested interests and to substitute for them political, social, and economic systems which are in accord with the ideals of the present age. He warns, however, that it will be necessary to be ready with a definite sense of direction and a clear purpose or false ideals and standards may be set up and the opportunity lost.

¹ *The Meaning of Reconstruction*, by Demos. The Athenæum Literature Department, 10 Adelphi Terrace, London, 1918. 75 pp. Price, 1s. net.

That it may not be possible to come within measurable distance of the goal does not absolve the Nation from responsibilities.

In spite of the strong political sense of the Anglo-Saxon people and the many democratic institutions to be found in England, still the country suffers from great social distinctions which, however, have been in a measure leveled by the war, and the author urges that this new unity should become a permanent reality with opportunities for full development to every individual, and that as against the old individualistic doctrine of the rights of man must be set the principle of the new freedom—the responsibilities of man. This idea is stressed further in the chapter on "Education and the Social Ideal," in which the need is shown for education which shall be open to all, irrespective of accidental circumstances, such as professional requirements or the possession of wealth.

Reconstruction is a series of related problems—international, imperial, national, local—each aspect as important and as fundamental as the others. International reconstruction must be dealt with first, because a settlement of the war which leaves the real issues untouched will lead to further armaments instead of to the league of nations, which the author believes should be a league of democratic States, since international cooperation is altogether foreign to the spirit of autocracies. This plan would bar the central empires from admission until such time as they become democratic States. The league of nations, he believes, also should not be concerned solely with the avoidance of war but also with world problems, such as the relations between the different races and the development of the material resources of the world.

He compares the British Empire, which is essentially pacific and democratic, with the militaristic German Empire, and states that "empire based upon dominion is to-day an impossibility; instead there must be a commonwealth based upon the willing consent of the governed and upon the widening area of responsibility until all its constituent parts are self-governing units in a free partnership."

In conclusion, in the new industrial order he wishes to see, instead of production for wealth's sake, a new spirit in industry which shall transform industry "into a public service from the point of view of the community, and into a profession from the point of view of the producer," this system to be based upon industrial self-government. "The reconstruction of industry, therefore, is not an economic problem; it is a moral problem, to be solved, not by the expansion of markets, or by cheapening costs of production, but by giving industry an ideal, a charter of liberty, and a clearly conceived social purpose."

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES.

The increase in the retail price of all articles of food combined, for the United States on September 15, 1918, as compared with August 15, 1918, was 4 per cent. Of the 28 articles for which prices are secured by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, only two declined in price: Onions, 9 per cent and beans 1 per cent. Butter, eggs, pork chops, and ham show the greatest increases. Sirloin steak, rib roast, and chuck roast increased less than five-tenths of 1 per cent. Lamb, bread, flour, and potatoes show no change in price. The table following gives the average money price and the per cent of increase or decrease of each of the articles:

AVERAGE MONEY RETAIL PRICES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, SEPT. 15, 1918, COMPARED WITH SEPT. 15, 1917, AND AUG. 15, 1918.

Article.	Unit.	Average money price—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (—) Sept. 15, 1918, compared with—	
		Sept. 15, 1917.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1917.	Aug. 15, 1918.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound....	\$0.333	\$0.415	\$0.417	+25	(1)
Round steak.....	do.....	.296	.396	.398	+34	+ 1
Rib roast.....	do.....	.259	.326	.327	+26	(1)
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.218	.283	.284	+30	(1)
Plate beef.....	do.....	.163	.217	.219	+34	+ 1
Pork chops.....	do.....	.388	.422	.461	+19	+ 9
Bacon.....	do.....	.442	.540	.562	+27	+ 4
Ham.....	do.....	.409	.485	.519	+27	+ 7
Lard.....	do.....	.296	.331	.336	+14	+ 2
Lamb.....	do.....	.314	.369	.369	+18	(2)
Hens.....	do.....	.302	.386	.394	+30	+ 2
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.277	.302	.305	+10	+ 1
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.525	.536	.586	+12	+ 9
Butter.....	Pound.....	.496	.539	.592	+19	+10
Cheese.....	do.....	.335	.346	.360	+ 7	+ 4
Milk.....	Quart.....	.118	.136	.143	+21	+ 5
Bread.....	Pound ³099	.099	.099	(2)	(2)
Flour.....	Pound.....	.073	.068	.068	- 7	(2)
Corn meal.....	do.....	.082	.068	.069	-16	+ 1
Rice.....	do.....	.108	.134	.137	+27	+ 2
Potatoes.....	do.....	.030	.039	.039	+13	(2)
Onions.....	do.....	.046	.055	.050	+ 9	- 9
Beans, navy.....	do.....	.188	.171	.169	-10	- 1
Prunes.....	do.....	.163	.171	.174	+ 7	+ 2
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....	.148	.153	.154	+ 4	+ 1
Sugar.....	do.....	.098	.093	.096	- 2	+ 3
Coffee.....	do.....	.305	.301	.303	- 1	+ 1
Tea.....	do.....	.612	.658	.664	+ 8	+ 1
All articles combined.....					+16	+ 4

¹ Increase of less than five-tenths of 1 per cent.

² No change in price.

³ Baked weight.

Comparing September 15, 1918, with September 15, 1917, the increase of all articles combined was 16 per cent. In this year period, round steak and plate boiling beef show the greatest increases, 34 per cent each. Hens and chuck roast show the next highest increases, 30 per cent each. There was no change in the price of bread as compared with a year ago. Corn meal, beans, flour, sugar, and coffee were cheaper in September, 1918, than in September, 1917.

AVERAGE MONEY RETAIL PRICES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, SEPT. 15 OF EACH SPECIFIED YEAR COMPARED WITH SEPT. 15, 1913.

Article.	Unit.	Average money price Sept. 15—						Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) Sept. 15 of each specified year compared with Sept. 15, 1913.				
		1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
Sirloin steak.....	Pound..	\$0.262	\$0.270	\$0.265	\$0.284	\$0.333	\$0.417	+ 3	+ 1	+ 8	+ 27	+ 59
Round steak.....	do.....	.233	.247	.238	.257	.296	.398	+ 6	+ 2	+10	+ 27	+ 71
Rib roast.....	do.....	.199	.208	.204	.218	.259	.327	+ 5	+ 3	+10	+ 30	+ 64
Chuck roast.....	do.....		.179	.165	.177	.218	.284					
Plate beef.....	do.....		.131	.123	.131	.163	.219					
Pork chops.....	do.....	.227	.236	.225	.261	.388	.461	+ 4	- 1	+15	+ 71	+103
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	.281	.290	.270	.296	.442	.562	+ 3	- 4	+ 5	+ 57	+100
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	.282	.291	.262	.332	.409	.519	+ 3	- 7	+18	+ 45	+ 84
Lard.....	do.....	.161	.156	.138	.222	.296	.336	- 3	- 3	+38	+ 84	+109
Lamb.....	do.....	.187	.197	.201	.233	.314	.369	+ 5	+ 7	+25	+ 68	+ 97
Hens.....	do.....	.215	.219	.208	.243	.302	.394	+ 2	- 3	+13	+ 40	+ 83
Salmon, canned.....	do.....			.198	.202	.277	.305					
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.375	.368	.349	.413	.525	.586	- 2	- 7	+10	+ 40	+ 56
Butter.....	Pound.....	.378	.378	.335	.390	.496	.592	(1)	-11	+ 3	+ 31	+ 57
Cheese.....	do.....		.227	.227	.230	.335	.360					
Milk.....	Quart.....	.089	.089	.088	.091	.118	.143	(1)	- 1	+ 2	+ 33	+ 61
Bread.....	Pound ²056	.064	.070	.077	.099	.099	+14	+25	+38	+ 77	+ 77
Flour.....	Pound.....	.033	.037	.038	.048	.073	.068	+12	+15	+45	+121	+106
Corn meal.....	do.....	.031	.033	.033	.034	.082	.069	+ 6	+ 6	+10	+165	+123
Rice.....	do.....		.091	.091	.091	.108	.137					
Potatoes.....	do.....	.019	.018	.014	.028	.030	.039	- 5	-26	+47	+ 58	+105
Onions.....	do.....		.030	.046	.046	.050	.050					
Beans, navy.....	do.....		.076	.121	.188	.169	.169					
Prunes.....	do.....		.135	.134	.163	.174	.154					
Raisins.....	do.....		.125	.129	.148	.154	.154					
Sugar.....	do.....	.057	.079	.065	.077	.098	.096	+39	+14	+35	+ 72	+ 68
Coffee.....	do.....		.299	.299	.305	.303	.303					
Tea.....	do.....		.546	.546	.612	.664	.664					
All articles combined.....								+ 4	- 2	+14	+ 48	+ 72

¹ No change in price.

² Baked weight.

The five-year period, September 15, 1913, to September 15, 1918, shows, for the United States, an increase of 72 per cent for all food combined. Every article for which prices have been secured for this period shows an increase of 56 per cent or over. Six articles show increases of 100 per cent or over: Bacon, 100 per cent; pork chops, 103 per cent; potatoes, 105 per cent; flour, 106 per cent; lard, 109 per cent; and corn meal, 123 per cent. In the table above are shown these and other changes.

RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD ON AUG. 15, AND SEPT. 15, 1918, AND ON SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1915, 1916, AND 1917.

[The relative price shows the per cent that the average price on the 15th of each month is of the average price for the year 1913.]

Article.	Unit.	1918		Sept. 15—				
		Aug. 15	Sept. 15	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	163	164	103	107	104	111	131
Round steak.....	do.....	178	178	104	110	106	115	133
Rib roast.....	do.....	165	165	101	105	103	110	131
Pork chops.....	do.....	201	220	108	113	107	125	185
Bacon.....	do.....	200	208	104	108	100	110	164
Ham.....	do.....	180	193	104	108	97	123	152
Lard.....	do.....	209	213	102	99	88	141	188
Hens.....	do.....	181	185	101	103	97	113	142
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	155	170	109	107	101	120	152
Butter.....	Pound.....	141	155	98	98	88	102	129
Milk.....	Quart.....	153	161	100	100	99	102	132
Bread.....	Pound ¹	174	174	100	114	124	136	176
Flour.....	Pound.....	206	206	100	113	117	148	223
Corn meal.....	do.....	227	230	102	109	108	113	272
Potatoes.....	do.....	229	229	110	105	79	161	172
Sugar.....	do.....	169	175	104	145	118	141	179
All articles combined.....		171	178	102	107	101	118	153

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 19 SELECTED CITIES FOR SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, AND AUG. 15, 1918.

[The 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.	Atlanta, Ga.					Baltimore, Md.				
		Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
		1913	1914	1917			1913	1914	1917		
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	\$0.240	\$0.283	\$0.312	\$0.396	\$0.406	\$0.250	\$0.248	\$0.334	\$0.465	\$0.461
Round steak.....	do.....	.215	.241	.281	.365	.371	.230	.238	.319	.457	.456
Rib roast.....	do.....	.196	.199	.237	.313	.314	.190	.198	.259	.366	.364
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.160	.168	.203	.259	.273	.160	.162	.225	.313	.312
Plate beef.....	do.....		.105	.154	.218	.212		.139	.171	.242	.242
Pork chops.....	do.....	.240	.248	.373	.424	.456	.220	.217	.395	.460	.504
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	.331	.325	.439	.578	.589	.265	.260	.454	.513	.559
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	.310	.326	.413	.509	.525	.320	.320	.445	.543	.572
Lard.....	do.....	.158	.161	.294	.340	.347	.153	.148	.299	.324	.337
Lamb.....	do.....	.200	.210	.324	.371	.389	.193	.193	.326	.416	.409
Hens.....	do.....	.205	.211	.288	.353	.377	.218	.211	.315	.427	.427
Salmon, canned.....	do.....				.256	.247			.254	.268	.275
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.337	.333	.475	.498	.538	.347	.323	.491	.499	.574
Butter.....	Pound.....	.397	.387	.531	.579	.605	.386	.386	.528	.563	.617
Cheese.....	do.....			.341	.350	.361			.350	.353	.369
Milk.....	Quart.....	.100	.106	.150	.200	.200	.087	.087	.117	.130	.160
Bread.....	Pound ¹059	.059	.101	.100	.100	.055	.057	.089	.097	.097
Flour.....	Pound.....	.034	.036	.072	.071	.070	.032	.037	.075	.069	.071
Corn meal.....	do.....	.027	.028	.061	.057	.057	.025	.027	.063	.065	.065
Rice.....	do.....			.104	.139	.142			.110	.130	.135
Potatoes.....	do.....	.023	.022	.033	.051	.050	.018	.018	.028	.042	.043
Onions.....	do.....			.055	.065	.063			.052	.055	.060
Beans, navy.....	do.....			.188	.188	.187			.180	.178	.177
Prunes.....	do.....			.176	.185	.186			.164	.174	.178
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....			.150	.156	.172			.145	.156	.155
Sugar.....	do.....	.059	.080	.104	.094	.094	.052	.073	.092	.090	.091
Coffee.....	do.....			.285	.296	.311			.279	.284	.285
Tea.....	do.....			.753	.881	.897			.638	.685	.702

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 19 SELECTED CITIES FOR SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, AND AUG. 15, 1918—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Birmingham, Ala.					Boston, Mass.				
		Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
		1913	1914	1917			1913	1914	1917		
Sirloin steak	Pound	\$0.281	\$0.294	\$0.350	\$0.414	\$0.420	\$0.358	\$0.400	\$0.464	\$0.575	\$0.590
Round steak	do	.225	.244	.316	.387	.385	.356	.377	.467	.580	.583
Rib roast	do	.206	.213	.262	.335	.338	.256	.257	.327	.410	.403
Chuck roast	do	.175	.212	.295	.293195	.273	.339	.349
Plate beef	do125	.165	.226	.236
Pork chops	do	.214	.244	.377	.387	.437	.250	.248	.405	.475	.493
Bacon, sliced	do	.350	.363	.491	.546	.601	.258	.268	.439	.510	.515
Ham, sliced	do	.325	.350	.427	.474	.510	.320	.350	.447	.515	.536
Lard	do	.153	.157	.293	.324	.326	.158	.154	.295	.332	.342
Lamb	do	.233	.225	.333	.393	.388	.205	.228	.346	.386	.395
Hens	do	.180	.185	.266	.326	.342	.262	.260	.329	.438	.437
Salmon, canned	do267	.302	.300294	.322	.320
Eggs	Dozen	.326	.340	.489	.487	.530	.471	.459	.652	.671	.743
Butter	Pound	.388	.400	.540	.563	.602	.374	.372	.512	.532	.558
Cheese	do	.103	.104	.152	.160	.169	.089	.089	.130	.150	.150
Milk	Quart.	.054	.056	.105	.115	.111	.059	.060	.096	.091	.092
Bread	Pound	.035	.036	.074	.071	.070	.037	.042	.078	.068	.069
Flour	Pound	.025	.027	.057	.056	.056	.035	.038	.075	.073	.075
Corn meal	do120	.140	.142	.142112	.131	.134
Rice	do	.022	.023	.037	.047	.047	.017	.017	.027	.041	.038
Potatoes	do056	.057	.055057	.068	.051
Onions	do197	.185	.184184	.176	.178
Beans, navy	do163	.160	.162167	.173	.181
Prunes	do164	.153	.158150	.150	.154
Raisins, seeded	do102	.090	.095056	.080	.097	.092	.100
Sugar	do	.058	.081324	.320340	.340	.366
Coffee	do762	.796	.810652	.640	.653
Tea	do
		Buffalo, N. Y.					Chicago, Ill.				
Sirloin steak	do	\$0.233	\$0.242	\$0.318	\$0.410	\$0.406	\$0.243	\$0.267	\$0.315	\$0.377	\$0.386
Round steak	do	.198	.218	.298	.386	.383	.214	.236	.281	.349	.359
Rib roast	do	.170	.180	.251	.316	.317	.203	.217	.258	.314	.326
Chuck roast	do166	.218	.283	.282181	.220	.278	.287
Plate beef	do130	.173	.226	.230129	.165	.210	.216
Pork chops	do	.230	.240	.415	.459	.466	.218	.220	.374	.388	.426
Bacon, sliced	do	.233	.232	.433	.517	.523	.326	.331	.476	.564	.577
Ham, sliced	do	.280	.290	.425	.509	.509	.322	.341	.439	.505	.517
Lard	do	.144	.140	.286	.314	.323	.150	.152	.283	.321	.326
Lamb	do	.153	.167	.283	.339	.341	.199	.203	.320	.354	.362
Hens	do	.210	.216	.314	.401	.402	.192	.207	.294	.357	.368
Salmon, canned	do263	.278	.280283	.306	.313
Eggs	Dozen	.338	.356	.536	.540	.614	.304	.298	.465	.478	.521
Butter	Pound	.358	.367	.493	.514	.579	.353	.340	.484	.490	.575
Cheese	do325	.326	.338344	.357	.376
Milk	Quart.	.080	.080	.110	.140	.140	.080	.080	.100	.124	.130
Bread	Pound	.056	.052	.097	.100	.100	.061	.070	.105	.102	.102
Flour	Pound	.030	.036	.069	.063	.063	.029	.034	.069	.065	.065
Corn meal	do	.026	.027	.062	.065	.064	.028	.028	.065	.068	.068
Rice	do106	.126	.129103	.127	.133
Potatoes	do	.020	.017	.029	.037	.037	.018	.017	.027	.035	.032
Onions	do056	.051	.043039	.045	.042
Beans, navy	do185	.164	.163183	.169	.166
Prunes	do150	.176	.183159	.172	.172
Raisins, seeded	do130	.140	.139147	.150	.152
Sugar	do	.056	.080	.095	.091	.093	.052	.075	.091	.089	.090
Coffee	do286	.296	.296284	.279	.283
Tea	do496	.608	.616564	.575	.598

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 19 SELECTED CITIES FOR SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, AND AUG. 15, 1918—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Cleveland, Ohio.					Denver, Colo.				
		Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918	Sept. 15, 1918	Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918	Sept. 15, 1918
		1913	1914	1917			1913	1914	1917		
Sirloin steak.....	Pound..	\$0.254	\$0.267	\$0.312	\$0.388	\$0.385	\$0.243	\$0.243	\$0.317	\$0.390	\$0.381
Round steak.....	do.....	.229	.237	.291	.365	.361	.214	.231	.283	.363	.354
Rib roast.....	do.....	.189	.199	.238	.299	.295	.178	.181	.239	.291	.293
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.177	.177	.214	.278	.275168	.206	.253	.262
Plate beef.....	do.....	.124	.124	.158	.205	.205107	.140	.180	.181
Pork chops.....	do.....	.244	.243	.415	.448	.493	.204	.229	.399	.414	.440
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	.296	.305	.452	.521	.542	.290	.305	.480	.569	.588
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	.373	.350	.421	.510	.538	.333	.333	.464	.525	.540
Lard.....	do.....	.164	.163	.302	.329	.337	.165	.158	.310	.325	.339
Lamb.....	do.....	.187	.211	.308	.363	.352	.160	.160	.302	.357	.348
Hens.....	do.....	.219	.226	.327	.404	.403	.197	.212	.285	.360	.354
Salmon, canned.....	do.....262	.293	.295275	.288	.294
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.368	.361	.542	.539	.599	.321	.343	.493	.498	.542
Butter.....	Pound.....	.383	.385	.516	.538	.612	.386	.346	.494	.500	.580
Cheese.....	do.....332	.336	.348352	.358	.372
Milk.....	Quart.....	.080	.080	.120	.130	.140	.084	.084	.115	.112	.118
Bread.....	Pound ¹056	.057	.101	.100	.100	.055	.056	.102	.120	.120
Flour.....	Pound.....	.032	.039	.073	.070	.068	.026	.031	.058	.060	.060
Corn meal.....	do.....	.029	.034	.069	.066	.067	.026	.027	.059	.060	.069
Rice.....	do.....106	.132	.141113	.142	.145
Potatoes.....	do.....	.020	.019	.029	.041	.041	.018	.016	.025	.038	.034
Onions.....	do.....049	.057	.046039	.049	.046
Beans, navy.....	do.....186	.153	.148191	.159	.162
Prunes.....	do.....165	.173	.172183	.176	.178
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....143	.149	.144145	.147	.147
Sugar.....	do.....	.056	.082	.098	.093	.094	.059	.079	.095	.096	.104
Coffee.....	do.....294	.294	.297304	.304	.304
Tea.....	do.....565	.632	.636572	.610	.621
		Detroit, Mich.					Los Angeles, Cal.				
Sirloin steak.....	do.....	\$0.263	\$0.249	\$0.313	\$0.390	\$0.393	\$0.240	\$0.243	\$0.272	\$0.329	\$0.328
Round steak.....	do.....	.210	.218	.283	.360	.361	.210	.213	.246	.311	.315
Rib roast.....	do.....	.200	.195	.252	.308	.305	.196	.199	.229	.292	.294
Chuck roast.....	do.....164	.205	.268	.264158	.181	.234	.240
Plate beef.....	do.....122	.161	.211	.213127	.149	.194	.197
Pork chops.....	do.....	.223	.226	.403	.415	.469	.254	.269	.363	.425	.445
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	.247	.257	.448	.522	.545	.331	.357	.490	.613	.635
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	.270	.300	.425	.522	.536	.358	.378	.471	.572	.596
Lard.....	do.....	.169	.157	.303	.332	.335	.179	.171	.289	.336	.337
Lamb.....	do.....	.160	.185	.316	.360	.367	.188	.187	.285	.329	.333
Hens.....	do.....	.205	.216	.331	.394	.404	.262	.270	.277	.364	.400
Salmon, canned.....	do.....289	.313	.300257	.372	.387
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.320	.317	.511	.533	.582	.463	.428	.533	.569	.659
Butter.....	Pound.....	.359	.365	.497	.514	.588	.435	.369	.499	.580	.599
Cheese.....	do.....329	.338	.356332	.353	.372
Milk.....	Quart.....	.080	.080	.120	.140	.148	.100	.100	.120	.140	.140
Bread.....	Pound ¹056	.060	.090	.095	.095	.060	.064	.091	.093	.092
Flour.....	Pound.....	.031	.037	.071	.069	.069	.035	.040	.068	.071	.071
Corn meal.....	do.....	.028	.034	.072	.072	.070	.033	.039	.069	.077	.076
Rice.....	do.....113	.133	.136103	.136	.138
Potatoes.....	do.....	.019	.017	.028	.038	.037	.017	.012	.031	.033	.038
Onions.....	do.....048	.054	.051028	.042	.043
Beans, navy.....	do.....190	.151	.150172	.167	.165
Prunes.....	do.....170	.182	.180161	.177	.178
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....140	.152	.150144	.140	.141
Sugar.....	do.....057	.081	.099	.095	.057	.078	.090	.089	.095
Coffee.....	do.....310	.304	.301323	.304	.304
Tea.....	do.....559	.577	.587589	.645	.650

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 19 SELECTED CITIES FOR SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, AND AUG. 15, 1918—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Milwaukee, Wis.					New Orleans, La.				
		Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
		1913	1914	1917			1913	1914	1917		
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.	\$0.236	\$0.250	\$0.300	\$0.373	\$0.373	\$0.225	\$0.230	\$0.277	\$0.332	\$0.325
Round steak.....	do.	.216	.227	.281	.358	.358	.185	.204	.242	.300	.302
Rib roast.....	do.	.192	.195	.240	.291	.298	.175	.193	.232	.291	.293
Chuck roast.....	do.175	.219	.269	.275149	.181	.218	.226
Plate beef.....	do.161	.204	.208128	.153	.187	.192
Pork chops.....	do.	.286	.297	.452	.387	.423	.250	.292	.368	.416	.474
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.216	.223	.383	.527	.544	.321	.331	.488	.555	.589
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.290	.302	.418	.432	.502	.288	.300	.397	.457	.480
Lard.....	do.	.158	.163	.294	.331	.335	.151	.147	.281	.329	.333
Lamb.....	do.	.205	.204	.321	.369	.352	.200	.222	.316	.361	.376
Hens.....	do.	.198	.202	.297	.359	.366	.225	.219	.300	.364	.391
Salmon, canned.....	do.266	.289	.295285	.324	.328
Eggs.....	Dozen.	.300	.317	.454	.474	.497	.320	.335	.443	.484	.527
Butter.....	Pound.	.348	.355	.485	.501	.584	.368	.379	.505	.526	.568
Cheese.....	do.331	.341	.357330	.343	.355
Milk.....	Quart.	.070	.070	.090	.110	.120	.095	.097	.116	.142	.148
Bread.....	Pound ¹ .	.057	.062	.105	.092	.092	.051	.053	.086	.095	.096
Flour.....	Pound.	.031	.033	.073	.067	.066	.038	.040	.079	.073	.073
Corn meal.....	do.	.033	.036	.080	.061	.069	.029	.031	.072	.066	.066
Rice.....	do.113	.141	.144101	.123	.124
Potatoes.....	do.	.015	.018	.029	.035	.034	.023	.024	.039	.039	.045
Onions.....	do.046	.052	.047035	.054	.048
Beans, navy.....	do.188	.149	.151171	.160	.162
Prunes.....	do.159	.155	.157174	.171	.179
Raisins, seeded.....	do.150	.148	.148154	.157	.166
Sugar.....	do.	.055	.078	.094	.093	.096	.054	.081	.097	.090	.093
Coffee.....	do.273	.268	.266266	.251	.249
Tea.....	do.599	.633	.623615	.613	.625
		New York, N. Y.					Philadelphia, Pa.				
Sirloin steak.....	do.	\$0.264	\$0.280	\$0.368	\$0.448	\$0.463	\$0.317	\$0.324	\$0.402	\$0.513	\$0.534
Round steak.....	do.	.257	.278	.368	.467	.480	.271	.297	.374	.482	.497
Rib roast.....	do.	.215	.232	.298	.376	.387	.223	.235	.295	.392	.393
Chuck roast.....	do.176	.235	.311	.323193	.258	.335	.348
Plate beef.....	do.161	.211	.286	.290124	.171	.230	.237
Pork chops.....	do.	.230	.249	.394	.423	.477	.232	.235	.403	.456	.510
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.262	.268	.440	.519	.548	.282	.291	.447	.542	.568
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.212	.220	.300	.532	.574	.326	.328	.470	.545	.572
Lard.....	do.	.163	.162	.294	.325	.335	.159	.160	.303	.330	.336
Lamb.....	do.	.153	.170	.295	.331	.333	.197	.197	.335	.392	.401
Hens.....	do.	.213	.226	.316	.407	.413	.229	.241	.327	.433	.443
Salmon, canned.....	do.332	.354	.345251	.278	.283
Eggs.....	Dozen.	.442	.415	.592	.609	.657	.397	.376	.531	.550	.603
Butter.....	Pound.	.374	.381	.507	.521	.599	.425	.429	.559	.586	.637
Cheese.....	do.338	.335	.343355	.367	.370
Milk.....	Quart.	.090	.090	.124	.140	.140	.080	.080	.110	.120	.130
Bread.....	Pound ¹ .	.060	.062	.099	.099	.099	.048	.048	.089	.095	.095
Flour.....	Pound.	.032	.038	.079	.074	.073	.032	.039	.076	.070	.070
Corn meal.....	do.	.034	.036	.076	.078	.078	.027	.029	.066	.070	.069
Rice.....	do.107	.134	.136112	.144	.147
Potatoes.....	do.	.025	.022	.033	.038	.038	.022	.020	.035	.041	.043
Onions.....	do.050	.063	.053054	.066	.054
Beans, navy.....	do.185	.174	.174182	.171	.168
Prunes.....	do.164	.185	.189157	.177	.182
Raisins, seeded.....	do.145	.150	.151138	.144	.147
Sugar.....	do.	.051	.071	.092	.088	.098	.050	.076	.091	.089	.097
Coffee.....	do.256	.280	.277277	.273	.267
Tea.....	do.536	.542	.536583	.598	.586

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 19 SELECTED CITIES FOR SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, AND AUG. 15, 1918—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Pittsburgh, Pa.					St. Louis, Mo.				
		Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
		1913	1914	1917			1913	1914	1917		
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.	\$0.277	\$0.293	\$0.365	\$0.467	\$0.480	\$0.260	\$0.275	\$0.308	\$0.380	\$0.381
Round steak.....	do.	.247	.263	.337	.437	.443	.243	.253	.307	.376	.377
Rib roast.....	do.	.222	.230	.279	.357	.362	.195	.200	.253	.307	.303
Chuck roast.....	do.187	.242	.315	.320161	.214	.257	.260
Plate beef.....	do.133	.170	.229	.231126	.163	.206	.209
Pork chops.....	do.	.252	.248	.403	.444	.490	.210	.214	.382	.406	.437
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.304	.311	.462	.557	.591	.275	.270	.463	.503	.537
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.316	.325	.453	.544	.579	.273	.275	.439	.502	.529
Lard.....	do.	.157	.155	.308	.327	.336	.143	.132	.291	.304	.314
Lamb.....	do.	.200	.213	.353	.386	.392	.183	.193	.296	.346	.337
Hens.....	do.	.258	.250	.371	.441	.453	.171	.183	.271	.341	.336
Salmon, canned.....	do.297	.320	.316277	.298	.314
Eggs.....	Dozen.	.348	.326	.509	.531	.575	.273	.281	.459	.466	.511
Butter.....	Pound.	.393	.388	.517	.540	.610	.368	.365	.509	.538	.600
Cheese.....	do.338	.358	.371340	.358	.365
Milk.....	Quart.	.081	.090	.125	.130	.140	.090	.088	.110	.140	.140
Bread.....	Pound ¹	.055	.054	.104	.098	.097	.055	.057	.106	.100	.100
Flour.....	Pound.	.032	.039	.075	.067	.068	.029	.036	.066	.065	.065
Corn meal.....	do.	.028	.032	.079	.071	.075	.025	.026	.065	.061	.061
Rice.....	do.106	.140	.141100	.134	.139
Potatoes.....	do.	.021	.017	.030	.039	.040	.020	.019	.028	.034	.036
Onions.....	do.050	.059	.055043	.051	.048
Beans, navy.....	do.184	.170	.172191	.169	.160
Prunes.....	do.162	.179	.189169	.176	.177
Raisins, seeded.....	do.147	.147	.148170	.164	.163
Sugar.....	do.	.058	.083	.099	.094	.098	.055	.077	.093	.094	.096
Coffee.....	do.303	.296	.298280	.277	.274
Tea.....	do.693	.752	.758617	.687	.680
		San Francisco, Cal.					Seattle, Wash.				
Sirloin steak.....	do.	\$0.213	\$0.207	\$0.230	\$0.316	\$0.326	\$0.240	\$0.230	\$0.264	\$0.362	\$0.366
Round steak.....	do.	.197	.200	.225	.310	.320	.207	.206	.250	.343	.351
Rib roast.....	do.	.211	.217	.226	.300	.301	.193	.188	.218	.313	.305
Chuck roast.....	do.155	.159	.228	.234146	.178	.254	.254
Plate beef.....	do.150	.154	.210	.217120	.150	.207	.211
Pork chops.....	do.	.237	.262	.335	.430	.442	.243	.246	.401	.445	.482
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.344	.350	.470	.583	.587	.325	.350	.494	.581	.595
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.330	.350	.456	.503	.543	.300	.320	.410	.519	.538
Lard.....	do.	.187	.177	.290	.341	.329	.176	.160	.285	.336	.339
Lamb.....	do.	.165	.183	.274	.338	.339	.193	.181	.269	.357	.360
Hens.....	do.	.242	.245	.291	.405	.431	.233	.220	.262	.394	.382
Salmon, canned.....	do.245	.273	.278269	.299	.307
Eggs.....	Dozen.	.464	.458	.538	.573	.671	.433	.438	.528	.599	.698
Butter.....	Pound.	.429	.379	.530	.586	.632	.400	.401	.530	.592	.627
Cheese.....	do.316	.338	.366308	.333	.348
Milk.....	Quart.	.100	.100	.121	.121	.140	.086	.087	.120	.140	.145
Bread.....	Pound ¹	.059	.060	.093	.100	.100	.052	.060	.104	.108	.104
Flour.....	Pound.	.034	.039	.068	.071	.069	.029	.033	.065	.065	.066
Corn meal.....	do.	.035	.036	.071	.072	.073	.032	.034	.075	.074	.076
Rice.....	do.102	.137	.136104	.141	.144
Potatoes.....	do.	.017	.019	.032	.033	.035	.014	.016	.024	.043	.037
Onions.....	do.026	.032	.030031	.041	.043
Beans, navy.....	do.180	.153	.151191	.171	.171
Prunes.....	do.146	.151	.149147	.157	.161
Raisins, seeded.....	do.143	.138	.136145	.144	.149
Sugar.....	do.	.056	.072	.089	.089	.092	.066	.081	.095	.095	.098
Coffee.....	do.304	.314	.308313	.316	.319
Tea.....	do.540	.544	.548533	.579	.590

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 19 SELECTED CITIES FOR SEPT. 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, AND AUG. 15, 1918—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	Washington, D. C.				
		Sept. 15—			Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
		1913	1914	1917		
Sirloin steak	Pound..	\$0.274	\$0.293	\$0.364	\$0.494	\$0.514
Round steak	do.	.241	.260	.348	.470	.498
Rib roast	do.	.213	.217	.281	.396	.403
Chuck roast	do.	.184	.238	.351	.351	.353
Plate beef	do.	.140	.182	.252	.282	.282
Pork chops	do.	.241	.249	.431	.480	.537
Bacon, sliced	do.	.285	.288	.462	.526	.561
Ham, sliced	do.	.300	.310	.433	.521	.542
Lard	do.	.153	.148	.303	.340	.345
Lamb	do.	.194	.213	.347	.443	.440
Hens	do.	.225	.219	.310	.445	.435
Salmon, canned	do.	.248	.248	.301	.301	.308
Eggs	Dozen	.345	.361	.545	.537	.590
Butter	Pound..	.387	.399	.523	.560	.603
Cheese	do.	.346	.346	.351	.351	.369
Milk	Quart	.083	.080	.110	.140	.147
Bread	Pound ¹	.057	.057	.102	.103	.103
Flour	Pound	.038	.042	.077	.069	.069
Corn meal	do.	.026	.029	.064	.060	.059
Rice	do.	.112	.112	.126	.126	.128
Potatoes	do.	.020	.018	.028	.042	.039
Onions	do.	.066	.066	.058	.058	.058
Beans, navy	do.	.193	.193	.174	.168	.168
Prunes	do.	.167	.167	.175	.175	.175
Raisins, seeded	do.	.148	.148	.162	.162	.160
Sugar	do.	.053	.075	.092	.089	.082
Coffee	do.	.284	.284	.292	.287	.287
Tea	do.	.607	.607	.713	.713	.730

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR AUG. 15, 1918, AND SEPT. 15, 1918, FOR 31 CITIES.

[The 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.	Bridgeport, Conn.		Butte, Mont.		Charleston, S. C.		Cincinnati, Ohio.		Columbus, Ohio.	
		Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
Sirloin steak	Pound..	\$0.529	\$0.535	\$0.368	\$0.369	\$0.373	\$0.377	\$0.347	\$0.353	\$0.399	\$0.403
Round steak	do.	.513	.521	.340	.338	.386	.385	.338	.347	.376	.382
Rib roast	do.	.404	.404	.300	.306	.318	.319	.285	.286	.309	.321
Chuck roast	do.	.347	.352	.256	.251	.265	.268	.240	.245	.286	.288
Plate beef	do.	.224	.239	.181	.186	.220	.210	.208	.212	.236	.238
Pork chops	do.	.431	.464	.407	.461	.407	.452	.416	.465	.393	.438
Bacon, sliced	do.	.565	.589	.605	.635	.563	.592	.509	.529	.531	.554
Ham, sliced	do.	.565	.592	.545	.555	.480	.507	.509	.526	.502	.525
Lard	do.	.326	.332	.331	.335	.335	.334	.311	.321	.332	.334
Lamb	do.	.383	.389	.358	.359	.381	.373	.326	.326	.360	.358
Hens	do.	.432	.431	.388	.390	.430	.457	.386	.383	.340	.342
Salmon, canned	do.	.357	.358	.344	.350	.292	.300	.275	.279	.315	.308
Eggs	Dozen	.694	.754	.706	.745	.513	.533	.435	.523	.442	.476
Butter	Pound.	.517	.553	.679	.604	.546	.575	.518	.596	.534	.610
Cheese	do.	.344	.350	.354	.359	.338	.357	.359	.376	.335	.349
Milk	Quart	.140	.140	.150	.150	.190	.185	.130	.130	.130	.130
Bread	Pound ¹	.100	.100	.125	.100	.100	.100	.095	.096	.097	.097
Flour	Pound	.069	.070	.069	.069	.071	.071	.067	.067	.072	.069
Corn meal	do.	.082	.083	.086	.084	.062	.062	.060	.061	.065	.065
Rice	do.	.138	.138	.143	.147	.112	.117	.137	.140	.143	.150
Potatoes	do.	.040	.038	.042	.027	.043	.048	.030	.035	.042	.043
Onions	do.	.072	.069	.048	.049	.061	.060	.041	.044	.058	.055
Beans, navy	do.	.176	.175	.178	.177	.193	.197	.156	.152	.167	.173
Prunes	do.	.175	.183	.169	.170	.177	.181	.155	.162	.167	.163
Raisins, seeded	do.	.155	.160	.152	.155	.159	.157	.157	.159	.149	.151
Sugar	do.	.094	.097	.100	.115	.089	.091	.093	.094	.095	.095
Coffee	do.	.316	.317	.425	.429	.281	.281	.266	.269	.279	.287
Tea	do.	.653	.640	.792	.779	.675	.654	.650	.673	.814	.839

¹ Baked weight.

[1233]

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR AUG. 15, 1918, AND SEPT. 15, 1918, FOR 31 CITIES—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Dallas, Tex.		Fall River, Mass.		Houston, Tex.		Indianapolis, Ind.		Jacksonville, Fla.	
		Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	\$0.376	\$0.387	\$0.589	\$0.594	\$0.347	\$0.347	\$0.386	\$0.383	\$0.409	\$0.410
Round steak.....	do.....	.365	.371	.510	.511	.347	.349	.376	.375	.390	.386
Rib roast.....	do.....	.323	.326	.384	.388	.289	.283	.286	.282	.325	.321
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.285	.292	.326	.330	.249	.244	.271	.259	.276	.271
Plate beef.....	do.....	.235	.237215	.214	.217	.219	.208	.208
Pork chops.....	do.....	.378	.422	.438	.464	.394	.414	.405	.474	.396	.465
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	.583	.603	.496	.513	.565	.551	.523	.535	.553	.575
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	.505	.532	.487	.497	.480	.502	.504	.521	.483	.508
Lard.....	do.....	.338	.341	.319	.324	.314	.320	.314	.332	.333	.333
Lamb.....	do.....	.420	.360	.378	.399	.360	.375373	.385
Hens.....	do.....	.317	.323	.421	.432	.350330	.326	.355	.403
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.287	.294	.279	.278	.302	.306	.251	.255	.288	.287
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.445	.494	.667	.762	.483	.512	.439	.503	.544	.556
Butter.....	Pound.....	.505	.543	.518	.549	.522	.578	.517	.610	.557	.574
Cheese.....	do.....	.347	.350	.330	.341	.339	.345	.359	.370	.352	.359
Milk.....	Quart.....	.170	.172	.150	.150	.162	.169	.110	.120	.153	.153
Bread.....	Pound ¹100	.100	.100	.100	.090	.090	.100	.100	.100	.100
Flour.....	Pound.....	.066	.069	.072	.072	.072	.070	.065	.064	.071	.071
Corn meal.....	do.....	.066	.065	.083	.084	.064	.064	.063	.063	.063	.063
Rice.....	do.....	.124	.125	.125	.132	.125	.123	.133	.140	.133	.136
Potatoes.....	do.....	.049	.047	.035	.035	.048	.045	.039	.038	.043	.047
Onions.....	do.....	.056	.057	.065	.060	.052	.053	.052	.051	.066	.064
Beans, navy.....	do.....	.179	.176	.175	.177	.171	.169	.171	.158	.195	.192
Prunes.....	do.....	.172	.176	.175	.175	.160	.154	.178	.169	.171	.189
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....	.154	.153	.158	.160	.172	.160	.169	.171	.170	.173
Sugar.....	do.....	.096	.095	.098	.099	.094	.094	.096	.096	.092	.093
Coffee.....	do.....	.330	.337	.316	.332	.278	.276	.291	.291	.321	.323
Tea.....	do.....	.778	.798	.575	.583	.615	.606	.773	.796	.737	.729

Article.	Unit.	Kansas City, Mo.		Little Rock, Ark.		Louisville, Ky.		Manchester, N. H.		Memphis, Tenn.	
		Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
Sirloin steak.....	do.....	\$0.375	\$0.380	\$0.407	\$0.414	\$0.377	\$0.375	\$0.555	\$0.566	\$0.402	\$0.402
Round steak.....	do.....	.366	.365	.383	.386	.360	.359	.516	.515	.377	.378
Rib roast.....	do.....	.284	.279	.333	.352	.307	.308	.371	.362	.317	.317
Chuck roast.....	do.....	.256	.259	.277	.275	.269	.267	.325	.326	.288	.285
Plate beef.....	do.....	.213	.210	.237	.234	.227	.230253	.245
Pork chops.....	do.....	.384	.428	.401	.435	.377	.442	.471	.488	.398	.449
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	.559	.578	.579	.609	.541	.583	.505	.531	.547	.583
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	.517	.516	.531	.538	.496	.533	.478	.495	.473	.521
Lard.....	do.....	.349	.349	.336	.336	.324	.332	.334	.339	.325	.335
Lamb.....	do.....	.300	.300	.397	.367	.388	.380	.391	.398	.403	.378
Hens.....	do.....	.313	.326	.353	.353	.366	.371	.435	.442	.318	.336
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	.310	.313	.314	.302	.271	.272	.301	.300	.342	.359
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.457	.487	.543	.564	.445	.504	.623	.689	.458	.507
Butter.....	Pound.....	.521	.602	.543	.598	.539	.622	.562	.600	.533	.593
Cheese.....	do.....	.357	.370	.363	.380	.362	.379	.340	.342	.337	.363
Milk.....	Quart.....	.143	.143	.150	.150	.128	.150	.140	.140	.150	.160
Bread.....	Pound ¹100	.100	.100	.100	.100	.100	.093	.093	.099	.099
Flour.....	Pound.....	.067	.065	.070	.070	.067	.065	.071	.070	.067	.067
Corn meal.....	do.....	.067	.068	.066	.066	.060	.060	.077	.078	.060	.061
Rice.....	do.....	.140	.147	.134	.137	.137	.139	.126	.127	.129	.134
Potatoes.....	do.....	.031	.035	.046	.044	.032	.038	.040	.034	.038	.042
Onions.....	do.....	.055	.056	.059	.059	.043	.046	.070	.049	.047	.048
Beans, navy.....	do.....	.185	.184	.179	.175	.173	.172	.175	.175	.182	.176
Prunes.....	do.....	.171	.185	.186	.188	.166	.173	.170	.175	.165	.184
Raisins, seeded.....	do.....	.165	.163	.154	.150	.165	.157	.158	.158	.155	.161
Sugar.....	do.....	.099	.100	.095	.095	.094	.096	.094	.103	.090	.093
Coffee.....	do.....	.287	.289	.312	.329	.270	.272	.336	.335	.300	.303
Tea.....	do.....	.714	.723	.858	.852	.739	.762	.594	.596	.784	.787

¹ Baked weight.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR AUG. 15, 1918, AND SEPT. 15, 1918, FOR 31 CITIES—Continued.

Article.	Unit.	Minneapolis, Minn.		Mobile, Ala.		Newark, N. J.		New Haven, Conn.	
		Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound..	\$0.312	\$0.325	\$0.346	\$0.347	\$0.476	\$0.491	\$0.558	\$0.572
Round steak.....	do.	.299	.308	.339	.347	.484	.496	.522	.526
Rib roast.....	do.	.264	.265	.311	.320	.384	.399	.397	.404
Chuck roast.....	do.	.228	.235	.266	.283	.342	.349	.363	.362
Plate beef.....	do.	.179	.185	.239	.244	.249	.262		
Pork chops.....	do.	.387	.406	.400	.471	.438	.479	.464	.488
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.523	.541	.544	.575	.504	.526	.570	.589
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.464	.500	.477	.504	2.381	2.409	.559	.599
Lard.....	do.	.325	.333	.322	.318	.335	.343	.336	.339
Lamb.....	do.	.311	.318	.346	.354	.393	.389	.404	.424
Hens.....	do.	.327	.325	.400	.410	.420	.424	.439	.441
Salmon, canned.....	do.	.350	.369	.274	.265	.337	.356	.323	.336
Eggs.....	Dozen..	.444	.474	.557	.593	.642	.694	.715	.761
Butter.....	Pound..	.500	.545	.540	.576	.547	.610	.538	.568
Cheese.....	do.	.314	.329	.343	.362	.358	.361	.346	.355
Milk.....	Quart..	.110	.110	.150	.153	.140	.150	.143	.143
Bread.....	Pound ¹ .	.088	.088	.105	.097	.098	.097	.100	.100
Flour.....	Pound..	.063	.063	.071	.070	.073	.073	.069	.069
Corn meal.....	do.	.059	.060	.068	.068	.084	.086	.078	.080
Rice.....	do.	.133	.138	.130	.133	.141	.143	.133	.136
Potatoes.....	do.	.024	.025	.043	.047	.038	.041	.041	.040
Onions.....	do.	.042	.038	.061	.060	.064	.055	.067	.057
Beans, navy.....	do.	.159	.155	.175	.179	.178	.176	.180	.176
Prunes.....	do.	.162	.166	.184	.195	.178	.191	.182	.185
Raisins, seeded.....	do.	.146	.150	.193	.184	.151	.151	.155	.154
Sugar.....	do.	.098	.098	.090	.092	.090	.096	.099	.102
Coffee.....	do.	.311	.311	.274	.282	.299	.299	.329	.332
Tea.....	do.	.518	.517	.604	.624	.581	.571	.611	.614

Article.	Unit.	Norfolk, Va.		Omaha, Nebr.		Peoria, Ill.		Portland, Me.	
		Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.
Sirloin steak.....	do.	\$0.501	\$0.511	\$0.380	\$0.384	\$0.367	\$0.367	\$0.579	\$0.590
Round steak.....	do.	.453	.468	.368	.370	.364	.363	.511	.524
Rib roast.....	do.	.383	.402	.296	.303	.270	.273	.347	.360
Chuck roast.....	do.	.317	.321	.270	.267	.253	.257	.306	.313
Plate beef.....	do.	.220	.232	.190	.193	.199	.204		
Pork chops.....	do.	.414	.463	.382	.419	.393	.451	.483	.483
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.547	.576	.546	.587	.537	.563	.521	.553
Ham, sliced.....	do.	2.418	.451	.515	.544	.510	.533	.500	.527
Lard.....	do.	.343	.344	.344	.346	.342	.349	.335	.341
Lamb.....	do.	.433	.436	.343	.353	.383	.388	.405	.385
Hens.....	do.	.428	.450	.326	.333	.332	.339	.447	.444
Salmon, canned.....	do.	.284	.292	.297	.301	.299	.304	.286	.290
Eggs.....	Dozen..	.525	.599	.444	.480	.441	.492	.654	.709
Butter.....	Pound..	.577	.577	.505	.582	.495	.578	.558	.596
Cheese.....	do.	.353	.368	.346	.367	.375	.392	.351	.352
Milk.....	Quart..	.180	.193	.133	.138	.104	.106	.128	.140
Bread.....	Pound ¹ .	.099	.099	.100	.100	.100	.100	.100	.100
Flour.....	Pound..	.072	.072	.065	.064	.072	.070	.068	.068
Corn meal.....	do.	.064	.065	.061	.061	.066	.065	.072	.072
Rice.....	do.	.145	.150	.135	.145	.137	.138	.125	.129
Potatoes.....	do.	.043	.047	.037	.037	.030	.035	.040	.033
Onions.....	do.	.065	.061	.054	.050	.056	.056	.066	.050
Beans, navy.....	do.	.183	.186	.167	.163	.182	.176	.179	.178
Prunes.....	do.	.186	.192	.168	.177	.173	.171	.161	.172
Raisins, seeded.....	do.	.154	.163	.167	.171	.157	.159	.146	.148
Sugar.....	do.	.092	.094	.098	.097	.096	.097	.091	.093
Coffee.....	do.	.325	.326	.311	.313	.270	.267	.311	.322
Tea.....	do.	.783	.772	.664	.676	.650	.661	.633	.636

¹ Baked weight.

* Whole.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR AUG. 15, 1918, AND SEPT. 15, 1918, FOR 31 CITIES—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	Portland, Oreg.		Providence, R. I.		Richmond, Va.		Rochester, N. Y.			
		Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.	Aug. 15, 1918.	Sept. 15, 1918.		
		Sirloin steak.....	Pound.	\$0.326	\$0.326	\$0.661	\$0.660	\$0.437	\$0.455	\$0.408	\$0.408
Round steak.....	do.	.319	.316	.552	.557	.413	.455	.391	.400		
Rib roast.....	do.	.289	.292	.422	.430	.365	.354	.321	.335		
Chuck roast.....	do.	.232	.232	.397	.395	.321	.322	.310	.319		
Plate beef.....	do.	.183	.183259	.265	.231	.230		
Pork chops.....	do.	.429	.457	.488	.514	.395	.472	.437	.456		
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.569	.572	.518	.531	.528	.572	.494	.515		
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.500	.506	.581	.604	.463	.484	.493	.497		
Lard.....	do.	.350	.350	.341	.343	.339	.345	.334	.332		
Lamb.....	do.	.336	.332	.399	.415	.425	.429	.373	.381		
Hens.....	do.	.346	.357	.443	.444	.404	.439	.426	.425		
Salmon, canned.....	do.	.360	.357	.296	.294	.235	.243	.298	.302		
Eggs.....	Dozen.	.559	.590	.658	.683	.515	.564	.581	.630		
Butter.....	Pound.	.597	.630	.539	.567	.565	.600	.519	.579		
Cheese.....	do.	.350	.367	.341	.343	.351	.360	.334	.346		
Milk.....	Quart.	.138	.139	.150	.150	.147	.157	.128	.130		
Bread.....	Pound ¹ .	.110	.110	.100	.100	.100	.100	.099	.100		
Flour.....	Pound.	.065	.066	.069	.069	.068	.066	.067	.066		
Corn meal.....	do.	.077	.077	.071	.073	.063	.063	.066	.067		
Rice.....	do.	.142	.141	.126	.133	.143	.150	.137	.139		
Potatoes.....	do.	.041	.039	.040	.038	.041	.045	.038	.039		
Onions.....	do.	.046	.042	.066	.051	.068	.064	.061	.050		
Beans, navy.....	do.	.163	.162	.177	.177	.192	.186	.164	.154		
Prunes.....	do.	.143	.143	.179	.182	.172	.176	.191	.183		
Raisins, seeded.....	do.	.148	.147	.148	.149	.150	.149	.148	.149		
Sugar.....	do.	.095	.103	.095	.101	.093	.094	.091	.091		
Coffee.....	do.	.325	.331	.339	.339	.279	.285	.291	.295		
Tea.....	do.	.597	.591	.609	.625	.740	.755	.569	.586		
				St. Paul, Minn.		Salt Lake City, Utah.		Scranton, Pa.		Springfield, Ill.	
Sirloin steak.....	do.	\$0.365	\$0.350	\$0.342	\$0.341	\$0.476	\$0.485	\$0.378	\$0.380		
Round steak.....	do.	.342	.323	.325	.325	.444	.443	.381	.380		
Rib roast.....	do.	.296	.281	.284	.278	.376	.375	.292	.293		
Chuck roast.....	do.	.252	.247	.264	.254	.342	.336	.274	.268		
Plate beef.....	do.	.189	.192	.198	.192	.229	.232	.221	.222		
Pork chops.....	do.	.401	.409	.458	.473	.426	.467	.397	.426		
Bacon, sliced.....	do.	.525	.540	.550	.583	.567	.579	.514	.518		
Ham, sliced.....	do.	.488	.520	.483	.500	.518	.541	.477	.484		
Lard.....	do.	.331	.336	.352	.360	.330	.337	.334	.339		
Lamb.....	do.	.335	.314	.330	.331	.406	.409	.379	.386		
Hens.....	do.	.324	.343	.350	.343	.442	.453	.320	.313		
Salmon, canned.....	do.	.301	.297	.328	.337	.308	.307	.281	.294		
Eggs.....	Dozen.	.452	.467	.515	.589	.542	.581	.456	.500		
Butter.....	Pound.	.493	.583	.549	.597	.528	.546	.538	.617		
Cheese.....	do.	.325	.361	.339	.361	.321	.333	.357	.377		
Milk.....	Quart.	.107	.110	.112	.111	.130	.130	.125	.125		
Bread.....	Pound ¹ .	.085	.085	.103	.103	.097	.095	.100	.100		
Flour.....	Pound.	.067	.067	.060	.060	.070	.071	.068	.067		
Corn meal.....	do.	.064	.064	.075	.076	.079	.082	.076	.077		
Rice.....	do.	.136	.137	.135	.140	.132	.135	.139	.143		
Potatoes.....	do.	.021	.023	.024	.027	.041	.038	.038	.038		
Onions.....	do.	.044	.036	.045	.040	.061	.054	.047	.047		
Beans, navy.....	do.	.175	.168	.171	.171	.174	.175	.180	.175		
Prunes.....	do.	.176	.175	.150	.150	.160	.163	.181	.168		
Raisins, seeded.....	do.	.147	.146	.145	.145	.146	.151	.174	.180		
Sugar.....	do.	.100	.104	.098	.105	.095	.100	.098	.099		
Coffee.....	do.	.312	.318	.346	.350	.327	.322	.298	.298		
Tea.....	do.	.562	.600	.624	.624	.614	.618	.738	.742		

¹ Baked weight.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES,
1913 TO SEPTEMBER, 1918.

The bureau's weighted index number of wholesale prices in representative markets of the United States showed an increase in September over the preceding two months, the index being 207 as compared with 202 in August and 198 in July. Large increases from August to September took place in the groups of farm products and food. In the farm products group the increase was from 229 to 236 and in the food group from 191 to 199. Small increases were recorded for fuel and lighting, also lumber and building materials, while cloths and clothing and metals and metal products showed no changes. In the group of chemicals and drugs a slight drop occurred, but house-furnishing goods and articles classed as miscellaneous showed considerable increases over the August figures.

Among important commodities whose wholesale prices in September averaged higher than in August were cotton, barley, oats, hay, cattle, hogs, butter, cheese, milk, coffee, eggs, fish, bacon, beef, lard, sugar, tea, and vinegar. Wheat, rye, hides, peanuts, tobacco, flour, rice, salt, molasses, and oleomargarine were practically unchanged in price, while flaxseed, corn, hops, sheep, lemons, meal, mutton, potatoes, cabbage, and onions were cheaper than in August.

In the period from September, 1917, to September, 1918, the index number of farm products increased from 203 to 236, that of food articles from 178 to 199, and that of cloths and clothing from 193 to 251. In the same period the index number of fuel and lighting increased from 155 to 179, that of lumber and building materials from 134 to 158, that of chemicals and drugs from 203 to 206, and that of house-furnishing goods from 165 to 233. In the group of miscellaneous articles, including such important commodities as cottonseed meal, jute, lubricating oil, malt, news-print paper, rubber, soap, starch, plug tobacco, and wood pulp, the increase was from 155 to 195. The index number of metals and metal products, on the contrary, decreased from 228 in September, 1917, to 183 in September of the present year.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES, 1913 TO SEPTEMBER, 1918.

[1913=100.]

Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and metal products.	Lumber and building materials.	Chemicals and drugs.	House-furnishing goods.	Miscellaneous.	All commodities.
1913.										
Average for year.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
January.....	97	99	100	99	107	100	101	100	100	99
April.....	97	96	100	99	102	101	100	100	99	98
July.....	101	101	100	100	98	101	99	100	102	101
October.....	103	102	100	100	99	98	100	100	100	101
1914.										
Average for year.....	103	103	98	92	87	97	103	103	97	99
January.....	101	102	99	99	92	98	101	103	98	100
April.....	103	95	100	98	91	99	101	103	99	98
July.....	104	103	100	90	85	97	101	103	97	99
August.....	109	112	100	89	85	97	100	103	97	102
September.....	108	116	99	87	86	96	106	103	98	103
October.....	103	107	98	87	83	96	109	103	95	99
November.....	101	105	97	87	81	95	108	103	95	98
December.....	99	105	97	87	83	94	107	103	96	97
1915.										
Average for year.....	105	104	100	87	97	94	113	101	98	100
January.....	102	106	96	86	83	94	106	101	98	98
February.....	105	108	97	86	87	95	104	101	97	100
March.....	105	104	97	86	89	94	103	101	97	99
April.....	107	105	98	84	91	94	102	101	97	99
May.....	109	105	98	83	96	94	102	101	96	100
June.....	105	102	98	83	100	93	104	101	96	99
July.....	108	104	99	84	102	94	107	101	96	101
August.....	108	103	99	85	100	93	109	101	96	100
September.....	103	100	100	88	100	93	114	101	96	98
October.....	105	104	103	90	100	93	121	101	99	101
November.....	102	108	105	93	104	95	141	101	100	102
December.....	103	111	107	96	114	97	146	101	103	105
1916.										
Average for year.....	122	126	127	115	148	101	143	110	121	123
January.....	109	114	110	102	126	99	140	105	107	110
February.....	109	114	114	102	132	100	144	105	106	111
March.....	111	115	117	104	141	101	147	105	109	114
April.....	114	117	119	105	147	102	150	109	111	116
May.....	116	119	122	104	151	102	153	109	114	118
June.....	116	119	123	105	149	101	150	109	121	118
July.....	118	121	126	105	145	98	143	111	122	119
August.....	126	128	128	107	145	100	132	111	123	123
September.....	131	134	131	110	148	100	132	111	126	127
October.....	136	140	137	128	151	101	135	114	132	133
November.....	145	150	146	150	160	103	142	115	135	143
December.....	141	146	155	163	185	105	143	115	136	146
1917.										
Average for year.....	188	177	181	169	208	124	185	155	154	175
January.....	147	150	161	170	183	106	144	128	138	150
February.....	150	160	162	178	190	108	146	129	139	155
March.....	162	161	163	181	199	111	151	129	140	160
April.....	180	182	169	178	208	114	155	151	145	171
May.....	196	191	173	187	217	117	164	151	148	181
June.....	196	187	179	193	239	127	165	162	153	184
July.....	198	180	187	183	257	132	185	165	151	185
August.....	204	180	193	159	249	133	198	165	156	184
September.....	203	178	193	155	228	134	203	165	155	182
October.....	207	183	194	143	182	134	242	165	164	180
November.....	211	184	202	151	173	135	232	175	165	182
December.....	204	185	206	153	173	135	230	175	166	181
1918.										
January.....	205	188	209	169	173	136	216	188	178	185
February.....	207	186	213	171	175	137	217	188	181	187
March.....	211	178	220	171	175	142	217	188	184	188
April.....	217	179	230	170	176	145	214	188	193	191
May.....	212	178	234	172	177	147	209	188	197	191
June.....	214	179	243	171	177	148	205	192	199	193
July.....	221	185	249	178	183	152	202	192	192	198
August.....	229	191	251	178	183	156	207	227	191	202
September ¹	236	199	251	179	183	158	206	233	195	207

¹ Preliminary.

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

A comparison of wholesale and retail price changes for important food articles is contained in the subjoined table. As some products—fresh beef, for example—are not sold by the retailer in the same form in which they leave the wholesaler, strictly comparable prices are not obtainable. In such cases the articles most nearly comparable were selected. In most instances, also, the comparison is not for the same date, the retail prices being those prevailing on the fifteenth of the month, while the wholesale prices are for a variable date, usually several days prior to the fifteenth. Notwithstanding these differences, the figures may be considered indicative of price variations in retail as compared with the wholesale markets.

The differential between the two series of quotations at successive dates is given to assist in making the comparison. It should not be assumed, however, that this differential in any case represents the margin of profit to the retailer, since in addition to possible differences between the articles shown at wholesale and retail, the various items of handling cost to both the wholesaler and retailer are included in the figure.

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

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

Article and city.	Unit.	1913: Av- erage for year.	July.			1917				1918				
			1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
Beef, Chicago:														
Steer, loin ends.....W.	Lb.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Steer, loin ends.....W.	Lb.	16.8	17.5	16.0	20.5	20.0	20.0	19.0	23.5	20.0	23.0	34.0	34.0	34.0
Sirloin steak.....R.	Lb.	23.2	26.0	25.8	28.1	26.5	29.3	30.2	30.6	30.2	33.7	37.7	37.7	38.6
Price differential.....		6.4	8.5	9.8	7.6	6.5	9.3	11.2	7.1	10.2	10.7	3.7	3.7	4.6
Beef, Chicago:														
Steer rounds, No. 2 W.	Lb.	13.1	14.5	14.3	14.5	12.0	15.5	17.0	19.0	16.5	18.5	25.0	26.0	26.0
Round steak.....R.	Lb.	20.2	23.3	22.8	24.1	22.7	25.6	26.6	27.3	27.3	30.4	35.0	34.9	35.9
Price differential.....		7.1	8.8	8.5	9.6	10.7	10.1	9.6	8.3	10.8	11.9	10.0	8.9	9.9
Beef, Chicago:														
Steer ribs, No. 2...W.	Lb.	15.7	16.5	14.5	17.5	16.0	21.0	20.0	23.0	20.0	22.0	28.0	30.0	32.0
Rib roast.....R.	Lb.	19.5	21.2	21.3	22.9	22.3	24.1	24.6	24.7	25.4	28.8	31.8	31.4	32.6
Price differential.....		3.8	4.7	6.8	5.4	6.3	3.1	4.6	1.7	5.4	6.8	3.8	1.4	.6
Beef, New York:														
No. 2, loins.....W.	Lb.	15.8	18.3	17.0	20.0	18.0	19.0	19.0	27.5	23.5	26.0	28.0	32.0	34.0
Sirloin steak.....R.	Lb.	25.9	27.4	28.2	29.4	28.4	31.8	33.7	35.6	34.4	38.0	43.9	44.8	46.3
Price differential.....		10.1	9.1	11.2	9.4	10.4	12.8	14.7	8.1	10.9	12.0	15.9	12.8	12.3
Beef, New York:														
No. 2, rounds.....W.	Lb.	12.1	13.5	13.5	14.5	13.0	17.0	17.5	19.0	18.0	20.0	28.0	29.0	29.0
Round steak.....R.	Lb.	24.9	27.0	27.1	28.9	27.5	31.5	33.7	36.0	35.2	38.4	46.3	46.7	48.0
Price differential.....		12.8	13.5	13.6	14.4	14.5	14.5	16.2	17.0	17.2	18.4	18.3	17.7	19.0
Beef, New York:														
No. 2, ribs.....W.	Lb.	15.1	16.5	16.0	18.0	16.0	20.0	19.0	27.5	23.5	25.0	28.0	30.5	32.5
Rib roast.....R.	Lb.	21.8	22.5	22.7	24.3	23.8	27.0	29.7	29.8	29.4	32.4	37.5	37.6	38.7
Price differential.....		6.7	6.0	6.7	6.3	7.8	7.0	8.9	2.3	5.9	7.4	9.5	7.1	6.2
Pork, Chicago:														
Loins.....W.	Lb.	14.9	16.5	15.0	16.5	16.5	24.0	25.0	33.0	27.0	29.0	29.0	32.0	35.0
Chops.....R.	Lb.	19.0	20.4	20.1	21.7	22.7	28.5	29.2	35.8	31.6	33.0	35.5	38.8	42.6
Price differential.....		4.1	3.9	5.1	5.2	6.2	4.5	4.2	2.8	4.6	4.0	6.5	6.8	7.6
Pork, New York:														
Loins, western.....W.	Lb.	15.2	16.3	15.3	16.5	17.0	23.5	23.0	30.0	26.5	27.5	30.5	33.5	39.0
Chops.....R.	Lb.	21.7	23.0	21.7	23.9	24.8	31.9	32.6	39.9	34.8	36.7	40.6	42.3	47.7
Price differential.....		6.5	6.7	6.4	7.4	7.8	8.4	9.1	9.9	8.3	9.2	10.1	8.8	8.7

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

Article and city.	Unit.	1913: Av- erage for year	July.			1917				1918				
			1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
Bacon, Chicago:														
Short clear sides... W.	Lb.	12.7	13.9	11.3	15.9	15.8	21.8	24.7	31.8	30.1	27.5	27.4	26.8	27.9
Sliced..... R.	Lb.	29.4	31.8	31.5	32.8	31.6	39.5	43.9	47.5	49.8	51.9	54.7	56.4	57.7
Price differential.....		16.7	17.9	20.2	16.9	15.8	17.7	19.2	15.7	19.7	24.4	27.3	29.6	29.8
Ham, Chicago:														
Smoked..... W.	Lb.	16.6	17.5	16.3	19.0	18.8	24.3	24.3	28.3	29.8	30.0	30.1	32.3	32.8
Smoked, sliced..... R.	Lb.	26.6	33.8	32.8	34.9	33.3	38.2	41.4	43.9	42.8	46.7	49.1	50.5	51.7
Price differential.....		10.0	16.3	16.5	15.9	14.5	13.9	17.1	15.6	13.0	16.7	19.0	18.2	18.9
Lard, New York:														
Prime, contract... W.	Lb.	11.0	10.4	8.0	13.3	15.9	21.5	20.1	24.6	24.6	26.3	26.2	26.9	27.2
Pure, tub..... R.	Lb.	16.0	15.6	15.1	16.8	21.3	26.3	27.4	31.3	33.0	33.4	32.2	32.5	33.5
Price differential.....		5.0	5.2	7.1	3.5	5.4	4.8	7.3	6.7	8.4	7.1	6.0	5.6	6.2
Lamb, Chicago:														
Dressed round... W.	Lb.	14.9	17.0	19.0	19.0	20.0	22.0	26.0	27.0	24.0	29.0	31.0	29.0	29.0
Leg of, yearling... R.	Lb.	19.8	21.9	20.8	23.1	23.2	26.3	28.7	31.4	30.6	35.6	35.7	35.4	36.2
Price differential.....		4.9	4.9	1.8	4.1	3.2	4.3	2.7	4.4	6.6	6.6	4.7	6.4	7.2
Poultry, New York:														
Dressed fowls... W.	Lb.	18.2	18.8	17.5	21.5	22.0	26.5	24.8	28.5	29.8	34.0	36.0	35.0	35.5
Dressed hens... R.	Lb.	21.4	22.0	21.9	25.6	26.1	29.3	28.7	32.3	32.6	41.0	40.7	41.3
Price differential.....		3.2	3.2	4.4	4.1	4.1	2.8	3.9	3.8	2.8	5.0	5.7	5.8
Butter, Chicago:														
Creamery, extra... W.	Lb.	31.0	26.5	26.5	27.5	37.0	44.0	37.5	43.5	49.0	40.0	40.5	43.5	50.0
Creamery, extra... R.	Lb.	36.2	31.2	32.2	33.5	43.8	48.4	43.3	48.7	54.4	46.0	48.0	49.0	57.5
Price differential.....		5.2	4.7	5.7	6.0	6.8	4.4	5.8	5.2	5.4	6.0	5.5	5.5	7.5
Butter, New York:														
Creamery, extra... W.	Lb.	32.3	28.0	27.0	28.5	39.5	45.0	39.5	44.3	51.0	41.5	44.4	45.8	52.8
Creamery, extra... R.	Lb.	38.2	32.8	33.6	34.6	46.0	51.3	45.3	51.5	57.4	49.3	51.4	52.1	59.9
Price differential.....		5.9	4.8	6.6	6.1	6.5	6.3	5.8	7.2	6.4	7.8	7.0	6.3	7.1
Butter, San Francisco:														
Creamery, extra... W.	Lb.	31.7	24.5	26.5	25.5	35.5	39.0	38.5	46.0	53.0	37.5	50.0	52.0	55.5
Creamery, extra... R.	Lb.	38.8	32.9	33.8	33.3	42.5	45.2	45.5	54.5	60.2	45.2	56.6	58.6	63.2
Price differential.....		7.1	8.4	7.3	7.8	7.0	6.2	7.0	8.5	7.2	7.7	6.6	6.6	7.7
Cheese, Chicago:														
Whole milk... W.	Lb.	14.2	13.3	14.5	14.5	21.8	22.3	21.6	24.6	23.3	21.5	22.7	24.3	25.6
Full cream... R.	Lb.	22.9	24.2	32.1	32.7	33.9	36.8	37.5	35.3	34.5	35.7	37.6
Price differential.....		8.4	9.7	10.3	10.4	12.3	12.2	14.2	13.8	11.8	11.4	12.0
Cheese, New York:														
Whole milk, State W.	Lb.	15.4	14.4	14.6	15.1	22.0	24.5	23.8	25.5	23.0	22.5	23.9	25.3	26.8
Full cream... R.	Lb.	22.9	22.8	30.1	33.5	32.8	34.0	34.4	33.8	33.2	33.5	34.3
Price differential.....		8.3	7.7	8.1	9.0	9.0	8.5	11.4	11.3	9.3	8.2	7.5
Cheese, San Francisco:														
Fancy... W.	Lb.	15.9	12.5	11.5	13.5	18.0	21.5	20.0	22.0	25.5	26.0	26.0	27.5	31.5
Full cream... R.	Lb.	20.0	22.9	24.2	29.7	29.7	31.6	33.5	33.5	32.3	33.8	36.6
Price differential.....		8.5	9.4	6.2	8.2	9.7	9.6	8.0	7.5	6.3	6.3	5.1
Milk, Chicago:														
Fresh... W.	Qt.	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.6	4.5	5.4	4.7	7.4	7.0	5.8	5.3	6.6	6.6
Fresh, bottled... R.	Qt.	8.0	8.0	8.0	8.1	10.0	10.0	10.0	12.9	11.9	11.9	12.0	12.4	13.0
Price differential.....		4.2	4.4	4.3	4.5	5.5	4.6	5.3	5.5	4.9	6.1	6.7	5.8	6.4
Milk, New York:														
Fresh... W.	Qt.	3.5	3.0	3.0	3.1	5.1	4.9	5.0	7.2	8.1	5.9	5.4	6.3	6.8
Fresh, bottled... R.	Qt.	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	10.0	10.9	11.4	13.8	15.0	14.0	12.7	14.0	14.0
Price differential.....		5.5	6.0	6.0	5.9	4.9	6.0	6.4	6.6	6.9	8.1	7.3	7.7	7.2
Milk, San Francisco:														
Fresh... W.	Qt.	3.9	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.8	3.8	4.3	5.9	6.6	5.9	5.9	5.9	7.4
Fresh, bottled... R.	Qt.	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1	14.0
Price differential.....		6.1	6.1	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.2	5.7	6.2	5.5	6.2	6.2	6.2	6.6
Eggs, Chicago:														
Fresh, firsts... W.	Doz.	22.6	18.8	16.8	21.8	48.5	30.5	31.0	37.0	56.5	31.5	36.5	38.3	41.5
Strictly fresh... R.	Doz.	29.2	26.1	24.8	29.6	52.5	37.6	40.6	46.9	65.1	38.0	45.7	47.8	52.1
Price differential.....		6.6	7.3	8.0	7.8	4.0	7.1	9.6	9.9	8.6	6.5	9.2	9.5	10.6
Eggs, New York:														
Fresh, firsts... W.	Doz.	24.9	21.5	20.0	24.1	50.5	33.0	35.0	40.0	64.5	33.3	40.0	41.5	45.5
Strictly fresh... R.	Doz.	39.7	35.3	32.6	37.2	66.7	42.4	47.7	62.7	80.8	47.6	57.3	60.9	65.7
Price differential.....		14.8	13.8	12.6	13.1	16.2	9.4	12.7	22.7	16.3	14.3	17.3	19.4	20.2
Eggs, San Francisco:														
Fresh... W.	Doz.	26.8	23.0	22.0	24.0	38.0	28.0	32.0	43.5	61.0	36.5	44.0	48.5	61.0
Strictly fresh... R.	Doz.	37.3	33.8	31.0	33.3	48.0	37.4	39.2	60.8	71.0	41.9	51.4	57.3	67.1
Price differential.....		10.5	10.8	9.0	9.3	10.0	9.4	7.2	17.3	10.0	5.4	7.4	8.8	6.1
Meal, corn, Chicago:														
Fine... W.	Lb.	1.4	1.6	1.9	2.4	3.6	4.5	5.2	5.1	6.0	5.4	5.3	4.5
Fine... R.	Lb.	2.9	2.8	3.1	3.1	4.2	5.0	5.8	7.1	7.0	7.2	6.8	6.8	6.8
Price differential.....		1.5	1.2	1.2	1.8	1.4	1.3	1.9	1.9	1.2	1.4	1.5	2.3

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

Article and city.	Unit.	1913: Av- erage for year.	July.			1917				1918				
			1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
Beans, New York:														
Medium, choice....W.	Lb..	4.0	4.0	5.8	9.8	10.8	13.0	15.4	13.8	14.1	13.7	11.9	11.6	11.1
Navy, white.....R.	Lb..			8.1	11.3	14.9	16.2	18.8	18.5	18.5	18.2	17.5	17.4	17.4
Price differential.....				2.3	1.5	4.1	3.2	3.4	4.7	4.4	4.5	5.6	5.8	6.3
Potatoes, Chicago:														
White ¹W.	Lb..	1.0	2.4	.7	1.6	2.9	4.7	4.4	1.9	2.0	1.1	1.5	2.9	2.3
White.....R.	Lb..	1.5	2.7	1.2	2.3	3.9	5.8	5.0	2.8	2.8	1.7	3.7	3.5	3.2
Price differential.....		.5	.3	.5	.7	1.0	1.0	.6	.9	.8	.6	1.2	.6	.9
Rice, New Orleans:														
Head.....W.	Lb..	5.0	5.4	4.9	4.6	4.8	4.9	7.1	7.7	8.8	8.8	9.3	7.6	7.6
Head.....R.	Lb..			7.5	7.4	7.4	8.8	10.1	10.0	10.6	10.7	11.9	2.3	12.4
Price differential.....				2.6	2.8	2.6	3.9	3.0	2.3	1.8	1.9	2.6	4.7	4.8
Sugar, New York:														
Granulated.....W.	Lb..	4.3	4.2	5.9	7.5	6.6	8.1	7.4	8.2	7.3	7.3	7.4	7.4	8.8
Granulated.....R.	Lb..	4.9	4.6	6.3	7.9	7.4	8.7	8.4	9.7	9.7	8.8	8.8	8.8	9.8
Price differential.....		.6	.4	.4	.4	.8	.6	1.0	1.5	2.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.0

¹ Good to choice.

The following table of wholesale and retail prices, expressed as percentages of the average money price for 1913, enables the reader to follow more readily the price fluctuations of food products at wholesale and retail. A few articles appearing in the preceding table are omitted from the following one, owing to lack of satisfactory data for 1913. The table shows that for all of the articles included the retail price in September was relatively lower, as compared with the 1913 base, than was the wholesale price. This is particularly true of beef, pork, bacon, lard, milk, and corn meal. The preceding table shows, however, that the margin between wholesale and retail prices for most of the articles was greater in September of the present year than in 1913.

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				1918				
		1914	1915	1916	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Aug.	Sept.
Beef, Chicago:													
Steer loin ends (hips)..... W.	100	104	95	122	119	119	113	140	119	137	202	202	202
Sirloin steak..... R.	100	112	111	121	114	126	130	132	130	145	163	163	166
Beef, Chicago:													
Steer rounds, No. 2..... W.	100	111	109	111	92	118	130	145	126	141	191	198	198
Round steak..... R.	100	115	113	119	112	127	132	135	135	151	173	173	178
Beef, Chicago:													
Steer ribs, No. 2..... W.	100	105	92	111	102	134	127	146	127	140	178	191	204
Rib roast..... R.	100	109	109	117	114	124	126	127	130	148	163	161	167
Beef, New York:													
No. 2 loins, city..... W.	100	116	108	127	114	120	120	174	149	165	177	203	215
Sirloin steak..... R.	100	106	109	114	110	123	130	137	133	147	170	173	179
Beef, New York:													
No. 2 rounds, city..... W.	100	112	112	120	107	140	145	157	149	165	231	240	240
Round steak..... R.	100	108	109	116	110	127	135	145	141	154	186	188	193
Beef, New York:													
No. 2 ribs, city..... W.	100	109	106	119	106	132	126	182	156	166	185	202	215
Rib roast..... R.	100	103	104	111	109	124	128	137	135	149	172	172	178
Pork, Chicago:													
Loins..... W.	100	111	101	111	111	161	168	221	181	195	195	215	235
Chops..... R.	100	107	106	114	119	150	154	188	166	174	187	204	224
Pork, New York:													
Loins, western..... W.	100	107	101	109	112	155	155	197	174	181	201	220	257
Chops..... R.	100	106	100	110	114	147	150	184	160	169	187	195	220
Bacon, Chicago:													
Short clear sides..... W.	100	109	89	125	124	172	194	250	237	217	216	211	220
Sliced..... R.	100	108	107	112	107	134	149	162	169	177	186	192	196
Ham, Chicago:													
Smoked..... W.	100	105	98	114	113	146	146	170	180	181	181	195	198
Smoked, sliced..... R.	100	127	123	131	125	144	156	165	161	176	185	190	194
Lard, New York:													
Prime, contract..... W.	100	95	73	121	145	195	183	224	224	239	238	245	247
Pure, tub..... R.	100	98	94	105	133	164	171	196	206	209	201	203	209
Lamb, Chicago:													
Dressed, round..... W.	100	114	128	128	134	148	174	181	161	195	208	195	195
Leg of, yearling..... R.	100	111	105	117	117	133	145	159	155	180	180	179	183
Poultry, New York:													
Dressed fowls..... W.	100	103	96	118	121	146	136	157	164	187	198	192	195
Dressed hens..... R.	100	103	102	120	122	137	134	151	152	192	190	193
Butter, Chicago:													
Creamery, extra..... W.	100	85	85	89	119	142	121	140	158	129	137	140	161
Creamery, extra..... R.	100	86	89	93	121	134	119	135	150	127	133	135	159
Butter, New York:													
Creamery, extra..... W.	100	87	84	88	122	139	122	137	158	128	137	142	163
Creamery, extra..... R.	100	86	88	91	120	134	119	135	150	129	135	136	157
Butter, San Francisco:													
Creamery, extra..... W.	100	77	84	80	112	123	121	145	167	118	158	164	175
Creamery, extra..... R.	100	85	87	86	110	116	117	140	155	116	146	151	163
Milk, Chicago:													
Fresh..... W.	100	95	97	95	118	142	124	195	184	153	139	174	174
Fresh, bottled, delivered..... R.	100	100	100	101	125	125	125	161	149	149	150	155	163
Milk, New York:													
Fresh..... W.	100	86	86	89	146	140	143	206	231	169	154	180	194
Fresh, bottled, delivered..... R.	100	100	100	100	111	121	127	153	167	156	141	156	156
Milk, San Francisco:													
Fresh..... W.	100	100	97	97	97	110	151	169	151	151	151	190	190
Fresh, bottled..... R.	100	100	100	100	100	100	121	121	121	121	121	121	140
Eggs, Chicago:													
Fresh, firsts..... W.	100	83	74	96	215	135	137	164	250	139	162	169	184
Strictly fresh..... R.	100	89	85	101	180	129	139	161	223	130	137	164	178
Eggs, New York:													
Fresh, firsts..... W.	100	86	80	97	203	133	141	161	259	134	161	167	183
Strictly fresh..... R.	100	89	82	94	168	107	120	158	204	120	144	153	165
Eggs, San Francisco:													
Fresh..... W.	100	86	82	90	142	105	119	162	228	136	164	181	228
Strictly fresh..... R.	100	91	83	89	129	100	105	163	190	112	138	154	180
Meal, corn, Chicago:													
Fine..... W.	100	114	136	171	257	321	371	364	429	386	379	321
Fine..... R.	100	97	107	107	145	172	200	245	241	248	234	234	234
Potatoes, Chicago:													
White, good to choice... W.	100	240	70	160	290	470	440	190	200	110	150	290	230
White..... R.	100	180	80	153	260	387	333	187	187	113	247	233	213
Sugar, New York:													
Granulated..... W.	100	98	137	174	153	188	172	191	170	170	172	172	205
Granulated..... R.	100	94	129	161	151	178	171	198	198	180	180	180	200

COMPARISON OF FOOD COSTS IN 45 CITIES, SEPTEMBER, 1917, TO OCTOBER, 1918.

BY ELMA B. CARR.

TREND OF COST OF FOOD IN EACH CITY.

The rapid rise in the prices of commodities during the past few years has given great importance to the effects of price changes upon the cost of living. Heretofore accepted rather as of general significance, retail price quotations are now frankly the concern of every wage-earning individual. Increase of prices is the main argument in every wage demand and a determining factor in arbitrary wage increases. Speculations are legion as to the percentage of increase in the cost of living over given periods of time. Press reports are confusing, conflicting, and misleading. It is pertinent, therefore, to inquire candidly as to the exact extent of retail price changes and their significance in relation to cost of living.

For a number of years the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics has published retail prices of a number of articles of food. These prices are secured through monthly reports of actual selling prices on the 15th of each month from firms in various cities. The stores are selected by agents of the bureau from those patronized by wage earners. The prices quoted are, therefore, the prices paid by working people. Every effort is made to secure quotations on similar grades of commodities in all cities. The number of firms is apportioned according to the importance of the city. At the present time, for the larger cities, 25 quotations are secured for each article of food; for the smaller cities, 15 quotations are secured. The total number of firms quoting prices on one or more articles of food is approximately 2,000. Quite naturally firms are not constant, but when one firm drops out permanently, another firm similar in kind is selected to replace it. Moreover, as the industrial section of a city changes, firms are added or dropped to preserve the character of price quotations. The prices thus secured are a fair indication of what the worker pays for the articles carried.

The number of commodities for which the bureau publishes prices has been added to, as has the number of cities from which prices are quoted. Average prices are now published monthly for 28 articles of food in 50 cities of the United States. Retail prices of commodities other than foods have been published at different times. Prices of eight articles of cotton goods are published twice a year; of coal, twice a year; and of gas, once a year. It is apparent, however, that as compared with securing comparable quotations on uniform grades of foods, there is an almost insurmountable difficulty

in securing such quotations on articles such as wearing apparel. For the purpose of this article, which is to show the price changes of comparable commodities of domestic consumption, only 22 articles of food are considered.

It is not uncommon in popular estimates of increased living cost to add together the percentage increases of various commodities and compute a simple average. In determining the total cost of food a single commodity such as tea, of which the average American family uses but a small amount in relation to the total consumption of food, might show a high percentage of increase in price without materially increasing the total amount spent. To avoid this error, it is necessary to weight each article, that is, give it an importance proportionate to its share in the food consumption of the family. Thus the price of each article of food is multiplied by a number representing the proportion that the food bears to all foods consumed. The weighted cost thus obtained of all articles of food at a given time forms a proper basis of comparison with the weighted cost of all articles of food at any other time.

The weighting or relative importance of each article of food used by the bureau in determining changes in the cost of all articles of food combined is based upon a study of the budgets of 2,567 families of workingmen in different sections of the United States.¹ This investigation resulted in grouping the cities covered into 5 geographical sections, the North Atlantic, the South Atlantic, the North Central, the South Central, and the Western, according to a similarity of habits of food consumption. That is, for the families in the cities of each section, the consumption of each food bore approximately the same relation to all foods consumed. Since the investigation above referred to, other cities have been added in each section. For convenience of reference, the fifty cities from which price quotations are now secured are grouped by geographical sections in the following table:

TABLE 1.—CITIES IN EACH GEOGRAPHICAL SECTION.

North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Boston, Mass. Buffalo, N. Y. Fall River, Mass. Manchester, N. H. Newark, N. J. New Haven, Conn. New York, N. Y. Philadelphia, Pa. Pittsburgh, Pa. Providence, R. I. Scranton, Pa. Bridgeport, Conn. Rochester, N. Y. Portland, Me.	Atlanta, Ga. Baltimore, Md. Charleston, S. C. Jacksonville, Fla. Richmond, Va. Washington, D. C. Norfolk, Va.	Chicago, Ill. Cincinnati, Ohio. Cleveland, Ohio. Detroit, Mich. Indianapolis, Ind. Kansas City, Mo. Milwaukee, Wis. Minneapolis, Minn. Omaha, Nebr. St. Louis, Mo. St. Paul, Minn. Springfield, Ill. Peoria, Ill. Columbus, Ohio.	Birmingham, Ala. Dallas, Tex. Little Rock, Ark. Louisville, Ky. Memphis, Tenn. New Orleans, La. Houston, Tex. Mobile, Ala.	Butte, Mont. Denver, Colo. Los Angeles, Cal. Portland, Oreg. Salt Lake City, Utah. San Francisco, Cal. Seattle, Wash.

For a description of the method and result of the investigation, and a detailed analysis of the determination and use of the weights given to the several articles of food, see Eighteenth Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor and also Bulletin 156 of U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Appendix A.

In the study above mentioned, the relative importance of each of the 22 articles of food, as indicated by the annual consumption of the average family, was found to be as follows:

TABLE 2.—FOOD WEIGHTS—ANNUAL CONSUMPTION PER FAMILY.

Article.	Unit.	United States.	North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound..	70	70	61	73	63	70
Round steak.....	..do..	70	70	61	73	63	70
Rib roast.....	..do..	70	70	61	73	63	70
Chuck roast.....	..do..	70	70	61	73	63	70
Plate beef.....	..do..	70	70	61	73	63	70
Pork chops.....	..do..	114	103	85	153	128	28
Bacon.....	..do..	55	48	111	44	124	38
Ham.....	..do..	55	48	111	44	124	38
Lard.....	..do..	84	74	120	89	143	49
Hens.....	..do..	68	67	74	71	53	54
Bread.....	..do..	² 253	² 310	² 197	² 166	² 200	² 255
Flour.....	..do..	³ 225	³ 276	³ 175	³ 148	³ 178	³ 227
Corn meal.....	..do..	454	416	568	479	653	301
Eggs.....	Dozen..	227	208	284	239	327	151
Butter.....	Pound..	85	86	91	88	85	40
Potatoes.....	..do..	117	119	102	124	89	109
Sugar.....	..do..	882	828	666	1,098	798	618
Milk.....	..do..	269	283	240	253	246	267
Cheese.....	Quart..	355	396	192	348	221	324
Rice.....	Pound..	16	16	15	17	19	4
Coffee.....	..do..	25	22	49	22	47	10
Tea.....	..do..	47	39	61	58	71	25
	..do..	11	13	8	9	5	6

¹ For those cities in which plate is not quoted a weighting of 88 is given to each of the other four cuts of meat.

² Weightings used with prices for 16 ounces of dough.

³ Weightings as used with prices on one pound baked weight. Beginning with August, 1918, prices of bread are quoted by the bureau on a pound baked loaf. The average scaling weight for a baked loaf weighing one pound is 18 ounces, hence in order to obtain a weighting to be used with prices on the pound baked loaf, the weights which were formerly used with prices for 16 ounces of dough have been reduced one-ninth.

Not only do foods vary in consequence in relation to each other in each section but they have a different significance in different sections. A change in the price of potatoes in the North Central section, for example, would affect much more materially the total food cost than a like percentage change in the same commodity in other sections, because of the greater amount consumed.

Table 3 shows for each city the percentage changes as compared with September, 1917, in the prices of 22 articles of food combined, for each month during the period September, 1917, to October, 1918. In arriving at the percentage changes for the different months the average price of each article of food in each city has been weighted in accordance with the importance indicated in Table 2 for the particular section in which that city is located. For each particular city the combined weighted cost thus obtained of all articles of food for the month of September, 1917, has been used as a base in determining changes for the months subsequent to September, 1917.

TABLE 3.—TREND OF FOOD COSTS IN 45 CITIES DURING THE MONTHS SEPTEMBER, ARTICLES OF

City.	1917			
	September.	October.	November.	December.
Atlanta, Ga.....	100.00	104.98	105.16	106.02
Baltimore, Md.....	100.00	101.37	101.04	103.01
Birmingham, Ala.....	100.00	101.75	100.74	103.16
Boston, Mass.....	100.00	100.80	100.62	101.56
Bridgeport, Conn.....	100.00	103.22	101.6C	101.69
Buffalo, N. Y.....	100.00	103.05	103.45	104.29
Butte, Mont.....	100.00	100.85	101.13	101.91
Charleston, S. C.....	100.00	105.75	106.30	104.74
Chicago, Ill.....	100.00	101.25	99.00	99.99
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	100.00	101.04	99.55	102.45
Cleveland, Ohio.....	100.00	100.71	99.23	100.36
Columbus, Ohio.....	100.00	100.75	99.09	99.95
Dallas, Tex.....	100.00	103.37	102.00	102.52
Denver, Colo.....	100.00	99.76	99.27	100.32
Detroit, Mich.....	100.00	99.55	97.00	99.96
Fall River, Mass.....	100.00	101.07	101.16	102.52
Indianapolis, Ind.....	100.00	101.46	99.67	99.50
Jacksonville, Fla.....	100.00	104.06	105.89	106.41
Kansas City, Mo.....	100.00	102.41	101.72	105.11
Little Rock, Ark.....	100.00	101.98	98.77	100.86
Los Angeles, Cal.....	100.00	103.87	99.75	102.29
Louisville, Ky.....	100.00	107.13	103.67	105.15
Manchester, N. H.....	100.00	102.11	100.28	100.89
Memphis, Tenn.....	100.00	104.19	102.74	104.39
Milwaukee, Wis.....	100.00	100.76	97.42	100.04
Minneapolis, Minn.....	100.00	101.49	97.12	100.16
Newark, N. J.....	100.00	104.14	101.57	104.32
New Haven, Conn.....	100.00	102.97	100.98	100.56
New Orleans, La.....	100.00	104.24	104.20	104.67
New York, N. Y.....	100.00	103.64	101.27	103.89
Omaha, Nebr.....	100.00	100.17	99.02	100.41
Philadelphia, Pa.....	100.00	101.57	101.21	103.41
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	100.00	101.27	100.10	101.81
Portland, Oreg.....	100.00	100.46	101.75	101.46
Providence, R. I.....	100.00	101.90	101.16	100.75
Richmond, Va.....	100.00	103.38	103.55	105.01
Rochester, N. Y.....	100.00	103.90	102.53	103.03
St. Louis, Mo.....	100.00	101.89	99.25	101.13
St. Paul, Minn.....	100.00	100.72	96.44	98.42
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	100.00	98.35	98.01	98.28
San Francisco, Cal.....	100.00	102.18	102.19	102.70
Scranton, Pa.....	100.00	102.87	102.87	104.11
Seattle, Wash.....	100.00	101.66	101.99	101.52
Springfield, Ill.....	100.00	101.77	98.54	99.75
Washington, D. C.....	100.00	102.26	103.37	105.74
United States.....	100.00	101.81	101.26	102.54

1917, TO OCTOBER, 1918, INCLUSIVE, AS INDICATED BY THE WEIGHTED COST OF 23 FOOD COMBINED.

1918									
January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.
108.31	104.97	104.22	105.13	107.51	110.47	112.79	116.87	119.89	122.39
107.28	106.54	100.78	101.40	104.23	109.64	112.32	115.25	123.35	124.59
103.69	101.46	98.09	99.91	100.97	103.29	106.71	108.70	114.18	117.32
102.88	102.85	96.90	97.89	100.58	106.30	111.04	112.56	115.48	118.14
104.17	104.81	97.52	97.91	100.25	106.42	109.09	111.30	114.44	117.14
107.61	107.32	102.25	100.79	103.83	106.39	111.49	113.32	116.54	119.20
102.88	102.41	100.58	101.07	103.60	104.56	108.00	111.63	110.83	111.93
111.19	111.84	107.44	107.67	111.94	110.78	112.68	116.51	120.25	126.07
103.68	103.79	97.70	98.26	101.46	105.58	109.06	110.73	115.73	114.68
104.56	105.58	100.07	99.68	102.38	103.16	107.02	107.82	114.71	116.01
102.99	103.92	97.19	97.87	100.25	105.00	108.52	111.00	115.89	113.71
103.93	103.49	94.72	96.34	99.58	103.41	109.18	110.45	114.95	116.12
106.35	104.18	103.17	102.06	105.02	103.80	107.64	110.53	114.34	117.44
100.96	102.17	98.51	101.31	107.45	109.12	112.81	111.95	116.09	116.78
103.90	104.83	98.62	97.05	100.12	103.79	109.74	111.35	116.14	114.34
103.77	103.96	100.16	100.28	105.54	109.40	112.26	114.13	117.64	119.95
106.03	102.12	95.48	96.64	97.31	103.02	106.07	107.72	113.63	111.60
109.46	108.75	104.98	104.14	105.86	107.28	108.89	112.74	116.41	121.81
104.39	105.64	101.04	101.34	103.56	107.56	109.55	111.69	116.64	119.17
101.06	102.76	99.74	99.72	103.88	106.36	108.08	111.63	114.48	116.05
106.04	104.95	105.14	102.84	106.32	107.22	111.53	115.38	119.49	123.32
109.44	106.99	103.01	102.87	104.73	105.72	108.07	108.76	117.92	119.92
101.47	104.14	99.29	99.63	103.72	108.62	112.16	113.43	115.63	119.31
108.71	105.77	102.96	103.64	106.39	107.51	110.83	112.78	119.12	121.24
102.28	103.75	97.30	96.40	99.27	102.01	107.38	108.60	113.81	113.84
102.43	103.87	98.47	98.86	101.48	105.06	109.27	108.17	111.97	115.83
108.14	106.55	100.39	101.91	104.37	109.56	111.19	112.03	118.63	119.44
103.40	105.20	98.68	99.98	103.25	110.41	113.10	114.23	117.00	119.36
105.91	105.39	101.46	100.48	101.81	103.06	106.51	109.31	114.91	120.73
107.32	105.74	100.25	100.69	102.07	106.78	108.77	111.00	116.47	118.89
102.71	101.47	96.88	98.34	103.08	106.35	110.91	110.68	115.46	117.09
106.92	106.84	99.79	100.45	104.83	103.43	112.31	112.66	118.42	119.30
106.18	107.47	100.62	100.29	102.75	107.42	108.90	110.28	116.00	116.89
102.79	104.72	102.50	102.55	110.36	109.93	113.58	117.71	119.95	122.36
103.94	103.53	99.61	100.43	103.23	107.38	111.11	113.14	115.11	118.73
106.10	108.83	102.91	103.91	106.94	110.64	112.91	114.46	120.63	122.20
105.46	105.34	99.24	98.51	101.98	105.55	110.24	111.59	115.22	116.81
104.52	103.32	98.04	97.71	99.98	105.00	106.60	110.64	115.18	116.48
103.07	103.98	98.37	97.92	101.36	104.88	108.24	108.49	112.37	114.71
99.01	100.34	96.77	97.27	101.71	101.92	107.28	106.70	109.98	113.35
106.82	105.57	104.61	102.14	107.87	109.31	111.81	114.72	120.61	124.97
106.95	107.12	101.63	101.29	107.94	111.62	116.55	118.83	121.28	123.71
104.41	105.92	103.88	102.68	110.92	111.04	115.82	120.66	123.01	125.58
102.53	103.18	95.76	97.19	100.37	103.80	106.22	107.52	110.98	110.60
109.23	107.36	102.54	102.14	107.34	110.75	112.99	114.83	119.38	124.99
104.82	105.32	99.98	100.13	103.40	105.88	109.51	111.84	116.35	118.37

FOOD COSTS IN 45 CITIES COMPARED.

In previous retail price publications of the bureau no attempt has been made to show a comparison as between cities or sections. Percentage increases of all articles of food combined have been shown for the United States as a whole, for sections, and lately for cities, but while the trend could thus be clearly seen, it was impossible to determine how sections or cities stood in relation to each other. The reason for not attempting such a comparison was due in large measure to incomplete quotations from individual cities, to changing firms and the possibility of changing grades of commodities, to the difficulty of securing quotations on identical commodities in different cities, as well as to the different weightings or relative importance of foods in different sections. Moreover, the weightings determined by an investigation of the expenditures of 2,567 workingmen's families were not worked out on the basis of a standard family. Thus, in the North Atlantic section the average family was made up of 5.25 persons; in the South Atlantic of 5.30; in the North Central of 5.46; in the South Central of 5.65; in the Western of 4.69, whereas the average for the United States was 5.31. Obviously consumption weights based upon families of different sizes would impair the accuracy of comparisons as between different sections or cities in different sections.

In the past there has been little demand for the comparison indicated above. With the increase, however, in governmental control and regulation of industry as a war measure, and particularly in the attempt to standardize wages, the need has become imperative for a comparison of prices in relation to the cost of living in different industrial centers. Two issues are paramount: First, do we have a standard price for the articles the worker must buy so that with the standard wage he would be relatively as well off in one city as in another, and, second, if such a standard price does not prevail, will steps be taken to establish it concurrently with the standard wage?

The argument for a standard wage does not arise solely as a war issue. In the first concerted movement of the railway brotherhoods, it was stated by their spokesman that it cost practically the same to live whether it be in the East, West, North, or South. Prior to this the men in each of the great railroad sections had in turn asked for wage differentials on the basis of differential costs of living. Even now employees in different industrial centers set up the claim of excessive living expenses in their particular localities. On the other hand, the introduction of the standard wage, though perhaps a war measure, is not in a purely experimental stage. The Wage Adjustment Board of the Shipping Board has established a uniform scale for the shipyards on the Pacific coast and a slightly lower uniform

scale for those on the Atlantic and Gulf coasts. The National Adjustment Commission of the Shipping Board has recently established a uniform rate for longshoremen on the Atlantic coast. The National War Labor Board has applied the principle of the standard wage in a number of industries. Each of these adjustments has raised the question of the relative cost of living in different sections.

The following table compares the cost of the principal articles of food in 45 cities with that in the United States as a whole, for each of the 12 months, September, 1917, to August, 1918, inclusive, and for the 12 months' period. Briefly, the method used is as follows: The average retail price for the United States of each of 22 articles of food has been weighted according to the average annual consumption in the United States as determined by the investigation of the expenditures of 2,567 workingmen's families. The sum of the weighted costs thus obtained for each month has been used as a base with which to compare figures similarly obtained in each of the cities, using for each city the weightings established for the geographical section in which the city is located and reducing the amounts to an average family of 5.31 persons. One illustration will suffice. The cost in September, 1917, of a year's supply of the 22 articles of food based on the average retail price in September for the United States as a whole and weighted according to the average yearly consumption in the United States, was \$525.78. The cost of a year's supply of the 22 articles of food in Portland, Oreg., based on the average retail prices in Portland for September, and on the annual weightings for the Western section, was \$370.76; but the average family upon which the weightings of the Western section was based was 4.69 persons. On the basis of a family of 5.31 persons, the amount would be \$419.77. This amount divided by \$525.78, the cost for the United States, gives 79.84, the percentage relation of Portland to the average for the United States. Similar computations for other cities and for other months have been made. In computing the average for the 12 months' period, prices for the 12 months were first averaged and weighted costs then computed as above.

TABLE 4.—COMPARISON OF THE COST OF FOOD IN 45 CITIES

City.	1917			
	September.	October.	November.	December.
United States	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00
Atlanta, Ga.....	102.51	105.71	106.46	106.00
Baltimore, Md.....	103.45	103.00	103.23	103.93
Birmingham, Ala.....	107.85	107.78	107.30	108.50
Boston, Mass.....	112.52	111.40	111.81	111.44
Bridgeport, Conn.....	109.22	110.74	109.59	108.32
Buffalo, N. Y.....	97.49	98.68	99.60	99.16
Butte, Mont.....	89.97	89.13	89.86	89.42
Charleston, S. C.....	100.59	104.49	105.60	102.75
Chicago, Ill.....	95.46	94.93	93.33	93.09
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	96.43	95.71	94.82	96.35
Cleveland, Ohio.....	101.20	100.11	99.18	99.05
Columbus, Ohio.....	99.44	98.40	97.31	96.94
Dallas, Tex.....	105.69	107.31	106.46	105.67
Denver, Colo.....	80.83	79.21	79.25	79.08
Detroit, Mich.....	99.68	97.46	96.08	97.18
Fall River, Mass.....	108.05	107.27	107.95	108.03
Indianapolis, Ind.....	98.34	98.00	96.79	95.42
Jacksonville, Fla.....	103.51	105.80	108.24	107.42
Kansas City, Mo.....	95.59	96.16	96.03	97.99
Little Rock, Ark.....	107.50	107.68	104.86	105.73
Los Angeles, Cal.....	80.64	82.27	79.44	80.45
Louisville, Ky.....	100.20	105.45	102.59	102.75
Manchester, N. H.....	108.69	109.02	107.64	106.94
Memphis, Tenn.....	100.57	102.92	102.04	102.39
Milwaukee, Wis.....	95.76	94.77	92.13	93.43
Minneapolis, Minn.....	90.13	89.85	86.46	88.05
Newark, N. J.....	105.01	107.41	105.33	106.83
New Haven, Conn.....	111.82	113.09	111.52	109.66
New Orleans, La.....	101.49	103.92	104.45	103.60
New York, N. Y.....	104.72	106.61	104.73	106.10
Omaha, Nebr.....	96.17	92.75	94.05	94.18
Philadelphia, Pa.....	104.20	103.96	104.15	105.09
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	104.44	103.89	103.26	103.71
Portland, Ore.....	79.84	78.78	80.23	79.00
Providence, R. I.....	115.16	115.27	115.05	113.16
Richmond, Va.....	102.43	104.01	104.75	104.90
Rochester, N. Y.....	99.56	101.62	100.81	100.04
St. Louis, Mo.....	96.69	96.77	94.77	95.36
St. Paul, Minn.....	92.40	91.41	88.00	88.69
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	83.30	80.46	80.62	79.84
San Francisco, Cal.....	80.01	80.31	80.75	80.15
Scranton, Pa.....	97.70	98.72	99.26	99.21
Seattle, Wash.....	80.43	80.32	81.02	79.64
Springfield, Ill.....	100.65	100.61	97.95	97.91
Washington, D. C.....	106.52	106.99	108.74	109.85

DURING THE PERIOD SEPTEMBER, 1917, TO AUGUST 1918.

1918								Year.
January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	
100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00	
105.93	102.17	106.80	107.58	106.59	106.96	105.58	107.13	105.84
105.88	104.65	103.86	104.34	104.28	107.13	106.10	106.50	104.72
106.68	103.89	107.53	109.37	105.31	105.21	105.08	104.81	106.09
110.44	109.88	109.21	110.16	109.45	112.96	114.08	113.24	111.43
108.54	108.69	106.42	106.68	105.89	109.78	108.81	108.69	108.33
100.08	99.34	99.45	97.89	97.89	97.96	99.24	98.72	98.74
88.31	87.48	90.36	90.66	90.15	88.85	88.73	89.49	89.36
106.70	106.83	107.71	107.78	108.90	105.25	103.50	104.86	105.66
92.61	94.07	93.15	93.54	93.67	95.19	95.06	94.46	94.20
96.19	96.67	96.06	95.54	95.48	93.95	94.24	92.95	95.28
99.43	99.85	98.03	98.56	98.12	100.36	100.28	100.40	99.63
98.60	97.71	94.25	95.72	95.76	97.12	99.14	98.19	97.20
107.23	104.54	110.88	109.53	107.34	103.61	103.88	104.44	105.96
77.85	78.41	79.48	81.61	84.00	83.31	83.27	80.62	80.60
98.81	99.21	97.86	96.15	96.52	97.71	99.88	99.22	99.95
106.97	106.65	108.31	108.27	110.28	111.65	110.76	110.31	108.69
99.47	95.35	94.07	95.07	92.54	95.68	95.24	94.70	95.73
108.09	106.88	108.78	107.75	105.98	104.88	102.92	104.31	106.22
95.20	95.88	95.98	97.12	95.74	97.11	95.63	95.43	96.14
103.64	104.88	109.05	108.87	107.99	107.98	106.08	107.41	106.40
81.58	80.36	84.73	82.75	82.92	81.66	82.12	83.06	81.88
104.62	101.79	104.50	104.20	101.49	100.05	98.88	97.38	101.71
107.29	107.48	107.91	108.11	109.02	111.50	111.32	110.19	108.84
104.31	101.00	105.03	105.57	103.48	102.12	101.78	101.44	102.14
93.44	112.39	93.02	92.03	91.93	92.26	93.89	92.92	93.23
88.08	88.90	88.74	88.95	88.46	89.43	89.93	87.14	88.65
108.33	106.24	105.24	106.67	105.99	108.65	106.62	105.12	106.35
110.30	111.69	110.45	111.74	111.66	116.61	115.49	114.26	112.60
102.55	101.56	104.18	103.02	99.93	98.79	98.71	99.02	101.34
107.22	105.14	105.02	105.32	103.37	105.61	104.01	103.82	104.99
94.24	92.47	93.40	94.67	95.88	96.59	97.40	95.17	94.85
106.29	105.70	103.85	104.38	105.64	107.69	106.87	104.88	105.26
105.80	106.58	104.37	103.88	103.79	105.97	103.86	102.87	104.36
78.29	79.38	82.15	82.07	85.21	83.27	82.80	83.94	81.10
114.20	113.20	114.80	115.57	114.97	116.79	116.84	116.60	115.02
103.68	105.84	105.31	106.17	105.92	107.02	105.60	104.83	105.06
100.17	99.58	98.58	97.71	98.20	99.25	100.22	99.28	99.70
96.41	94.85	95.03	94.57	93.49	95.88	94.11	95.62	95.14
90.85	91.23	91.04	90.49	90.57	91.52	91.32	89.61	90.73
78.68	79.36	80.27	80.56	81.93	80.18	81.60	79.48	80.61
81.54	80.20	83.44	81.35	83.47	82.61	81.70	81.88	81.48
99.69	99.38	98.77	98.29	101.99	103.00	103.98	103.79	102.42
80.12	80.90	83.68	82.59	86.29	84.35	85.07	86.67	82.72
98.45	98.61	97.18	98.49	97.70	98.67	97.62	96.78	98.26
111.01	108.58	109.01	108.43	110.58	111.42	109.90	109.28	109.25

The 22 articles of food entering into the weighted costs upon which the above percentages were based constitute approximately 65 per cent of the total expenditure for food. It will be observed that, as compared with the average for the United States, there is a wide differential as between the different cities. The range is more strikingly presented in Table 5, which shows the cities arranged in order from lowest to highest, and also the percentage that each is of the lowest. It can be seen that as between Denver, Colo., and Providence, R. I., for the 12 months' period, there is a difference of 42.7 per cent.

This differential is due both to the differences in the prices of the commodities and to the manner of living in the different sections.

TABLE 5.—FORTY-FIVE CITIES ARRANGED IN ORDER OF FOOD COSTS BASED ON AVERAGE PRICES FOR YEAR ENDING AUGUST, 1918.

City.	Percentage relation as compared with—	
	United States=100.00.	Denver=100.00.
Denver, Colo.....	80.60	100.00
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	80.61	100.01
Portland, Oreg.....	81.10	100.62
San Francisco, Cal.....	81.48	101.09
Los Angeles, Cal.....	81.88	101.59
Seattle, Wash.....	82.72	102.63
Minneapolis, Minn.....	88.65	109.99
Butte, Mont.....	89.36	110.86
St. Paul, Minn.....	90.73	112.57
Milwaukee, Wis.....	93.23	115.66
Chicago, Ill.....	94.20	116.88
Omaha, Nebr.....	94.85	117.68
St. Louis, Mo.....	95.14	118.03
Cincinnati, Ohio.....	95.28	118.20
Indianapolis, Ind.....	95.73	118.76
Kansas City, Mo.....	96.14	119.28
Columbus, Ohio.....	97.20	120.59
Springfield, Ill.....	98.26	121.90
Buffalo, N. Y.....	98.74	122.50
Cleveland, Ohio.....	99.63	123.61
Rochester, N. Y.....	99.70	123.69
Detroit, Mich.....	99.95	124.00
New Orleans, La.....	101.34	125.99
Louisville, Ky.....	101.71	126.18
Memphis, Tenn.....	102.14	126.72
Scranton, Pa.....	102.42	127.07
Pittsburgh, Pa.....	104.36	129.47
Baltimore, Md.....	104.72	129.91
New York, N. Y.....	104.99	130.25
Richmond, Va.....	105.06	130.34
Philadelphia, Pa.....	105.26	130.59
Charleston, S. C.....	105.66	131.09
Atlanta, Ga.....	105.84	131.30
Dallas, Tex.....	105.96	131.45
Birmingham, Ala.....	106.09	131.62
Jacksonville, Fla.....	106.22	131.78
Newark, N. J.....	106.35	131.95
Little Rock, Ark.....	106.40	132.00
Bridgeport, Conn.....	108.33	134.40
Fall River, Mass.....	108.69	134.85
Manchester, N. H.....	108.84	135.03
Washington, D. C.....	109.25	135.54
Boston, Mass.....	111.43	138.25
New Haven, Conn.....	112.60	139.70
Providence, R. I.....	115.02	142.70

It must, of course, be kept in mind that the percentages shown in the above tables are based entirely on food costs, that food constitutes only about 40 per cent of the total expenditures of a family, and that the 22 articles of food constitute only about 65 per cent of the total expenditure for food. It is possible, too, that other items in the family budget will lessen the differential. In so far, however, as the 22 articles of food may be taken as an indication of the cost of living, there is shown a decided lack of uniformity as between cities.

FARM PRICES AND RETAIL PRICES COMPARED.

Under this caption the Monthly Crop Report of the United States Department of Agriculture for September, 1918, presents a comparison of average retail prices with prices received by the producer for certain important food articles on July 15 of each year since 1913. The retail prices are those compiled by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, while the farm prices are from the Bureau of Crop Estimates. In cases where the article is not sold by the retailer in the same form in which it leaves the farm, an equivalent has been computed for use as a basis in comparing the retail with the farm price.

Item.	July 15—					
	1918	1917	1916	1915	1914	1913
Flour:						
Retail.....	6.7	7.2	3.8	4.1	3.2	3.3
Wheat equivalent..... per bush. wheat..	\$2.91	\$3.13	\$1.65	\$1.78	\$1.39	\$1.44
Wheat, farm..... per bush..	\$2.04	\$2.24	\$1.00	\$1.05	\$0.77	\$0.80
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	70	72	61	59	55	56
Potatoes:						
Retail.....	3.9	4.3	2.3	1.5	2.7	1.
Equivalent..... per bush..	\$2.34	\$2.58	\$1.38	\$0.90	\$1.62	\$1.59
Farm price..... do.....	\$1.18	\$2.09	\$0.99	\$0.54	\$0.84	\$0.64
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	50	81	72	60	52	39
Onions:						
Retail.....	5.3	5.1	5.3	3.5
Equivalent..... per bush..	\$3.02	\$2.91	\$3.02	\$2.00
Farm price..... do.....	\$1.63	\$2.01	\$1.47	\$0.93
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	54	69	49	46
Beans:						
Retail.....	17.3	19.5	11.7	7.6
Equivalent..... per bush..	\$10.38	\$11.70	\$7.02	\$4.56
Farm price..... do.....	\$5.88	\$8.07	\$5.09	\$2.75
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	57	69	73	60
Eggs:						
Retail.....	49.1	42.0	31.9	27.8	30.0	30.0
Farm price..... do.....	33.0	29.0	19.9	16.3	17.5	16.4
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	67	69	62	59	58	55
Hens, retail.....						
.....	38.0	28.0	24.1	20.8	21.9	21.7
Chickens, farm price.....						
.....	23.2	17.4	14.1	12.2	13.4	13.0
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	61	62	59	59	61	60
Round steak:						
Retail.....	40.3	30.6	26.0	24.0	24.5	23.3
Equivalent cattle, live weight, dressing
54 per cent..... per 100 lbs..	\$21.76	\$16.52	\$14.04	\$12.96	\$13.23	\$12.58
Beef cattle, farm..... do.....	\$10.07	\$8.30	\$6.78	\$6.07	\$6.38	\$5.98
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	46	50	48	47	48	43
Ham:						
Retail.....	48.7	39.6	32.3	26.5	27.9	28.2
Equivalent hogs, live weight, dressing
76 per cent..... per 100 lbs..	\$37.01	\$30.10	\$24.55	\$20.14	\$21.20	\$21.43
Hogs, farm..... do.....	\$15.58	\$13.35	\$8.40	\$6.84	\$7.72	\$7.81
Ratio, farm to retail price..... per cent..	42	44	34	34	36	33

The increase in the price of several articles during the last three years is shown by the relative figures in the next table. In this table the average of the 60 monthly prices during the five years 1913 to 1917 is, in each case, taken as 100.

Item.	July 15—			
	1918	1917	1916	1915
Flour, retail price, United States.....	154	166	87	94
Wheat, farm price, United States.....	163	180	80	84
Potatoes, retail price, United States.....	156	172	92	60
Potatoes, farm price, United States.....	130	230	109	60
Round steak, retail price, United States.....	161	122	104	96
Beef cattle, farm price, United States.....	151	124	102	91
Hams, retail price, United States.....	162	132	108	88
Hogs, farm price, United States.....	171	147	92	75
Hens, retail price, United States.....	167	123	106	92
Chickens, farm price, United States.....	174	130	106	92
Eggs, retail price, United States.....	128	109	83	72
Eggs, farm price, United States.....	132	116	80	65

GENERAL INDEX NUMBERS OF FOOD PRICES ON A NUTRITIVE VALUE BASE.

In a pamphlet bearing the above title the Food Administration has published two series of index numbers constructed after a somewhat novel method, the first indicating the trend of prices received by the producer of basic foodstuffs and the second showing the trend of food prices at wholesale. It is stated that "the general plan followed in calculating these indices is to weight the quoted prices of each commodity by a factor proportional to the nutritive value of the normal production or crop of that commodity, the total energy content as measured in calories being taken as the measure of nutritive value."

Twenty commodities are included in the list used for the index of producer's prices. These are wheat, corn, oats, rye, barley, cabbage, onions, potatoes, sweet potatoes, buckwheat, apples, butter, eggs, fresh milk, chickens, hogs, beef cattle, sheep, peanuts, and beans. The prices used are from the Monthly Crop Reports of the United States Department of Agriculture or from manuscript data furnished by that department.

In the index number of wholesale prices 26 commodities are included as follows: Wheat flour, rye flour, oatmeal, corn meal, sugar, potatoes, onions, beans, peanuts, rice, evaporated milk, condensed milk, eggs, butter, cheese, margarine, lard, ham, bacon, carcass beef, mutton, fowl, canned peas, tomatoes, salmon, and sardines. The prices used in the compilation are those appearing in the weekly

report on wholesale prices issued by the United States Food Administration to certain of its members, but not published.

As stated in the pamphlet, the distinguishing characteristic of these price indexes is the method of weighting employed. "In food price index numbers hitherto devised weighting has either been lacking entirely or has been based upon some sort of commercial factor, such as, for example, the amounts of the several commodities entering into trade or exchange. Here the basis of the weighting is the relative physiological significance of the several food commodities in the nutrition of the Nation. The nutritional significance of each commodity is assumed to be sufficiently represented by its energy content measured in calories." The base period comprises three fiscal years before the war, except in a few cases where crop years were used. The food value of the average production of each commodity during that period was expressed in calories and the value of wheat so expressed was taken as 100. The value of each of the other commodities was in turn related to the value of wheat on the new basis and the resulting relative figures were divided by the number of pounds in the unit of price quotations. For example, the relative figure for wheat, 100, was divided by 60 (the number of pounds in a bushel), giving 1.6667, the weighting factor for this commodity. Similarly, the relative figure for corn being found to be 371.08, as compared with 100 for wheat, this was divided by 56 (the number of pounds in a bushel), obtaining 6.6264 as the weighting factor for corn. The absolute index number for any period is "the weighted average price per pound of the several commodities entering into the index, when the weighting of each quoted commodity price is in proportion to the food value, expressed in calories, of the average production of that commodity in the three years preceding the war." It is pointed out that "the necessary adjustment for differences in the units on which prices of different commodities are quoted (e. g., barrel, bushel, hundredweight, pound, etc.) is incorporated in the weighting factor, to the end of simplicity in computation." Most of the food values used are taken from "The Chemical Composition of American Food Materials," by W. O. Atwater and A. P. Bryant, while the food values for the grains are from "Feeds and Feeding," by Henry and Morrison.

To facilitate comparison between the producer's index and the wholesale price index, the absolute figures for both have been changed to relative figures, the base for the transposition being the three-year average (1911, 1912, and 1913) of the absolute figures, in each instance. Reduced to this form, the two series of index numbers follow.

RELATIVE PRODUCER'S PRICE INDEX.

Month.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
January.....	92	103	90	106	115	108	149	217
February.....	89	104	92	106	115	108	157	218
March.....	88	107	93	106	114	114	171	218
April.....	88	116	96	106	117	114	210	219
May.....	88	117	96	107	116	110	216	218
June.....	92	113	99	106	111	113	212
July.....	97	109	101	107	112	118	229
August.....	99	106	108	115	107	125	215
September.....	101	103	109	114	103	130	219
October.....	100	99	106	108	101	136	206
November.....	100	91	107	106	98	142	196
December.....	100	90	106	108	102	141	204

RELATIVE WHOLESALE PRICE INDEX.

Month.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
January.....	97	106	102	101	113	114	146	190
February.....	92	103	101	99	114	114	152	191
March.....	90	102	101	97	109	116	157	178
April.....	87	104	101	94	111	120	179	180
May.....	88	104	98	96	111	120	193	179
June.....	89	101	98	97	106	118	185
July.....	93	99	99	99	106	120	177
August.....	98	100	100	111	102	127	184
September.....	101	103	102	116	99	132	188
October.....	104	105	101	112	105	143	188
November.....	105	105	104	113	109	149	188
December.....	106	106	103	112	114	144	191

FOOD CONDITIONS IN BRAZIL.

The burden of the high cost of living is reported to have become so great in Brazil that the Government has found it necessary to consider the advisability of placing restrictions upon the exportation of foodstuffs so as to stabilize the commercial situation. The American vice consul at Rio De Janeiro, who communicates this information, states that to this end the President of Brazil, by decree No. 13069 of June 12, 1918, authorized the creation of a department of food administration to consist of one commissioner and such assistants as may be deemed necessary, who shall perform the following duties:

1. Investigate weekly the supply of foodstuffs and other products of prime necessity stored in warehouses and other depositories, in order to determine the quantity, quality, and origin of the goods.
2. Ascertain the cost of production of these products, the buying prices at the centers of production or upon entering the markets, and the selling prices to consumers.
3. Purchase these products, if it be necessary, or requisition them for the sake of the public need, in accordance with the exigencies of the present state of war, and make a suitable distribution thereof.
4. Enter into agreements with the warehouses for the sale of such products in stipulated quantities and at fixed prices, or establish warehouses to the same end.
5. Assist workmen's cooperative organizations in every way possible in order that their objects may be attained.
6. Take whatever other steps may be necessary to the establishment of an equitable balance between the requirements of exportation and those of domestic consumption.

COST OF LIVING IN RIO DE JANEIRO.

It appears from a report by the American vice consul at Rio de Janeiro, furnished this bureau by the State Department, that the cost of living in that city "has produced a condition whereby it is almost impossible for those people who receive low wages to purchase the necessities of life." This is indicated by the following figures which show the percentages of advance in prices, 1917 over 1913, of certain staples of domestic production and of foreign production:

DOMESTIC PRODUCTS.		IMPORTED PRODUCTS.	
	Per cent.		Per cent.
Peanuts.....	46.0	Rice.....	85.8
Rice.....	44.1	Olive oil.....	74.1
Sugar.....	70.2	Codfish.....	109.2
Lard, transported by rail.....	14.4	Lard.....	50.0
Lard, transported by steamer.....	31.9	Onions.....	60.3
Pork.....	19.2	Wheat flour.....	198.9
Mandioc flour.....	95.6	Beans.....	143.9
Beans.....	25.2	Kerosene.....	118.0
Butter, transported by railway....	16.8	Condensed milk.....	56.8
Butter, transported by steamer....	98.8	Corn.....	104.4
Yerba maté.....	3.5	Wheat.....	267.9
Tapioca.....	167.9	Jerked beef.....	56.6
Starch.....	137.7		
Jerked beef (maximum quotation)	60.3		

INCREASE IN FOOD PRICES IN FRANCE, 1914 TO 1918.

The French Minister of Labor recently instituted an inquiry into the prices of food commodities, covering the period from the first quarter of 1914 to the end of the second quarter of 1918, in towns having more than 10,000 inhabitants, according to an article published in *L'Economiste Français*, a translation of which has been furnished by the United States consul general at Paris.

The plan pursued by the Minister of Labor was to take the prices of a fixed weight of 13 articles (including petroleum and wood alcohol) selected according to their relative importance in ordinary consumption. The weights represent the quantities which are shown by experts to be the amount consumed in a year by a household of four persons of the laboring class living in Paris, and are as follows:

Bread.....pounds..	1,540	Potatoes.....pounds..	550
Meat.....do....	440	Beans.....do....	66
Bacon.....do....	44	Sugar.....do....	44
Butter.....do....	44	Oil.....do....	22
Eggs.....	240	Petroleum.....pints..	52
Milk.....gallons..	66	Wood alcohol.....do....	17½
Cheese.....pounds..	44		

The Minister of Labor then calculated, from information supplied by mayors of various places, the current prices of these articles at the different periods, giving the following average results for the whole of France:

	Francs.
1st quarter, 1911.....	1, 014 (\$195.70)
1st quarter, 1913.....	1, 020 (196.86)
3d quarter, 1914.....	1, 004 (193.77)
1st quarter, 1915.....	1, 105 (213.27)
3d quarter, 1915.....	1, 235 (238.36)
1st quarter, 1916.....	1, 336 (257.85)
2d quarter, 1916.....	1, 379 (266.15)
3d quarter, 1916.....	1, 420 (274.06)
4th quarter, 1916.....	1, 466 (282.94)
1st quarter, 1917.....	1, 547 (298.57)
2d quarter, 1917.....	1, 717 (331.38)
3d quarter, 1917.....	1, 845 (356.09)
4th quarter, 1917.....	2, 008 (387.54)
1st quarter, 1918.....	2, 120 (409.16)
2d quarter, 1918.....	2, 331 (449.88)

COST OF LIVING IN SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES.

Information received from a representative in Denmark of the Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, indicates that all of the Scandinavian Governments are giving constant attention to the advancing cost of living and are taking steps to ascertain actual conditions and to remedy, as far as possible, the discrepancies between the necessary expenses and the earning power of the people, especially of the laboring classes. One method of relief is the fixing of maximum prices of goods for domestic consumption. When these are fixed low enough to satisfy the consumers, the domestic producers usually complain that they are below the cost of production and so the Government undertakes to equalize this by fixing high minimum prices for products available for export. For example, it is stated that the maximum price which the retailer was permitted to charge for butter in Denmark, August 12, 1918, was 3.2 crowns per kilogram (39 cents per pound), while the export price was fixed at 8 crowns per kilogram (97 cents per pound). The cost of production is estimated at 48 cents per pound. It thus happens that if the producer receives only 37 cents per pound for domestic butter he loses 11 cents on that, but on the other hand he makes 49 cents on all he is permitted to export (that is, the surplus over home requirements). When the producer exports as much as 19 per cent of the production at the above price he does not lose on the whole. At the date of the report (August 12, 1918) production was at the rate of about 70,000 tons per year while the consumption was 50,000 tons, leaving 20,000 tons for export, which

is 28.6 per cent of the production. This would indicate that the butter regulations are protecting both the consumer and the producer. In order to cover any loss that the Government may sustain through the fixing of low minimum prices on imported articles or on domestic products like wheat, which is not exported in large quantities, increased taxation is resorted to, which is generally regulated to bear hardest on the largest incomes.

Salary increases are another method of relief, these advances being at present arranged to favor the laborer more than the middle-class salaried man. "It is claimed that a butcher's clerk now receives in salary and bonus more than a university professor." From time to time the Scandinavian Governments publish tables showing the variations in cost of a standard household budget. In Denmark and Sweden such budget for 1914 shows a total annual expenditure of 2,000 crowns (\$536). In Norway the budget as published is 1,528 crowns (\$409.50). The report includes the following table which shows the variations in these costs, the Norway budget, for the sake of uniformity, being calculated to the basis of 2,000 crowns.

COST OF STANDARD HOUSEHOLD BUDGETS IN SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES IN SPECIFIED MONTHS OF 1918 AS COMPARED WITH JULY, 1914.

Item.	Norway.			Sweden.			Denmark.		
	July, 1914.	March, 1918.		July, 1914.	April, 1918.		July, 1914.	July, 1918.	
		Amount.	Per cent of increase over July, 1914.		Amount.	Per cent of increase over July, 1914.		Amount	Per cent of increase over July, 1914.
Food	\$257.01	\$638.38	148	\$234.77	\$537.61	129	\$254.60	\$476.24	87
Light and heat	28.68	155.44	442	26.00	72.90	180	26.80	73.70	175
Clothing	67.80	189.74	180	58.69	158.39	170	72.36	188.14	160
House rent	83.88	92.73	11	80.40	90.05	12	88.44	114.17	29
Other expenses	98.63	192.16	95	136.14	228.60	68	93.80	121.94	30
Total	536.00	1,268.45	137	536.00	1,087.55	103	536.00	974.19	82

In the Danish statistics the articles of food are further specified as follows:

	July, 1914.	July, 1918.
Meat	\$62.71	\$129.44
Butter, milk, cheese, eggs, margarine, lard	77.72	133.73
Fish	8.04	11.26
Bread	41.00	70.75
Flour, etc	8.85	21.98
Potatoes, vegetables, fruits	14.47	32.16
Sugar and other groceries	41.81	76.92
Total	254.60	476.24

FOOD PRICES AND COST OF LIVING IN SWITZERLAND DURING THE WAR.

The Statistical Yearbook of Switzerland for 1917, issued by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office, contains a wealth of data as to the trend of food prices and of the cost of living in Switzerland since the outbreak of the world war. A few of these data are reproduced here in summary tables in order to convey an idea of how the prices of foodstuffs and the cost of living in this neutral country have been influenced by the war.

In the following table are shown the average retail prices of 15 of the most important foodstuffs and of coke, briquets, and anthracite coal during April, 1914, 1917, and 1918, and the gradual increase of these prices during the period. The prices shown are based on half-monthly compilations of prices in 32 localities made by the Swiss Federal Statistical Office and published in its bulletin.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF FOODSTUFFS AND FUEL IN 32 SWISS MUNICIPALITIES, APRIL, 1914, 1917, AND 1918.

[Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Schweiz, 1917, pp. 247 to 255.]

Article.	Unit.	Retail prices.			Per cent of increase. ¹		
		April, 1914.	April, 1917.	April, 1918.	April, 1917, over April, 1914.	April, 1918, over April, 1917.	April, 1918, over April, 1914.
Pork, fresh.....	Pound..	\$0. 210	\$0. 385	\$0. 525	83. 3	36. 4	150. 0
Bacon, smoked.....	do.....	. 228	. 455	. 735	100. 0	61. 5	223. 1
Lard, domestic.....	do.....	. 175	. 420	. 700	140. 0	66. 7	300. 0
Suet, raw.....	do.....	. 123	. 315	. 525	157. 1	66. 7	328. 6
Beef with bone.....	do.....	. 175	. 350	. 350	100. 0	100. 0
Bread.....	do.....	. 031	. 055	. 061	80. 0	11. 1	100. 0
Flour.....	do.....	. 039	. 067	. 074	² 68. 9	10. 5	⁴ 86. 7
Milk, unskimmed.....	Quart..	. 042	. 047	. 060	13. 0	26. 9	43. 5
Butter.....	Pound..	. 315	. 481	. 569	52. 8	18. 2	80. 6
Cheese, Emmenthaler.....	do.....	. 193	. 280	. 324	45. 5	15. 6	68. 2
Eggs, fresh.....	Dozen..	. 232	. 579	. 811	150. 0	40. 0	250. 0
Corn meal.....	Pound..	. 026	. 054	. 067	107. 7	22. 6	153. 3
Noodles, macaroni, and other pastry.....	do.....	. 048	. 096	. 117	100. 0	21. 8	143. 6
Sugar, cube.....	do.....	. 048	. 109	. 130	127. 3	18. 4	169. 1
Potatoes, domestic.....	Bushel..	. 525	1. 208	1. 156	130. 0	⁵ 4. 5	120. 0
Coke.....	Ton.....	9. 412	13. 727	24. 512	45. 8	78. 6	160. 4
Briquets.....	do.....	7. 844	12. 158	23. 531	55. 0	93. 5	200. 0
Anthracite coal, egg.....	do.....	9. 804	21. 570	28. 237	120. 0	30. 9	188. 0

¹ These percentages are based on the prices in francs as given in the original table.

² September, 1914.

³ April, 1917, over September, 1914.

⁴ April, 1918, over September, 1914.

⁵ Decrease.

The data shown in the preceding table indicate an exorbitant increase of food prices in Switzerland. With the exception of milk and milk products, of which Switzerland's production goes far beyond its own needs, and of flour, bread, and beef, the prices of which are being artificially maintained at a lower level through Government control, food prices have increased from 120 to over 300 per cent

during the four-year period ending April, 1918. The prices of cooking fats (lard and suet), eggs, and bacon show the largest increases. The prices of fuel have gone up 160 to 200 per cent. Another fact brought out by the table is the large increase of prices during the year ending April, 1918, particularly of bacon, cooking fats, pork, and fuel.

On the basis of the prices charged to their members by Swiss cooperative stores the Swiss League for the Cheapening of the Cost of Living has computed the annual expenditures for foodstuffs and fuel of a normal family consisting of 2 adults and 3 children under 10 years of age.

ANNUAL EXPENDITURES OF A NORMAL SWISS FAMILY (2 ADULTS AND 3 CHILDREN UNDER 10 YEARS OF AGE) FOR FOOD AND FUEL ON THE BASIS OF PRICES CHARGED IN COOPERATIVE STORES JUNE 1, 1914, AND DECEMBER 1, 1914, 1915, 1916, AND 1917.

[Source: Statistisches Jahrbuch der Schweiz, 1915, 1916, and 1917.]

Article.	Quantity consumed annually	Average annual expenditures on the basis of prices ruling on—				
		June 1, 1914.	Dec. 1, 1914.	Dec. 1, 1915.	Dec. 1, 1916.	Dec. 1, 1917.
Milk products:						
Butter, salted.....lbs.	24.25	\$6.22	\$7.01	\$9.66	\$10.06	\$13.37
Butter, creamery.....lbs.	11.24	3.81	3.82	4.81	4.92	6.31
Cheese, Emmenthaler.....lbs.	26.90	5.27	4.97	6.26	6.55	8.24
Milk.....qts.	1,156.03	48.56	46.45	52.79	54.90	67.57
Total.....		63.86	62.25	73.52	76.43	95.49
Cooking fats:						
Coconut fat, cheapest.....lbs.	10.49	1.59	1.90	2.00	3.09	5.33
Suet, first quality.....lbs.	10.49	1.34	1.41	2.22	2.87	4.89
Lard, American.....lbs.	10.49	1.75	1.91	2.22	3.04	5.02
Lard, domestic.....lbs.	10.49	1.87	2.01	2.38	3.33	5.63
Gingili oil.....qts.	5.03	1.28	1.36	1.53	2.41	4.26
Total.....		7.83	8.59	10.35	14.74	25.18
Cereal goods:						
Bread.....lbs.	1,082.68	33.17	37.91	43.60	50.23	65.40
Flour.....lbs.	38.16	1.50	1.61	1.94	2.17	2.81
Semolina.....lbs.	28.00	1.15	1.52	1.86	1.99	2.16
Corn meal.....lbs.	30.51	.83	1.09	1.20	1.57	2.03
Pearl barley, No. 1.....lbs.	6.70	.27	.36	.60	.59	.75
Oat flakes.....lbs.	8.69	.36	.56	.66	.84	1.05
Oatmeal, No. 2.....lbs.	17.55	.75	1.09	1.34	1.71	2.12
Noodles, macaroni, etc.....lbs.	63.25	3.49	4.60	5.04	5.65	7.20
Total.....		41.52	48.74	56.24	64.75	83.52
Legumes:						
Beans, first quality, white.....lbs.	10.49	.41	.55	.80	.90	1.46
Peas, first quality, yellow.....lbs.	6.92	.34	.42	.64	.65	.96
Lentils, first quality, medium.....lbs.	4.41	.22	.26	.39	.33	.69
Rice.....lbs.	18.92	.86	1.06	1.36	1.22	1.66
Total.....		1.83	2.29	3.19	3.10	4.77
Meat:						
Veal.....lbs.	15.50	3.20	3.24	3.70	4.56	5.14
Beef.....lbs.	145.61	24.99	25.37	30.60	38.12	44.74
Mutton.....lbs.	2.43	.45	.49	.61	.71	.95
Pork.....lbs.	46.74	9.82	9.62	12.48	15.02	22.55
Total.....		38.46	38.72	47.39	58.41	73.38
Eggs.....doz.	33½	7.72	11.58	14.67	20.84	24.70
Potatoes.....bushs.	9.19	6.75	7.72	7.72	9.65	8.69

ANNUAL EXPENDITURES OF A NORMAL SWISS FAMILY (2 ADULTS AND 3 CHILDREN UNDER 10 YEARS OF AGE) FOR FOOD AND FUEL ON THE BASIS OF PRICES CHARGED IN COOPERATIVE STORES JUNE 1, 1914, AND DECEMBER 1, 1914, 1915, 1916, AND 1917—Concluded.

Article.	Quantity consumed annually.	Average annual expenditures on the basis of prices ruling on—				
		June 1, 1914.	Dec. 1, 1914.	Dec. 1, 1915.	Dec. 1, 1916.	Dec. 1, 1917.
Sugar and honey:						
Sugar, Austrian.....lbs..	149.91	\$6.17	\$6.56	\$8.92	\$12.47	\$17.32
Honey, domestic.....lbs..	3.86	1.18	1.23	1.12	1.30	2.07
Total.....		7.35	7.79	10.04	13.77	19.39
Chocolate.....lbs..						
Tea, Souchong.....lb..	15.87	2.90	2.84	3.06	4.11	5.61
Coffee, Santos, green, medium quality.....lbs..	.77	.39	.41	.43	.45	.73
Total.....	19.14	3.74	4.16	3.97	4.18	4.98
Total foodstuffs.....		7.03	7.41	7.46	8.74	11.32
Total foodstuffs.....						
		182.35	195.09	230.58	270.43	346.44
Fuel and soap:						
Anthracite, Belgian.....ton..	.71	8.87	9.68	10.49	11.65	21.39
Briquets, Rhenish.....ton..	.71	6.07	6.51	6.71	8.13	16.28
Methyl alcohol, 92°.....qts..	4.43	.53	.54	.68	1.21	2.06
Petroleum, American.....galls..	12.47	2.00	2.73	3.55	3.64	5.38
Soap, white, first quality.....lbs..	18.74	1.57	1.57	1.81	2.82	6.15
Total.....		19.04	21.03	23.24	27.45	51.26
Grand total.....		201.39	216.12	253.82	297.58	397.70

If the annual expenditures of a normal family for food and fuel as shown in the preceding table based on the retail prices current on June 1, 1914, are assumed to be 100, the index numbers for the same expenditures based on the retail prices current on December 1, 1914, 1915, 1916, and 1917 are as follows:

Expenditures for—	Index number based on prices current on—				
	June 1, 1914.	Dec. 1, 1914.	Dec. 1, 1915.	Dec. 1, 1916.	Dec. 1, 1917.
Food.....	100	107.0	126.4	148.3	190.0
Fuel and soap.....	100	110.5	122.1	144.2	269.2
Total.....	100	107.3	126.0	147.9	197.5

These figures indicate that during the first 3½ years of the present war the expenditures of a normal family for food have increased by 90 per cent, those for fuel and soap by 169.2 per cent, and those for these two items combined by 97.5 per cent. The greater part of these increases falls in the years 1916 and 1917, particularly in the latter year. Of the individual food groups, cooking fats, eggs, and sugar show the largest increase in price. Cereal foods have increased in price by over 100 per cent due to the fact that Switzerland covers by self-production only 14.7 per cent of its consumption of cereals.

Milk and milk products show the smallest increase. Remarkable also is the large increase of the price of anthracite coal which, on December 1, 1917, cost \$30.12 a ton according to the expenditure shown in the preceding table for this item.

A recent special report to the Christian Science Monitor from Zürich on the food situation in Switzerland says: ¹

Switzerland's food situation is becoming worse and worse, and but for the prompt and generous action of the United States in sending over grain and flour in large quantities the population would be in a most difficult position. The Germans did their best, by refusing safe conducts to the Allied vessels carrying grain to Switzerland, to prevent the Swiss population from having any bread in May, June, and July. But none of the Allies' grain ships were sunk after all, and the Swiss people, and even the pro-German press in Switzerland, were forced to admit that the Allies' navy was sufficient protection against Germany's intention of starving the neutral countries through her submarine war.

The bread question is, however, only a part of the Swiss food crisis. The whole problem of daily life has become most perplexing. There is no longer any proportion between the salaries and wages of the middle and working classes and the cost of living. Prices of foodstuffs, clothing, and all necessities have risen to most exorbitant figures, largely on account of the activities of German speculative buying agents, who travel throughout the country. The prohibition of the exports of foodstuffs to the central powers has prevented the stocks in the hands of speculators from being sent out of the country, but has not prevented the rise in prices.

As a consequence there has been a great deal of unrest in labor circles, resulting in several instances in more or less serious public disturbances. The Government, in the interests of the maintenance of order, gave the local authorities special powers to suppress disturbances, and this measure occasioned great offense to the trade-unions and other labor bodies. These summoned a national conference to discuss the matter, which presented a strong ultimatum to the Bundesrath, demanding the rescinding of the obnoxious measures and further that representatives of the working classes should have a share in controlling the distribution of foodstuffs. The conference declared that unless these demands were granted there would be a general strike throughout the country.

To avoid this danger the Bundesrath was forced to make certain promises which it will be hard to fulfill. For the moment the situation appeared very threatening and there was really great danger of the strike taking place. But wiser counsels prevailed and the strike was averted. Meanwhile the Government can find no other way of meeting the increase in prices and the overwhelming speculation in foodstuffs than by helping the working classes through the payment out of the State treasury of the difference between the excessive and reasonable prices. This method has been adopted in some of the belligerent countries in order to keep up the morale of the population in fighting the enemy. But it is a grave question whether such action is wise in a neutral country which has no fighting spirit to maintain. Of course the Government has been highly praised by the politicians and labor leaders for preventing social unrest by artificially reducing the cost of living. But whether such measures can have any permanent success is another question.

¹The Christian Science Monitor, Boston, Sept. 14, 1918.

FOOD CONTROL.

NEW FOOD CONSERVATION PROGRAM IN THE UNITED STATES.

Effective October 21, 1918, the United States Food Administration announced a new program of food conservation, applying to all hotels, restaurants, cafes, clubs, dining cars, and other places where cooked food is sold to be eaten on the premises. The regulations carry into effect the recent announcement that in fulfilling the American promise to the Allies to send them seventeen and a half million tons of food this year public eating places would be called upon "to undertake in many particulars a more strict program than last year." The hearty cooperation of hotel keepers and other proprietors of public eating places is relied on to secure observance of the regulations voluntarily, but the Food Administration is prepared to take necessary measures against persons who may interfere with the success of the plan.

There are 12 "General Orders" in the new plan which sets forth the specific measures by which it is proposed to effect a direct reduction in the consumption of all foods, particularly staples, rather than by a series of emergency regulations, such as meatless and wheatless days and meals and the substitution of one food for another. These orders follow:

General Order No. 1.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served any bread or other bakery product which does not contain at least 20 per cent of wheat-flour substitutes, nor shall it serve or permit to be served more than 2 ounces of this bread, known as Victory bread; or if no Victory bread is served, more than 4 ounces of other breads (such as cornbread, muffins, Boston brown bread, etc). Sandwiches or bread served at boarding camps, and rye bread containing 50 per cent or more of pure rye flour, are excepted.

General Order No. 2.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served bread or toast as a garniture or under meat.

General Order No. 3.—No public eating place shall allow any bread to be brought to the table until after the first course is served.

General Order No. 4.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served to one patron at any one meal more than one kind of meat. For the purpose of this rule meat shall be considered as including beef, mutton, pork, poultry, and any by-products thereof.

General Order No. 5.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served any bacon as a garniture.

General Order No. 6.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served to any one person at any one meal more than one-half ounce of butter.

General Order No. 7.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served to any one person at any one meal more than one-half ounce of Cheddar, commonly called American, cheese.

General Order No. 8.—No public eating place shall use or permit the use of the sugar bowl on the table or lunch counter. Nor shall any public eating place serve sugar or permit it to be served unless the guest so requests, and in no event shall the amount served to any one person at any one meal exceed one teaspoonful or its equivalent.

General Order No. 9.—No public eating place shall use or permit the use of an amount of sugar in excess of 2 pounds for every 90 meals served, including all uses of sugar on the table and in cooking, excepting such sugar as may be allotted by the Federal food administrators to hotels holding a bakery license. No sugar allotted for this special baking purpose shall be used for any other purpose.

General Order No. 10.—No public eating place shall burn any food or permit any food to be burned, and all waste shall be saved to feed animals or reduced to obtain fats.

General Order No. 11.—No public eating place shall display or permit to be displayed food on its premises in any such manner as may cause its deterioration so that it can not be used for human consumption.

General Order No. 12.—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served what is known as double cream or cream de luxe; and in any event, no cream containing over 20 per cent of butter fat shall be served.

Under date of October 30, the Food Administration addressed the following instructions to its hotel chairmen in all States, defining and amplifying the foregoing orders:

General Order 4.—The intention in framing this rule was to cut down the consumption of meats in general without at the same time causing waste or eliminating from the daily menu certain combinations of scrap meats or certain varieties of meat by-products generally eaten in combination with what might be called outside meat.

The Food Administration has decided to make a liberal interpretation of General Order 4, after a careful consideration of requests that have reached it from all parts of the country, and you will note that mince pie, larded sweetbreads, larded filet of beef, hash, goulash, meat cakes, meat pies, and similar dishes containing two or more kinds of meats (scraps and trimmings) may be served without violating the order; also that liver and bacon, mixed grill, assorted cold meats, chicken, and Virginia ham, club sandwiches and a variety of sandwiches containing different meats may be sold at one time.

In connection with General Orders 1 and 2, while toast as a garniture is forbidden, toast may be used under poached eggs, chipped beef, chicken hash, etc., without affecting the service of 2 ounces of Victory bread or 4 ounces of quick breads which may be served at the same meal. Wheat cakes, griddle cakes, buckwheat cakes and waffles may also be served in addition to the regular bread allowance, as may pies, pastry, etc. Crackers containing 10 per cent of wheat flour substitutes may be served.

You will note that the Law Department of the Food Administration has amended General Order 1 to read as follows:

General Order 1 (as amended Oct. 25, 1918).—No public eating place shall serve or permit to be served any bread or other bakery product which does not contain at least 20 per cent of wheat flour substitutes; provided, however, that crackers containing at least 10 per cent of wheat flour substitutes may be served. Nor shall any public eating place serve or permit to be served more than 2 ounces of such bread, known as Victory bread, or if no Victory bread is served, more than 4 ounces of other bread (such as corn bread, muffins, Boston brown bread, etc.). This order does not apply to sandwiches, bread served at boarding camps, or to rye bread containing 50 per cent or more of pure rye flour.

With reference to General Order 12.—This applies only to service of cream on table, including whipped cream, but according to an amendment to Rule 1 of the Special

License Regulations, hotels as well as other manufacturers may purchase heavy cream.

General Order 6.—While it is insisted that no more than one-half ounce of butter shall be served at the table to any one person at any one meal, this order does not affect buttered toast or any butter sauces, which are commonly used in all first-class hotel and restaurant kitchens. It is requested, however, that hotels and restaurants use the least possible quantity of butter in cooking and in making sauces.

General Order 7.—Your attention is called to the need for enforcing the rule against the service of more than one-half ounce of cheddar, commonly called American, cheese. Strict observance of this General Order will necessitate giving up the service of Welsh rarebits.

REGULATION OF PRICES IN PUBLIC EATING PLACES IN THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

In an effort to regulate prices in public eating places, except hotels, in the District of Columbia the local food administrator addressed a letter, dated September 28, 1918, to the proprietors of these places calling attention to the problem of furnishing to the increasing population of Washington good, plain, wholesome food at reasonable prices, which must be met in order to sustain the health of the war workers. After consultation with representatives of the United States Employment Service, with officials of the United States Food Administration, with officials of the District Government, and with representative proprietors of lunch rooms and cafeterias, a plan was evolved which is set forth in the letter of the food administrator as follows:

1. A number of proprietors of public eating places have agreed to furnish breakfast, lunch, and dinner at prices to be stated below.

2. Officials of the Health Office of the District of Columbia will cooperate with the inspection force of this office to institute a system of inspection of public eating places to have supervision of the food regulations, sanitary conditions, and quality and condition of portions served.

3. The organizations having charge of the social activity of our workers, especially women and girls, will be asked to institute a campaign of education as to the vital necessity of proper eating.

4. In order to secure larger facilities for eating, various departmental restaurants will be asked to serve breakfast and dinner, or an evening meal, as well as lunch.

The following is a list of meals and prices which several proprietors of restaurants lunch rooms, and cafeterias have already agreed that they would follow:

BREAKFAST.

1. One egg, coffee, tea, or milk, and toast	\$0. 20
2. Stewed fruit, cereal, and coffee.....	. 25
3. Fruit in season, cereal, toast, and coffee.....	. 30
4. Prunes, cereal, toast, and coffee.....	. 30
5. Fruit in season, one egg, coffee, and toast.....	. 30
6. Fruit in season, hot cakes, butter or syrup, and coffee.....	. 30
7. Breakfast without beverage, 5 cents less.	

LUNCH.

1. Beef (4 oz.) stew and bread and butter.....	\$6. 20
2. Veal and lamb stew with bread and butter.....	. 25
3. Sandwiches, ham, tongue, cheese, salmon, or egg.....	. 10
4. Macaroni and cheese.....	. 10
With bread and butter.....	. 15
Rice and cheese.....	. 10
With bread and butter.....	. 15
5. Baked beans.....	. 10
With bread and butter.....	. 15
6. Soup or chowder and bread and butter.....	. 20

DINNER.

1. Soup, meat or fish, potato or rice, and one other vegetable, dessert, and cup of coffee or tea, or glass of milk, bread and butter.....	. 65
Coffee, tea, or milk.....	. 05
Cocoa or chocolate made with milk.....	. 10
The portions will be standardized.	

If all public eating places will follow this list and give to their patrons an opportunity at least to buy the food described at the prices mentioned, it will be possible to procure sufficient healthful food at the rate of \$1 a day.

Public eating places are further requested, as a measure of food conservation, to serve a table d'hôte dinner, and when such table d'hôte dinner is served to serve only one kind of meat or fish and certain kinds of vegetables and not to offer an alternative or choice.

Seventy-five proprietors of lunch rooms replied that they would be willing to cooperate with the Food Administration.

FOOD CONTROL IN GREAT BRITAIN.¹

The introduction of ration books under the general rationing order of July 17 of the present year marked the merging into a national scheme of the various local plans for regulating the consumption of sugar, butter and margarine, lard, and meat, in Great Britain. Books issued to adults have leaves of coupons for each of these articles, also spare leaves for other foods which local committees may wish to ration. Nine forms of the book, each bound in covers in a distinctive color, are provided for the various classes of the population. Persons entitled to supplementary rations, as certain manual workers, are given two of these books, one of which is supplementary to the other. No person may hold two supplementary ration books.

¹ Compiled from recent issues of the National Food Journal, the official organ of the British Ministry of Food. For preceding articles on food control in Great Britain see the MONTHLY REVIEW (now MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW) of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1917, pp. 392-407; June 1917, pp. 928-945; July, 1917, pp. 69-78; November, 1917, pp. 91-104; December, 1917, pp. 99-101; February, 1918, pp. 111-116; June, 1918, pp. 58-63; July, 1918, pp. 84-94; and August, 1918, pp. 144-146.

Special arrangements are made for invalids, vegetarians, and Jews, by which they may obtain books modified to suit their respective needs. The method adopted is to substitute special leaves for those not applicable to their wants, such substitutions to be made upon application to the local food office. Vegetarians are required to sign a declaration that they do not eat meat or lard, and Jews that, on religious grounds, they eat no bacon or lard. The leaves of coupons for these articles are then detached from the book and coupon leaves for butter or margarine inserted instead. For invalids, additional coupons for meat, fats, or sugar are allowed when the application is supported by a doctor's certificate. Holders of ration books are required to register with shopkeepers located in their own district. Upon removal from one district to another free choice of tradesmen is allowed, but a person who desires to change one or more of his shopkeepers without such removal must furnish to the local food office satisfactory reasons for the desired change before it will be authorized. If the application is granted, he must surrender his old counterfoils and other counterfoils will be issued to him.

As has been stated, the rationed foods under the present order are sugar, butter and margarine, meat, and lard (now rationed for the first time). Edible fats other than lard, butter, and margarine (such as drippings and cocoa butter), are ration-free to the general public and to residential establishments, but are rationed in bulk to catering establishments and institutions. The order provides that the Food Controller may from time to time prescribe the articles of food which shall be considered rationed foods for the purposes of the order, the amount of the ration for each article, and, in the case of any rationed food, the amount of a particular kind that may be obtained. He may also direct that any rationed food shall, subject to the conditions and extent specified in the directions, be supplied and obtained ration-free. An order dated July 29, 1918, fixed the weekly ration of sugar at 8 ounces, of butter and margarine at 5 ounces, and of lard at 2 ounces per person. The order also prescribes the kinds and quantities of meat that may be obtained upon a coupon, also the kinds that are ration-free.

Rationed foods may be obtained for household consumption only up to the prescribed amount and only by means of a ration book or other ration document available for lawful use. A person may obtain rationed foods for household use from a retailer only where the following conditions are complied with:

(a) Except where the Food Controller otherwise directs, he may obtain such food only from the retailer with whom he is registered for the purpose;

(b) Except where the relative leaf or relative part of the leaf is for the time being deposited with the retailer in the prescribed manner, he must produce his ration book and relative leaf or relative part or other ration document available for lawful use;

(c) The appropriate coupon or coupons representing the amount of food obtained must be detached and retained by the retailer, and no more may be obtained on any coupon than the amount prescribed for that coupon; and

(d) Any directions that may be prescribed are obeyed.

The retailer is forbidden to supply any rationed food for household consumption to a person unless the foregoing conditions have been complied with and unless he has reasonable grounds for believing that the ration book or other document under which the supply is made is for the lawful use of the purchaser.

Rationed food and edible fats may be obtained for the use of catering establishments only:

(a) By means of an official order form, voucher, or permit issued by or under the authority of the Food Controller for the purposes of this order;

(b) Except to the extent to which the Food Controller otherwise directs, from the retailer or other dealer with whom the establishment is registered for the purpose;

(c) Up to the amount specified in the relative preliminary demand note, voucher or permit; and

(d) In accordance with any directions issued for the purposes of this order.

The scale for sugar and fats in catering establishments is as follows:

Meal.	Sugar.	Butter and margarine.	Lard and other edible fats.
Breakfast.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.
Luncheon, including middle day dinner.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.
Dinner, including supper and meat tea or fish tea.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.
Tea.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ ounce.....	

Not more than one-third of the fats listed in the last column of the above table may be lard. Dripping "compound" and prepared suets are to be included. In addition to other fats allowed, salad oil may be served at table at any meal. Canteens and other places not open to the general public are required to observe the same scale as catering establishments, but public eating places where no meal is served at a price exceeding 1s. 2d. (28.4 cents) are exempt.

Bread and flour are now omitted from the scale for catering establishments, so that the total amount that may be served is unrestricted. The special provision restricting the consumption of bread, cake, bun, scone, and biscuit at any meal served between 3 p. m. and 5.30 p. m. to $1\frac{1}{2}$ ounces is continued for those public eating places to which it formerly applied. Milk may not be served or consumed in catering or residential establishments of any character except with tea, coffee, or cocoa. Exceptions to this rule are allowed, however, in the case of persons residing in the establishment, of children under 10 years anywhere, and (at schools) of children under 18.

A resident in a catering establishment may surrender the current sugar coupon from his ration book at any time after one night's stay

and the establishment must, if he so requests, serve him with 6 ounces of sugar. Residential establishments must also serve 6 ounces of sugar a week, on request, to residents who have handed over their ration books for sugar to be purchased for them. Catering establishments must detach a coupon for sugar, butter and margarine, and lard from the ration books of all persons residing therein continuously for more than 5 nights. A second coupon must be detached after 12 nights, a third after 19 nights, and so on. Account for the consumption of sugar, butter and margarine, and cooking fats by catering establishments must be made on a prescribed form of register. Caterers must also account for meat used at the rate of two-fifths of a pound of uncooked butcher's meat, including suet, tongue, kidneys and skirt, per coupon. Bacon, ham, beef sausages, and certain kinds of miscellaneous meat may be served without surrender of meat coupons.

By way of contrasting the weekly food allowance in London and Berlin, the August 14, 1918, issue of the National Food Journal (p. 617) contains the following statement:

Article.	London.	Berlin.
Butter and margarine.	5 ounces.....	2 $\frac{1}{4}$ ounces.
Meat.....	Average 16 ounces (many kinds of meat are ration free).	8 $\frac{3}{4}$ ounces.
Sugar.....	8 ounces.....	6 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces.
Potatoes.....	Unrationed.....	3 pounds 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ ounces.
Bread.....	Unrationed.....	3 pounds 13 $\frac{1}{4}$ ounces.

The weekly fresh-meat ration shown in the above table has since been reduced to three-quarters of a pound per capita, in order that home-grown stocks of meat might not become depleted. Under normal conditions Great Britain imports about one-third of its meat supply. Recently, owing to the demands made upon its tonnage by military requirements in the transportation of American troops, it has been necessary to depend entirely on the home fresh meat supply. Good reserve stocks of ham and bacon have been built up from shipments received from the United States during the past summer, and the sale of these meats is at present unrestricted.

The rationing of jam, marmalade, molasses, honey, and sirup in Great Britain was ordered by the Food Controller, effective November 4. The size of the ration is limited to 4 ounces per week, a supplementary ration of 2 ounces a week being allowed children between 6 and 18 years of age. The fruit crops of England were abnormally poor this year, and practically the entire production was taken by the army and navy for jam-making purposes.

COST OF FOOD IN NATIONAL RESTAURANTS IN LONDON.

It does not need demonstration in this country that the public is largely at the mercy of profiteering food dealers and managers of hotels and restaurants. The following communication from Mr. N. C. Adams, representative of the Department of Labor in Great Britain, however, gives emphasis to this fact and, in view of the food shortage in England and the fact that this country is in a large measure the source of supply, it is a somewhat amazing commentary on the situation that a restaurant can be run in London at a large profit, can serve satisfactory meals, and can supply them at prices so low as compared with prices for a similar quality of food in this country:

The new national restaurant opened in New Bridge Street, London, this summer shows remarkable results from the financial point of view. The moderate price restaurant keepers, such as the "A. B. C.," and others somewhat lower in price, have been much opposed to this undertaking of the Ministry of Food, claiming that it could not succeed without a Government subsidy, owing to the low prices charged and to the large portions served. The figures given in the report for three weeks show, according to the director, a profit of 70 per cent per annum, and, as has been said, "suggest that it is really possible to supply nourishing food in satisfying quantities at low prices and yet obtain a very substantial profit." All things considered, it is easy to understand why the moderate price restaurant proprietors were disturbed by this venture. They must be doing an immense amount of profiteering. Every moderate price eating place in London is crowded almost to suffocation from 11.30 to 7 o'clock. The interval between luncheon and dinner is completely filled by "tea-time." More often than not, one sees a queue from 4 to 6 o'clock. At none of the other eating places are such large portions served as at the national restaurant, and at most of them the prices are slightly higher. If there is any great difference in the quality of food served it is all in favor of the Government restaurant. The quality of food, by the way, in the chain restaurants in London is always surprisingly good. Even in these times, with eggs retailing at from 4s. to 6s. (\$0.97 to \$1.46) per dozen, one always has fresh eggs, and I must confess that it is a comfort to be free from the disagreeable taste of the preserved or storage egg from which we suffer in America at practically all the cheaper places.

One is much impressed at this restaurant by the class of people who use the place. They are nearly all rather prosperous-looking middle-class people, and I fear the people for whom the place was supposedly designed do not get much benefit from it. Perhaps they are a bit overawed by its appearance, or by the appearance of the majority of the customers. Again the class distinction.

I visited this national restaurant in its first week, when it had not begun to run smoothly, and again this week, when I found it in admirable working order. The menu for the day, with prices, hangs outside the door. About a dozen people are admitted at a time and they, having decided upon their order, ask the cashier just inside for checks for the total amount they are to spend. The checks are for 1d., 2d., 3d., or 4d. (2, 4, 6, or 8 cents) each. So if one asks for 1s. (24.3 cents) the cashier would give perhaps one 4d. check, one 3d., two 2d., and one 1d. Then one proceeds to the long serving counter and gets whatever one desires on a tray, somewhat as in our cafeterias, except that each dish is served by an attendant who takes the necessary check in return. The tables are set with all the requisite cutlery, and drinking water and glasses. As a patron leaves, a girl clears and resets the place. The tables are covered with colored print cloths which do not show grease spots so disagreeably as a white cloth. I believe they are changed each day and

perhaps oftener. The china and cutlery are most satisfactory. The serving tables are attractive and the service is rapid, all things considered. On the whole, however, the manager might learn much in that respect from a study of those marvelous Chicago cafeterias, where a brass rail keeps customers in line and one pays after filling one's tray. Here, the crowd about the serving table is troublesome, but the difference in temperament makes it possible here, while the same situation in America might be unendurable.

I lunched on soup (2d. [4 cents]), greens (2d. [4 cents]), rice pudding (3d. [6 cents]), bread and butter—three slices—(2d. [4 cents]), and coffee (2d. [4 cents]), total 11d. (22 cents), and I have not yet ceased being astonished at the quality and quantity of everything. For example, the rice pudding (made with milk) was the kind one gets at home. The women attendants were alert, eager with suggestions, and cheerful. Everything about the place was spotlessly clean. And, this being England, there was almost no noise and no loud talking. Everyone was apparently enjoying his lunch and having a restful break in his day's work as well. That is more than we can say for ourselves in Washington at lunch time.

Two prosperous-looking men at my table told me they lunched there regularly and found the quality of food unvarying and the menus changed so much each day that one never lacked variety. The place opens at 11:30 a. m. and serves over 3,000 persons per day, covering lunch, tea, and dinner. After the tables are once filled the doorman admits newcomers only as other people leave, and I have seen a long queue outside. This will be a problem when the really bad weather begins.

Prices in the first-class restaurants and the moderate price places in London to-day are practically the same as in America, but I have never seen a place at home where I could get for the money such a satisfactory lunch as I had at this restaurant for about 22 cents.

FOOD AND FUEL CONTROL IN FRANCE.

BEANS.

The provisions of a decree issued by the President of France, on August 14, 1918,¹ fix the maximum prices of three recognized grades of beans in both wholesale and retail markets. The wholesale prices per 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds) are: First grade, 190 francs (\$36.67); second grade, 170 francs (\$32.81); and third grade, 150 francs (\$28.95). These prices are for beans f. o. b. at shipper's station.

The profits of intermediaries are limited as follows: 3 per cent on cost, including cost of transportation and other expenses, on sales by middlemen, in large quantities at the place where the beans are grown, to wholesale merchants for sale at points of consumption; and on sales made by wholesale merchants to retailers, 3 per cent on the price paid by the wholesaler, if the quantity purchased is equal to or greater than 5,000 kilograms (11,023 pounds), and 5 per cent when less than that quantity is purchased. Retailers may not charge a profit greater than 15 per cent on the wholesale prices. These prices apply also to beans of the same grades of foreign production.

Shipment of beans, except for seed, by rail or water, is prohibited unless accompanied by a certificate signed by the mayor, and de-

¹ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, Aug. 19, 1918, p. 7329.

claring that the purchase price was no greater than that fixed by this decree. If the beans are purchased for seed the certificate must so declare.

CEREALS, HARVEST OF 1919.¹

A decree dated September 13, 1918, fixes the maximum prices per 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds) to be paid to producers, for various cereals and beans grown in 1919, purchased by millers, merchants, and wholesalers, or by the State, as follows: Wheat, 73 francs (\$14.09); barley, 53 francs (\$10.23); corn, 53 francs (\$10.23); rye, 53 francs (\$10.23); buckwheat, 53 francs (\$10.23); mixed wheat and rye, 60 francs (\$11.58); white millet, 73 francs (\$14.09); sorghum, red millet, 48 francs (\$9.26); beans, 66 francs (\$12.74); and oats, 53 francs (\$10.23). These prices are fixed for sound, unmixed, and merchantable grains. Both the seller and purchaser are liable to penalties for any transactions in grains held over from any previous harvest.

POTATOES.²

On and after September 25, 1918, the maximum price of yellow potatoes is fixed at 38 francs (\$7.33) and of white potatoes at 35 francs (\$6.75) per 100 kilograms (220.46 pounds), delivered in sacks at the shipping station by the producer. If delivered in bulk a rebate of 50 centimes (9.7 cents) per 100 kilograms is allowed. After January 1, 1919, prices may be advanced biweekly at the rate of 25 centimes (4.8 cents) per 100 kilograms. Shipping merchants' prices shall not be more than 2 francs (38.6 cents) per 100 kilograms in excess of these prices, and the prefect of each department shall establish prices for wholesalers and other dealers, including profits allowed, transportation, and other charges. Every wholesaler or other dealer selling in quantities other than retail shall keep a register showing the names of seller and purchaser, quantities delivered, and the selling prices.

Shipments of over 100 kilograms shall be made only if accompanied with a certificate showing the commune in which grown, and affirming that the purchase price is not in excess of the maximum permitted. Such certificate shall not be issued until the entire quantity needed for consumption in the commune has been distributed to the inhabitants, or a sufficient quantity for that purpose has been reserved.

The purchase, transportation, or preparation of potatoes for the manufacture of starch is prohibited except under special authorization.

¹ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, Sept. 13, 1918, p. 8167.

² Idem, Sept. 25, 1918, p. 8395. These regulations do not apply to seed potatoes, for which higher prices may be asked.

MILK AND DAIRY PRODUCTS.¹

In a recommendation of August 28, 1918, to the President the minister of agriculture and food supplies points to the fact that there has been a great increase in the price of milk due to the excessive development of cheese making and the resulting competition among cheese makers. A maximum price of milk for consumption is deemed necessary in order to provide that this class of food, so necessary for certain classes of persons, shall not be curtailed. It is also recommended that in order that manufacturers shall not unduly profit by reason of this maximum price, the price of milk used in cheese manufacture shall be subject to all price-fixing measures.

A decree dated August 29, 1918, limits the prices of milk, cream, butter, and cheese in all parts of the republic. These prices are to be established by the prefects in the various departments, and may vary in different districts, the special cost of production in certain localities, quality of milk, season and local conditions being taken into consideration. This decree was followed on September 2, 1918, by regulations relative to price fixing. The average price fixed as a base for computing the retail price is 0.375 francs per liter (27.4 cents per gallon).

PORK PRODUCTS.²

The sale of fresh, refrigerated, salt, smoked, cooked, or preserved pork, in all forms, including minced pork, trimmings, and tripe, is prohibited on Wednesday, Thursday, and Friday of each week. On these days no dishes containing pork in any form shall be served in places where the public is served with meals.

Slaughtering of hogs is prohibited each week during the period from 11 p. m. Monday to 6 a. m. Thursday, and the quantity of pork, in pounds, slaughtered each month shall not exceed one-half the amount slaughtered in the corresponding month of 1917. Prefects shall regulate the quantities of pork to be slaughtered each month.

The packing of pork in metal containers is prohibited. Salt packing is prohibited, except in certain grades, and when permitted the amount packed shall not exceed 40 per cent of the average so cured during the corresponding month of 1915, 1916, and 1917.

Prices of preserved pork products in stock shall not exceed the prices charged immediately before this decree is issued.

Transportation of these products by rail or post is prohibited each week after the departure of the last train scheduled to reach the selling point on Thursday noon.

The maximum price of pork on foot, first grade, is fixed as follows for the three districts into which the country is divided: 5 francs,

¹ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, Aug. 31, 1918, p. 7878.

² Journal Officiel de la République Française, Oct. 3, 1918, p. 8633.

4.75 francs, and 4.60 francs per kilogram (43.3, 41.6, and 40.3 cents per pound), respectively.

VEAL.

The entire country is divided into three districts for the purpose of fixing the maximum price of veal on the hoof. These prices are: 5 francs, 4.70 francs, and 4.40 francs per kilogram (43.3, 41.2, and 38.5 cents per pound), respectively.

The decrees relating to pork products and veal became effective October 1, 1918.

FOOD CONTROL.

Under date of September 30, 1918, the minister of agriculture and food supply instituted a commission of food supply. This body is to furnish data intended to aid the administration in price regulations and distribution of articles of food for civilian consumption and to investigate propositions for establishing commercial and productive syndicates and groups for supplying food. The following bureaus are provided for: Beef, pork, game, fish, vegetables, potatoes, milk, butter and eggs, cheese, groceries, restaurants, and other places where meals are served.

BARLEY, MALT, AND BEER.

The French minister of agriculture and food supplies recommended and the President approved on August 15, 1918, a new decree relative to the manufacture and sale of beer.¹ The minister in his recommendation says in part:

A large portion of the barley heretofore obtainable has been used in bread making, and, owing to the lack of transportation facilities, the supply of barley has been insufficient to furnish it for other purposes. The decrease in the production of beer has been oppressive, particularly on the laboring classes of the north where it is an article of food of prime necessity.

We feel that it is important to place the industry on the same basis as that of 1916; to assure this 200,000 quintals (19,684 long tons) of barley will be placed monthly at the disposition of the brewers.

The increased price of barley necessitates a corresponding increase in the price of malt and beers at wholesale, and must react on retail prices; but if the price at retail becomes excessive the department will not hesitate to establish a just ratio of prices.

The more important provisions of the decree which became effective September 1, 1918, are as follows: The central committee for the distribution of barley and malt is charged with the duty of supplying malt houses, brewers, yeast makers, or makers of toasted malts used in the manufacture of hygienic drinks, and with the supervision of establishments engaged in brewing or selling beer.

A committee is created to arbitrate all disputes referred to it arising between establishments or classes of establishments.

The management of the establishments engaged in brewing and allied trades must submit to all orders, inspections, or examinations demanded by accredited agents of the central committee, and lend their aid in all measures of supervision.

Every establishment using any of the various classes of barley for manufacturing purposes must prepare a statement each month, under such form as the committee shall prescribe, showing the quantities of barley and malt on hand, and the quantity of beer in degree-hectoliters produced during the preceding month.

For covering the expense of the committee a tax of 10 centimes (1.93 cents) per quintal (220.46 pounds) is placed on all barley used, and of 1 centime (0.19 cent) per degree-hectoliter (26.4 gallons) of beer manufactured.

The quantity of barley, of whatever class, and of malt produced or imported for beer making is subject to the supervision of the central committee, which shall determine the conditions and proportions of distribution. One-tenth of the supply is not subject to distribution, but is reserved for special needs as they may arise.

All orders for barley or malt must be placed with the central committee, which shall make the allotments in conformity with the directions issued by the undersecretary of food supplies. Direct purchases are prohibited.

All malt houses and breweries in operation in 1913 may participate in the distribution. Breweries which used less than 100 quintals (22046.2 pounds) of barley per month in 1916 may be supplied with malt only.

Shipment of malt by any means of transportation is prohibited except on production of a permit issued by the central committee.

The manufacture of "stout" or "pale ale" and any form of beer having a density greater than 4 degrees, and the sale of such beer, except imported, is prohibited.

The price of barley delivered through the office of the undersecretary of food supply is fixed at 75 francs (\$14.48) per quintal (220.46 pounds), f. o. b. shipper's railroad station, the purchaser furnishing the sacks. The maximum price of malt is fixed at 137 francs (\$26.44) per quintal, delivered at the malt house or f. o. b. shipper's railroad station. The malt house furnishes the sacks, which are to be returned within 30 days, subject to penalty for a longer delay and an invoice if not delivered within 2 months.

For beers having a 2 per cent density the maximum price is fixed at 50 francs (\$9.65); having a 3 per cent density at 69 francs (\$13.32), and having a 4 per cent density at 80 francs (\$15.44) per hectoliter (26.4 gallons), delivered at the brewery in containers returnable within 40 days.

Manufacturers must post in conspicuous places in their establishments, and furnish their agents, a circular designating the degree of density and the selling price of beer brewed by them.

MUNICIPAL MARKETS, PARIS.¹

The second commission of the municipal council of Paris has decided to increase the number of municipal meat markets where, in addition to beef and mutton, refrigerated pork products are placed on sale; also to open five or six stands in each quarter for the sale of salted products, rice, dried vegetables and conserves, etc., at fixed prices. Retail dealers who consent to sell at these prices will have equal rights in securing supplies from the municipal stock.

Similar measures will be adopted for the approaching winter for the distribution and regulation of prices of potatoes in the capital.

RESTAURANT REGULATIONS.²

All hotels, restaurants, and other establishments serving food shall place on each table a card indicating the price of each article served. When the price of a meal exceeds 6 francs (\$1.16) only two dishes, garnished with vegetables or not, may be served; but a soup, one side dish or oysters, and a dessert may be added. Meat served shall not exceed 200 grams (7 ounces) with bone, or 150 grams (5.3 ounces) without bone. In establishments known as "de luxe," charging in excess of 20 francs (\$3.86), the patron must be provided with a tablecloth, and the meal shall consist of two dishes, one of which must be meat, soup, a side dish or oysters, bread, a dessert, and ordinary wine, beer, or mineral water and coffee.

ECONOMIC POLICE.³

Under the provisions of a decree of June 30, 1918, the undersecretary of food supplies has established a special service of supervision and control of food prices. Agents have been appointed who are especially charged with the duty of seeing that lists of food prices are posted and published, of investigating all attempts at speculation, and exaggerated profits, market conditions and fluctuations in prices, and to take all possible measures to prevent abnormal prices and an increase in cost of living. These economic police are attached to the central administration of food supplies and are to be constantly on duty in all parts of the country and have been directed to report for prosecution every case of abuse discovered in the course of their investigations.

¹ La République Française, Paris, Aug. 22, 1918.

² Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, Sept. 25, 1918, p. 8394.

³ La République Française, Paris, Aug. 17, 1918.

GASOLINE.¹

Under date of August 21, 1918, a decree was issued establishing control of gasoline and combustibles. The following statement in the decree indicates its importance:

The increasing development of new war engines, airplanes, tractors, etc., the constant extension of their use in all portions of the republic, and the greatly increased numbers of allied troops constantly arriving, together with the extraordinary demands for gasoline for agricultural and transportation service, necessitate a constant readjustment of the program adopted for its use. This demand has assumed an importance which requires greater supervision than the administrative service now charged with the duty of purchase, importation, refining, distribution, and consumption can give. It seems, therefore, that a centralization and a closer coordination of all these duties should be inaugurated.

On the date mentioned a new bureau, attached to the department of agriculture and food supply, and designated as the "Commission General of Petroleum and Combustibles," was created.

Its principal duties are as follows: To secure a supply of petroleum, its products, lubricants, carburets, and combustibles, for France, its colonies and protectorates, and also a supply of mineral and vegetable fuel, tobacco, matches, etc.; to enter into agreements relative to the purchase, importation, transportation, production, distribution, maintenance of stocks, development and exploitation of natural resources, new works, refining, manufacture, etc., of petroleum and its products; to make purchases and releases in France and in foreign markets, as well as to provide for financing such operations; to exercise a general supervision over all trading in, and industrial uses of, petroleum, its products, mineral oils, burning fluids, carburets, and lubricants; to assure provisions to the armies by providing for supplies according to the needs of the national and allied armies, distribution to the civil population and all classes of consumers; to maintain a strict supervision on all questions relative to the acquisition, distribution, and use of any of these substances; to propose measures necessary for storing, adapting and adjusting warehouses, cisterns, workshops, pipe lines, and other establishments necessary to assure the execution of this decree; to propose and encourage domestic and colonial production of petroleum, bituminous schists, bitumen, asphalt, and all other substances from which carburets or liquid combustibles may be extracted.

COAL.²

In fixing the prices of coal the kind, size, ash content, and grade are taken into consideration. Prices are for coal of French production f. o. b. at station. In one anthracite mine there are seven

¹ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Paris, Aug. 23, 1918, p. 7434.

² Idem., Sept. 20, 1918, p. 8223.

recognized grades, as determined by ash content and size. The first grade has less than 15 per cent ash content and the cheapest grade between 21 and 30 per cent. The prices of these seven grades per metric ton (2,204.6 pounds) vary from 79.15 francs (\$15.28) for the best three grades to 30.15 francs (\$5.82) for the cheapest grade. These prices became effective July 1, 1918. Prices of coal produced by the Plamores mine vary, according to the same method of determining the quality, from 26.50 francs to 41 francs (\$5.11 to \$7.91) through 10 grades. Prices of the various grades produced by the mines of the Loire, and having an ash content of less than 18 per cent, vary from 42 to 60.50 francs (\$8.11 to \$11.68) through 15 grades. The prices for these two mines became effective September 1, 1918.

COOPERATION.

NATIONAL COOPERATIVE CONVENTION AT SPRINGFIELD, ILL.

The most significant event in the American cooperative movement was the National Cooperative Convention which was held in the statehouse at Springfield, Ill., on September 25, 26, and 27, 1918, under the auspices of the Cooperative League of America. Delegates and representatives were present from all parts of the United States. Labor was strongly represented. Most of the papers and discussions were by workingmen, and the chief object of the convention developed in the formation of a national cooperative wholesale house as a medium of supply to upward of 1,000 retail cooperatives in the United States, of which number about 500 were directly represented at the convention. These retail cooperatives, it was stated by Ernest O. F. Ames, president of the Pacific Cooperative League, of San Francisco, do \$100,000,000 worth of business a year. The new national cooperative wholesale house will deal also with cooperative producers' organizations that do an estimated annual business of over \$200,000,000 in the United States, and it will affiliate with cooperatives in Canada and Mexico.

The national cooperative wholesale house will be run on the Rochdale basis, returning quarterly pro rata to consumers all profits above the actual operating expenses and a sum reserved for extensions. Its president is Dalton T. Clarke, who heads the Tri-State Cooperative Association (wholesale), of Pittsburgh. Associated with Mr. Clarke are C. F. Lowrie, manager of organization department, Cooperative Wholesale Society of America, for the Minnesota and Montana region; Carl E. Lunn, manager, Puget Sound Cooperative Wholesale Society; John Nummivuori, manager, Cooperative Central Exchange of the Finnish Societies of the Central States; Duncan McDonald, general organizer, Cooperative League of America and secretary, Central States Cooperative Society; and K. E. Grendahl, of Fitchburg, Mass., representing the cooperatives of the Eastern States, including New England.

The new organization, like the Cooperative Wholesale Society of Great Britain, will proceed to establish warehouses at shipping centers wherever deemed necessary, and it is authorized to merge existing cooperative wholesale houses and to organize a department to establish the merger and to found a national cooperative newspaper.

Mr. Clarke, explaining the purposes of the organization, said that it was planned to base it upon the individual members—the retail Rochdale cooperative stores of America—and to admit none others as members than those formed on the Rochdale basis. These stores, he stated, feel compelled by pressure of outside influences to unite in common defense. Cooperation among retail stores in loose federations for collective buying are found to be insufficient, even when they have subscribed stock and built warehouses. The Puget Sound wholesale, the Central States wholesale, the Tri-State, the Pacific Coast League, and the Wisconsin group have their difficulties with competing wholesalers and jobbers, which they believe will disappear under a unified command. This will supply the special abilities of the best men of each group—men qualified for organizing in one group, financial men in another, expert accountants in another, and shrewd buyers in others—who will give the seven groups concerned the immediate benefit of their collective experience. The organization will finally resemble that of the labor unions, which are formed into State federations, with national and international bodies above them. Owned from below and managed democratically from below, the warehouses supervised by the national organization will ultimately be erected in every important center of the country. It is planned to send out organizers to raise the necessary capital, or help raise it, for the principle of self-help will be everywhere invoked by forming local committees who will work under the national organizers; their members will speak various languages and go from house to house in the districts assigned them, and from group to group in the work of affiliation.

Mr. C. O. Boring, of Evanston, Ill., announced that as administrator of the estate of the late Henry C. Childs, of Colorado Springs, he was prepared to put this estate to the purpose of founding a national cooperative college, especially for the benefit of workmen of the United States. Its purpose will be to train managers and organizers of cooperative business in the industrial centers of the country, and it is pledged to the Rochdale principle on which the British cooperatives are run.

Addresses were delivered by James P. Warbasse, president, Cooperative League of America, on *The World Movement Toward Cooperation*, recording the immense advances of the movement in all countries, especially of those of the allied powers since the war began; on *Manufacturing by Consumers*, by Carl E. Lunn, of the Puget Sound Cooperatives; on *Cooperation, Labor, and Winning the War for Democracy*, by John H. Walker, president, Illinois State Federation of Labor; on *The Cooperative Movement in Labor*, by J. C. Lewis, president, Iowa United Mine Workers of America, and on *Labor, Cooperation, and World Reconstruction*, by John F. McNamee,

editor and manager, Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen's Journal. There were also round-table discussions by other prominent cooperative authorities of the United States and Canada. As indicative of the great war growth of the cooperative movement the following telegram to the convention from Isaac J. Sherman, of the Moscow Cooperative People's Bank, may be cited:

NEW YORK, September 24, 1918.

Dr. JAMES WARBASSE,

National Cooperative Convention, Statehouse, Springfield, Ill.

Be convey sincere wishes for successful work from Moscow Narodny Bank, which I represent in this country. I trust the national convention in Springfield will begin a new era of powerful development for American cooperation. In the trial times through which Russia is passing, cooperators are courageously struggling on behalf of the people and energetically pursuing the aim of reconstructing economic life on a cooperative basis. Russian cooperation embraces 50,000 societies, 75 per cent of which are in Great Russia and Siberia; the membership exceeds 20,000,000 householders. All-Russian Central Union of Consumers' Societies embraces 250 unions, 25,000 individual societies; consumers and credit unions are running 425 industrial concerns. The powerful Central Unions of Producers' Associations control agricultural resources of the country. The Central Flax Growers' Association embraces 1,500,000 peasant households. The Union of Siberian Creamery Associations embraces 1,600 creameries, 1,400 distributive stores. The Moscow Narodny Bank, which is an All-Russian Central Cooperative Bank, increased its capital from 1,000,000 rubles in 1912 to 35,000,000 rubles in 1918. Deposits exceed 800,000,000 rubles, turnover for 1917, 3,000,000,000 rubles, loans to cooperators over 425,000,000 rubles. The New York Agency received last month half a million dollars' worth of cooperative produce. More shipments are coming. In the gloomy darkness of Russian life Cooperation is the light of hope and salvation foreshadowing a better future. Long live American Cooperation. Long live Cooperative Unity.

SHERMAN, *Manager New York Agency,
Moscow Narodny Bank.*

The 20,000,000 householders mentioned in this dispatch represent at least 90,000,000 Russian people fed, clothed, and otherwise supplied by the Russian cooperatives, a growth during the war of over 66 per cent.

The telegram was accompanied by a cablegram, dated in London, from the Russian cooperative representatives there, as follows:

LONDON, September 22.

CHAIRMAN, NATIONAL COOPERATIVE CONVENTION,

Statehouse, Springfield, Ill.

On behalf of the Russian cooperative organizations which we represent in Great Britain we send our fraternal greetings and best wishes to American cooperators. Russian cooperative movement embraces 50,000 individual societies with membership of 20,000,000, and is the only force capable of and actually regenerating the welfare of the nation. We are deeply convinced that international cooperation provides a firm basis for economic reconstruction of the world and consolidation of fraternity.

(Signed) BUBNOFF, *Moscow Narodny Bank.*

KRYSIN, *All-Russian Central Union of Consumers' Societies.*

MOROSOFF, *Union of Siberian Cooperative Unions, "Zakupshyt."*

YARKOFF, *Union of Siberian Creamery Associations.*

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

EIGHT-HOUR BASIC DAY ADOPTED BY THE STEEL CORPORATION.

Announcement has been made by the president of the United States Steel Corporation that its finance committee has unanimously approved the recommendation of the chairman and the president of the corporation, and of the presidents of subsidiary companies, to adopt an eight-hour basic day, effective October 1, 1918. The announcement affects approximately 250,000 employees and is applicable to the mines as well as the factories of the corporation. Many of the plants are of necessity operated continuously 24 hours each day, the men working in two shifts of 12 hours each. Mechanics work in one shift of 10 hours. The new order affects both groups of men, the excess over eight hours being paid for at the rate of time and one-half. It is announced that the open-shop plan heretofore in force throughout the works will be continued.

UNION SCALES IN THE BUILDING, METAL, AND STONE TRADES, AND IN FREIGHT HANDLING.

In the September, 1918, MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW there were published the union scales of wages and hours of labor as of May 15, 1918, and May 15, 1917, for the principal occupations in the building, granite and stone, and metal trades and in freight handling in the principal industrial cities of the North Atlantic division of the United States. In the October LABOR REVIEW there were published the union scales for the same dates, and the same industries and occupations, in the principal cities of the North Central division of the country. In this issue of the LABOR REVIEW there is published a continuation of the union scales for the same industries and occupations in the chief industrial cities of the South Atlantic, South Central, and Western divisions of the country. Known changes since May 15, 1918, are indicated in footnotes. The scales as of the two dates are printed in parallel columns so that comparison may be made between the two years.

The information was collected by special agents of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in personal calls on the local union officials.

Included in the table are the following occupations in shops of railroads under control of the United States Director General of Rail-

roads: Blacksmiths, boilermakers, machinists, sheet-metal workers, and their helpers.

On July 25, 1918, Supplement No. 4¹ to General Order No. 27² awarded to journeymen of the above trades a minimum rate of 68 cents per hour, and to helpers 45 cents per hour, recognized the principle of a basic eight-hour day and made provisions for overtime.

The award was made retroactive to January 1, 1918; therefore the awarded scale is included in this table, which, as stated, reports as of May 15, 1918. Single-time rate is applied to the basic eight hours, and noted for any additional time which constituted the recognized working day before the award was made. Overtime rate and rates for work on Sundays and holidays, which were in effect on May 15, 1918, prior to the award, are shown in the table. For overtime after a basic eight-hour day and for work on Sundays and holidays the award fixed a rate of time and one-half to be effective as of August 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917.

BUILDING TRADES.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
ASBESTOS WORKERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.....	Cents. 75.0	Dolls. 33.00	1½	3 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	Cents. 53.1	Dolls. 25.50	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.....	53.1	25.50	1½	3 2	8 - 8 - 48		53.1	25.50	8 - 8 - 48
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.....	62.5	30.00	1½	3 1½	8 - 8 - 48		59.4	28.50	8 - 8 - 48
Houston, Tex.....	68.8	33.00	1½	3 1½	8 - 8 - 48		59.4	28.50	8 - 8 - 48
New Orleans, La.....	62.5	30.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		(6)	(6)	(6)
Western:									
Portland, Oreg.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
BRICKLAYERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	60.0	30.00	1½	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	60.0	30.00	9 - 5 - 50
Baltimore, Md.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Charleston, S. C.....	50.6	31.25	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		40.0	21.60	11 9 - 8 - 53
Jacksonville, Fla.—									
Union A.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Union B.....	75.0	36.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ See pages 131-134 of the September, 1918, MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

² See pages 1-45 of the June, 1918, MONTHLY REVIEW.

³ Triple time for Labor Day.

⁴ Scale became 62.5 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 75 cents on Aug. 31, 1918.

⁶ No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

⁷ 44 hours per week June to August, inclusive.

⁸ Scale became 70 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁹ 54 hours per week, October to April, inclusive.

¹⁰ Scale became \$1 on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹¹ Work 53 hours, paid for 54.

¹² Scale became 75 cents and 44 hours on Aug. 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.		Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BRICKLAYERS—concluded.								
South Atlantic—Concluded.	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>			<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
Norfolk, Va., district.....	75.0	33.00	2	1 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00
Richmond, Va.....	75.0	33.75	2 1 1/2	2	* 8 - 5 - 45	3	75.0	33.75
Washington, D. C.....	75.0	33.75	(*)	2	* 8 - 5 - 45	7	70.0	31.50
South Central:								
Birmingham, Ala.....	87.5	38.50	6 1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80
Fire-brick work.....	7 65.0	35.10	1 1/2	2	9 - 9 - 54	50.0	27.00
Dallas, Tex.....	87.5	38.50	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
Houston, Tex.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
Little Rock, Ark.....	87.5	38.50	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
Louisville, Ky.....	75.0	33.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80
Memphis, Tenn.....	87.5	38.50	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	82.5	36.30
Nashville, Tenn.....	80.0	35.20	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80
New Orleans, La.....	8 62.5	27.50	2 1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50
Western:								
Butte, Mont.....	100.0	48.00	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	100.0	48.00
Denver, Colo.....	100.0	44.00	1 1/2	9 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
Los Angeles, Cal.....	75.0	33.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50
Portland, Ore.....	10 87.5	38.50	1 1/2	11 1 1/2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	87.5	38.50	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
San Francisco, Cal.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
Seattle, Wash.....	100.0	44.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75
Spokane, Wash.....	100.0	44.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50
BRICKLAYERS: SEWER, TUNNEL, AND CAISSON WORK.								
South Central:								
Houston, Tex.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	100.0	44.00
Western:								
Butte, Mont.....	1 293.8	45.00	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	75.0	36.00
Seattle, Wash.....	112.5	49.50	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	93.8	41.25
BUILDING LABORERS.								
South Atlantic:								
Baltimore, Md.....	56.3	24.75	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25
Washington, D. C.—								
Building work.....	1 340.0	19.20	1 1/2	14 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	31.3	13.75
Plumbing work.....	62.5	30.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	31.3	15.00
South Central:								
Houston, Tex.....	1 531.0	13.64	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	25.0	11.00
Little Rock, Ark.....	35.0	18.90	1 1/2	2	9 - 9 - 54	25.0	13.50
Louisville, Ky.....	30.0	15.00	1 1/2	16 1 1/2	9 - 5 - 50	12	22.2	12.00

1 Work on New Year's Day, July 4, Labor Day, and Christmas Day prohibited.

2 Double time after midnight.

3 4 1/2 hours per week, December to February, inclusive.

4 Overtime work prohibited.

5 4 1/2 hours per week, October to April, inclusive.

6 And on Saturday afternoon.

7 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

8 Scale became 75 cents on Aug. 6, 1918.

9 Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

10 Scale became \$1 on July 1, 1918.

11 For Sundays: double time for holidays.

12 Scale became \$1 on July 4, 1918.

13 Scale became 50 cents on June 27, 1918.

14 Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

15 Scale became 45 cents on July 1, 1918.

16 Double time after 7 p. m.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BUILDING LABORERS—concl'd.									
Western:	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>				<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
Butte, Mont.....	156.3	27.00	² 70c.	² 70c.	8 - 8 - 48	46.9	22.50	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.....	53.1	25.50	³ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	43.8	21.00	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	34.4	15.13	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.....	450.0	24.00	⁶ 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	443.8	21.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
P excavating.....	443.8	21.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.....	56.3	27.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
P excavating.....	750.0	22.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Tunnel and caisson work.	62.5	30.00	(⁸)	1	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Spokane, Wash.....	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
CARPENTERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	⁹ 50.0	25.00	1½	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	50.0	25.00	9 - 5 - 50
Baltimore, Md.....	1062.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Charleston, S. C.—									
Unions A and B.....	750.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	33.3	18.00	11 9 - 8 - 53
Union C.....	737.5	18.00	¹² 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	33.3	18.00	11 9 - 8 - 53
Jacksonville, Fla.—									
Union A.....	1340.0	19.20	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Union B.....	45.0	21.60	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	(¹⁴)	(¹⁴)	(¹⁴)
Norfolk, Va., district—									
Norfolk, Va.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portsmouth, Va.....	62.5	30.00	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8½ - 5½ - 48	12	43.8	21.00	8½ - 5½ - 48
Washington, D. C.....	1562.5	27.81	1½	2	18 8 - 4½ - 44½	12	62.5	27.81	8 - 4½ - 44½
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	1655.0	26.40	1½	2	16 8 - 8 - 48	45.0	21.60	8 - 8 - 48
Dallas, Tex.....	1762.5	27.50	¹² 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.....	1860.0	26.40	1½	2	19 8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	19 8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.....	60.0	26.40	²⁰ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.....	65.0	28.60	¹² 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.....	750.0	22.00	³ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	40.0	17.60	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.....	2150.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	40.0	19.20	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	2287.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.....	75.0	33.00	1½	²⁸ 1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48

1 Scale became 62.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.
 2 Rate in cents per hour.
 3 Double time after 10 p. m.
 4 Scale became 62.5 cents on July 1, 1918.
 5 Double time after 8 hours.
 6 Scale became 50 cents on July 1, 1918.
 7 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.
 8 Overtime work prohibited.
 9 Scale became 60 cents on July 1, 1918.
 10 Scale became 70 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.
 11 Work 53 hours, paid for 54.
 12 Double time after midnight.
 13 Scale became 55 cents on June 1, 1918.
 14 Not organized on May 15, 1917.
 15 Scale became 75 cents and 44 hours on July 1, 1918.
 16 Scale became 65 cents and 44 hours on June 1, 1918.
 17 Scale became 80 cents on July 1, 1918.
 18 Scale became 70 cents on July 1, 1918.
 19 Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.
 20 Double time after 7 p. m.
 21 Scale became 54 cents on June 1, 1918.
 22 Scale became \$1 on July 1, 1918.
 23 Work on July 4, Labor Day, Christmas Day, and Saturday afternoon prohibited.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	May 15, 1917		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.		Rate of wages—		
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
CARPENTERS—concluded.									
Western—Concluded.									
Portland, Oreg.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	75.0	33.00	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Stair builders.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	82.5	36.30	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.0	28.60	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
CARPENTERS: MILLWRIGHTS.									
South Central:									
Memphis, Tenn.....	65.0	39.00	1½	2	10 - 10 - 60	55.0	33.00	10 - 10 - 60
Western:									
San Francisco, Cal.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Outside.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	(*)	(*)	(*)
CARPENTERS: PARQUETRY-FLOOR LAYERS.									
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	7 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	97.5	42.90	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	82.5	36.30	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.....	60.0	26.40	8 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.....	54.0	25.92	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Los Angeles, Cal.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
CEMENT FINISHERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.....	107.0	30.80	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	162.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Dallas, Tex.....	162.5	30.00	13 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Houston, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	13 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	14 8 - 4 - 44	6	75.0	40.50	9 - 9 - 54
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	112.5	49.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	112.5	49.50	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.....	187.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	75.0	36.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	75.0	36.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	81.3	39.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Spokane, Wash.....	87.5	42.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	75.0	36.00	8 - 8 - 48

1 Scale became \$2.5 cents on June 1, 1918.

2 Scale became \$7.5 cents on Aug. 5, 1918.

3 Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

4 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

5 Not organized on May 15, 1917.

6 Scale became \$2.5 cents on July 1, 1918.

7 Double time after midnight.

8 Double time after 10 p. m.

9 Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

10 Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

11 Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

12 Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

13 Double time on Saturday after 5 p. m.

14 48 hours per week, October to March, inclusive.

15 Scale became \$1 on July 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
CEMENT FINISHERS' HELPERS.									
Western:	<i>Cents.</i>		<i>Dolls.</i>				<i>Cents.</i>		<i>Dolls.</i>
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	75.0	36.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
CEMENT WORKERS: LABORERS.									
Western:									
San Francisco, Cal.....	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
COMPOSITION ROOFERS.									
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	56.3	27.00	2	70c.	8 - 8 - 48	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Los Angeles, Cal.....	50.0	24.00	1	1	8 - 8 - 48	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	81.3	35.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	87.5	42.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	60.0	28.80	8 - 8 - 48
ELEVATOR CONSTRUCTORS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	460.0	30.00	2	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	55.0	27.50	9 - 5 - 50
Baltimore, Md.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	8½ - 4½ - 48	12	58.0	27.84	8½ - 4½ - 48
Washington, D. C.....	72.0	31.68	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	69.0	30.36	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.....	70.0	30.80	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	65.0	28.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Denver, Colo.....	70.0	30.80	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	75.0	27.00	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Ore.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
ELEVATOR CONSTRUCTORS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	40.0	20.00	2	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	30.0	15.00	9 - 5 - 50
Baltimore, Md.....	48.1	23.10	2	2	8½ - 4½ - 48	12	37.5	18.00	8½ - 4½ - 48
Washington, D. C.....	47.5	20.90	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	44.0	19.36	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	35.0	15.40	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	35.0	15.40	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.....	35.0	15.40	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	35.0	15.40	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	35.0	15.40	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	35.0	15.40	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Denver, Colo.....	47.5	20.90	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	47.5	22.80	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	12	31.3	15.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Ore.....	50.0	24.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	50.0	24.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.....	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44

¹ Scale became 62.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

² Rate in cents per hour.

³ Double time after midnight.

⁴ Scale became 62.5 cents and 48 hours on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 80 cents on Aug. 5, 1918.

⁶ Single time for repair work on Saturday afternoon until 5 p. m.

⁷ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁸ Scale became 45 cents and 48 hours on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁹ Scale became 54.6 cents on Aug. 5, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages.		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
ENGINEERS: PORTABLE AND HOISTING.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.—									
Boom derrick and hoist.....	Cents. 62.5	Dolls. 27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	30.94	9 - 4½-49½
Hoisting concrete.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	45.0	22.28	9 - 4½-49½
Baltimore, Md.....	80.0	35.20	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	31.50	8 - 5 - 45
Norfolk, Va., district.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.....	80.0	35.20	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Boom derrick.....	162.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	57.3	27.50	8 - 8 - 48
Concrete mixing.....	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	45.4	22.00	8 - 8 - 48
Hoist.....	56.3	27.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	52.1	25.00	8 - 8 - 48
Dallas, Tex.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.—									
Boom derrick.....	467.5	29.70	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Hoist.....	562.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.....	50.0	22.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.....	65.0	31.20	1	1	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Memphis, Tenn.....	65.0	28.60	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.....	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Pile driving.....	744.4	24.00	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54	44.4	24.00	9 - 9 - 54
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	87.5	38.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.—									
Boom derrick.....	81.3	35.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Hoist.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Tractor mixing.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Ore.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Concrete mixing.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	81.3	35.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Concrete mixing.....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	36.00	8 - 8 - 48
Concrete mixing.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
GLAZIERS.									
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	90.0	39.60	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.....	55.0	26.40	1½	1½	8½ - 5½-48	12	45.0	21.60	8½ - 5½-48
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	60.0	28.80	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	3	48.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
HOD CARRIERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.....	56.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	40.0	17.60	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.....	50.0	22.50	1½	2	8 - 5 - 45	12	31.3	14.06	10 8 - 5 - 45
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	37.5	16.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	25.0	11.00	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	37.5	16.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	31.3	13.75	8 - 4 - 44

¹ Scale became 70 cents on July 1, 1918.

² Scale became 62.5 cents on July 1, 1918.

³ Time and one-half on Saturday afternoons.

⁴ Scale to become 75 cents on Nov. 1, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 75 cents and 44 hours on July 15, 1918.

⁷ Scale to become 65 cents on Dec. 1, 1918.

⁸ Scale became 48 hours per week on June 1, 1918.

⁹ 45 hours per week June to August, inclusive.

¹⁰ 44½ hours per week, October to April, inclusive.

¹¹ Scale became 50 cents on July 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
HOD CARRIERS—concluded.									
South Central—Concluded.									
Little Rock, Ark.....	140.0	21.60	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54	Cents. 30.0	Dolls. 16.20	9 - 9 - 54
Louisville, Ky.....	245.0	19.80	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	45.0	19.80	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.....	50.0	22.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.....	40.0	17.60	1	1	8 - 4 - 44	12	20.0	8.80	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	475.0	36.00	1½	6 1½	8 - 8 - 48	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.—									
Brickmen.....	53.1	23.38	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
Mortarmen.....	56.3	24.75	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	46.9	20.63	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	50.0	22.00	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	40.6	17.88	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Brickmen.....	56.3	24.75	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Mortarmen.....	62.5	27.60	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Wheelbarrow men.....	56.3	24.75	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Sewer work.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
INSIDE WIREMEN.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	55.0	26.40	6 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	38.9	21.00	9 - 9 - 54
Baltimore, Md.....	70.0	33.60	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	5	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Charleston, S. C.....	57.0	27.36	1½	10 1½	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	33.3	18.00	12 9 - 9 - 54
Jacksonville, Fla.....	165.0	31.20	6 1½	2	13 8 - 8 - 48	45.0	21.60	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.....	160.0	28.80	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	162.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.....	180.0	35.20	6 1½	17 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.0	28.60	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.6	28.88	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.....	185.0	26.40	2	2	19 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	24.00	19 8 - 8 - 48
Louisville, Ky.....	205.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	21.60	8 - 8 - 48
Memphis, Tenn.....	2162.5	27.50	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.....	2160.0	26.40	6 1½	17 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	33.3	18.00	9 - 9 - 54
New Orleans, La.....	256.3	27.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ The scale was not revised, but the wage was increased to 45 cents per hour between May 15, 1917, and May 15, 1918.

- ² Scale became 50 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.
- ³ Double time after 7 p. m.
- ⁴ Scale became 87.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.
- ⁵ For Sundays; double time for holidays.
- ⁶ Double time after 10 p. m.
- ⁷ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.
- ⁸ Double time after midnight.
- ⁹ Scale became 44 hours per week on Aug. 1, 1918.
- ¹⁰ For Sundays; 2½ times regular rate for holidays.
- ¹¹ 44 hours per week, June 10 to Sept. 14, inclusive.
- ¹² 49½ hours per week, June 10 to Sept. 14, inclusive.
- ¹³ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported. Scale became 75 cents and 44 hours on Aug. 1, 1918.
- ¹⁴ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported. Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 17, 1918.
- ¹⁵ Scale became 75 cents on June 21, 1918.
- ¹⁶ Scale became 87.5 cents on July 1, 1918.
- ¹⁷ Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.
- ¹⁸ Scale became 75 cents on July 11, 1918.
- ¹⁹ 44 hours per week, July to September, inclusive.
- ²⁰ Scale became 60 cents on June 1, 1918.
- ²¹ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.
- ²² More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.
- ²³ Scale became 70 cents on June 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
INSIDE WIREMEN—concl'd.									
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	<i>Cents.</i> 187.5	<i>Dolls.</i> 38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	<i>Cents.</i> 87.5	<i>Dolls.</i> 38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.	82.5	36.30	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.	72.2	31.76	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.	75.0	36.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	70.0	33.60	8 - 8 - 48
INSIDE WIREMEN: FIXTURE HANGERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.	55.0	26.40	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	38.9	21.00	9 - 9 - 54
Baltimore, Md.	70.0	33.60	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	5	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.	80.0	35.20	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.0	28.60	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Los Angeles, Cal.	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.	72.2	31.76	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	68.8	30.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
LATHERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.—									
Metal or wood.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Charleston, S. C.	(9)	1½	10 ¹	8 - 8 - 48	(11)	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.—									
Metal or wood.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Wood.	(12)	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(13)	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.—									
Metal.	81.3	35.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Wood, cypress.	(12)	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(14)	8 - 4 - 44
Wood, pine.	(12)	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(15)	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.—									
Metal.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Wood.	(15)	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(16)	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.—									
Metal.	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	52.5	23.10	8 - 4 - 44
Wood.	(17)	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(18)	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.	(19)	1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	(19)	8 - 8 - 48

¹ Scale became \$1 on June 25, 1918.

² A majority of the union members of this occupation are working in Government shipyards at 72.5 cents per hour, double time for overtime.

³ Double time after 10 p. m.

⁴ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁵ Double time after midnight.

⁶ 44 hours per week, August to December, inclusive.

⁷ Scale became 87.5 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁸ Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

⁹ \$2.50 per 1,000 laths. Scale became \$3 per 1,000 laths on July 1, 1918.

¹⁰ For holidays; no scale for Sundays.

¹¹ \$2.25 per 1,000 laths.

¹² \$4 per 1,000 laths.

¹³ \$2.50 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁴ \$3.50 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁵ \$5 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁶ \$3.15 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁷ \$3.25 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁸ \$2.75 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁹ 4 cents per square yard.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
LATHERS—concluded.									
Western:			Regular rate multiplied by—						
Butte, Mont.—									
Metal or wood.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	100.0	44.00	8 - 4 - 44
Metal.....	(1)		2	2 1	8 - 4 - 44	12	(1)		8 - 4 - 44
Wood.....	(2)		2	2 1	8 - 4 - 44	12	(3)		8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.—									
Metal or wood, first class.	75.0	33.00	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Metal or wood, second class.	68.8	30.25	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.—									
Metal or wood.....	56.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Wood.....	(5)		1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(6)		8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.—									
Metal or wood.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Wood.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(7)		8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Metal or wood, first class.	75.0	33.00	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Metal or wood, second class.	75.0	33.00	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.6	28.88	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	87.5	35.00	2	2	8 - 0 - 40	12	75.0	30.00	8 - 0 - 40
Spokane, Wash.—									
Metal.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Wood.....	(9)		2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(7)		8 - 4 - 44
MARBLE SETTERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	68.8	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Baltimore, Md.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Norfolk, Va., district.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.5	30.14	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	100.0	48.00	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		100.0	48.00	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.....	75.0	33.00	1½	1½ 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44

¹ 10 cents per square yard.

² For Sundays; double time for holidays.

³ 7 cents per square yard; scale became 8 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁴ Scale became 68.8 cents on May 20, 1918.

⁵ \$2.25 per 1,000 laths; scale became \$2.75 per 1,000 on May 20, 1918.

⁶ \$2 per 1,000 laths.

⁷ \$3 per 1,000 laths.

⁸ Work 5 days per week.

⁹ \$3.75 per 1,000 laths.

¹⁰ Scale became 70 cents on June 1, 1918.

¹¹ Scale became 75 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹² More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

¹³ Scale became 75 cents on Aug. 6, 1918.

¹⁴ Double time after midnight.

¹⁵ Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city	May 15, 1918.				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	May 15, 1917.		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Rate of wages—						Rate of wages—		
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
MARBLE SETTERS' HELPERS.									
Western:									
San Francisco, Cal.	Cents. 143.8	Dolls. 19.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	Cents. 37.5	Dolls. 16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	56.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
PAINTERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	36.1	19.50	2 9 - 8 - 53
Baltimore, Md.	56.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
Charleston, S. C.	31.3	15.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	25.0	12.00	8 - 8 - 48
Jacksonville, Fla.	50.0	24.00	6 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	21.60	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district—									
Norfolk, Va.	60.0	28.80	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portsmouth, Va.	60.0	28.80	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.	62.5	27.50	1½	8 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.	70.0	30.80	5 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.	65.0	28.60	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.	65.0	28.60	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Memphis, Tenn.	62.5	27.50	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.	42.5	20.40	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	3	40.0	19.20	8 - 8 - 48
New Orleans, La.	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	40.0	19.20	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	90.0	39.60	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.	68.8	30.25	1½	10 1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	1156.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.	70.0	30.80	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.	75.0	33.00	1½	10 1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	75.0	30.00	2	2	12 8 - 0 - 40	12	65.0	28.60	8 - 4 - 44
SpoKane, Wash.	70.0	30.80	1½	13 1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
PAINTERS: FRESCO.									
South Atlantic:									
Charleston, S. C.	56.3	27.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	90.0	39.60	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	6225	27.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah.	75.0	33.00	1½	10 1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	75.0	30.90	2	2	12 8 - 0 - 40	71.3	31.35	8 - 4 - 44

1 Scale became 50 cents on July 1, 1918.

2 Work 53 hours, paid for 54.

3 Scale became 68.8 cents on Nov. 18, 1918.

4 Scale became 55 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

5 Double time after midnight.

6 Scale became 62.5 cents on Aug. 29, 1918.

7 Scale became 60 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

8 Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

9 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

10 Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

11 Scale became 62.5 cents on Sept. 1, 1918. More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

12 Work 5 days per week.

13 Work on Saturday afternoon, July 4, and Christmas prohibited.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.				
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.		
PAINTERS: SIGN.										
South Central:										
Birmingham, Ala.....	Cents. 75.0	Dolls. 33.00		1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	Cents. 56.3	Dolls. 24.75	8-4-44
Dallas, Tex.....	168.8	33.00	2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-8-48	3	62.5	30.00	8-8-48
Louisville, Ky.....	62.5	30.00	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-8-48	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Memphis, Tenn.....	62.5	27.50	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Western:										
Butte, Mont.....	60.0	30.60	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	81.3	35.75	8-4-44
Denver, Colo.....	77.5	34.10	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	67.5	32.40	8-8-48
Los Angeles, Cal.....	68.8	30.25	2	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Portland, Ore.....	81.3	35.75	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	68.8	33.00	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	8-8-48		68.8	33.00	8-8-48
San Francisco, Cal.....	81.3	35.75	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	68.8	30.25	8-4-44
Seattle, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
PLASTERERS.										
South Atlantic:										
Baltimore, Md.....	672.0	31.68	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	68.8	30.25	8-4-44
Charleston, S. C.....	50.6	24.30	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-8-48		40.0	21.60	9-8-53
Jacksonville, Fla.....	68.8	30.25	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	56.3	27.00	8-8-48
Norfolk, Va., district.....	75.0	33.00	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	10	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Washington, D. C.....	670.0	30.80	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	70.0	30.80	8-4-44
South Central:										
Birmingham, Ala.....	11 62.5	27.50	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Dallas, Tex.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	87.5	38.50	8-4-44
Houston, Tex.....	100.0	44.00	2	10	2	8-4-44	12	87.5	38.50	8-4-44
Little Rock, Ark.....	75.0	33.00	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	6	75.0	33.00	12 8-4-44
Louisville, Ky.....	70.0	30.80	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	65.0	28.60	8-4-44
Memphis, Tenn.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
Nashville, Tenn.....	70.0	30.80	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	56.3	24.75	8-4-44
New Orleans, La.....	62.5	28.13	2	2	2	8-5-45	12	62.5	28.13	8-5-45
Western:										
Butte, Mont.....	13 100.0	44.00	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	8-4-44	12	100.0	44.00	8-4-44
Denver, Colo.....	87.5	38.50	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	14	8-4-44	12	87.5	38.50	8-4-44
Los Angeles, Cal.....	75.0	33.00	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	1	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Portland, Ore.....	15 87.5	38.50	2	2	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	15 87.5	38.50	2	16	2	8-4-44	12	87.5	38.50	8-4-44
San Francisco, Cal.....	100.0	40.00	2	2	17	8-0-40	12	87.5	35.00	17 8-0-40
Seattle, Wash.....	100.0	40.00	2	2	17	8-0-40	12	87.5	35.00	17 8-0-40
Spokane, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	1	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	2	8-4-44	12	87.5	38.50	8-4-44

¹ Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 5, 1918.

² Double time after 1 a. m.

³ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

⁴ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁵ Double time after midnight.

⁶ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁷ Work 53 hours, paid for 54.

⁸ Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 3, 1918.

⁹ Double time after 8 p. m.

¹⁰ Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

¹¹ Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

¹² 48 hours per week, October to March, inclusive.

¹³ Scale became \$1.004 on May 29, 1918, and \$1.125 on Sept. 1, 1918.

¹⁴ For Sundays; work on holidays prohibited.

¹⁵ Scale became \$1 on July 1, 1918.

¹⁶ Work on holidays and on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

¹⁷ Work 5 days per week.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
PLASTERERS' LABORERS.									
	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>				<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
South Atlantic:									
Washington, D. C.	50.0	22.00	1½	1 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.	37.5	16.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	25.0	11.00	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.	45.0	19.80	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	45.0	19.80	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.	28.3	12.75	1½	2	8 - 5 - 45	12	28.3	12.75	8 - 5 - 45
Tenders	35.0	15.75	1½	2	8 - 5 - 45	12	28.3	12.75	8 - 5 - 45
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	75.0	33.00	1½	6 1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.	59.4	26.13	4 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	62.5	27.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.	76.25	30.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah.	68.8	30.25	6 1½	1 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	68.8	30.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
PLUMBERS AND GAS FITTERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	44.4	24.00	8 0 - 8 - 53
Baltimore, Md.	68.8	30.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Charleston, S. C.	59.0	28.32	11 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Jacksonville, Fla.	75.0	33.00	11 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district—									
Norfolk, Va.	72.5	31.90	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Portsmouth, Va.	62.5	30.00	1½	12 1½	18 8 - 8 - 48	3	53.0	25.44	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.	62.5	30.00	1½	2	18 8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.	87.5	38.50	11 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.	70.0	30.80	1½	17 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.	81.3	39.00	11 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Nashville, Tenn.	56.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	23.50	8 - 7 - 47
New Orleans, La.	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	100.0	44.00	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.	87.5	38.50	2	20 2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

² Scale became 50 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

³ Time and one-half from 5 to 7 p. m.

⁴ Scale became 87.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁵ For Sundays; double time for holidays.

⁶ Double time after 10 p. m.

⁷ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁸ Work 53 hours, paid for 54.

⁹ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

¹⁰ Scale became 73 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹¹ Double time after midnight.

¹² For Sundays; 2½ times regular rate for holidays.

¹³ 44 hours per week, June 15 to Sept. 15, inclusive.

¹⁴ Scale became 75 cents and 44 hours on Aug. 15, 1918.

¹⁵ Scale became \$1 on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹⁶ Scale became 87.5 cents on June 1, 1918.

¹⁷ Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon and double time after 5 p. m.

¹⁸ One-third of the members receive 75 cents per hour.

¹⁹ Scale became \$1.094 on July 1, 1918, and \$1.125 on Sept. 1, 1918.

²⁰ Work on Saturday afternoon prohibited.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	May 15, 1917.		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.		Rate of wages—		
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
PLUMBERS AND GAS FITTERS—concluded.									
Western—Concluded.									
Portland, Oreg.	81.3	35.75	2	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
Salt Lake City, Utah	87.5	38.50	2	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
San Francisco, Cal.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8-4-44	12	81.3	35.75	8-4-44
Seattle, Wash.	90.0	39.60	2	2	8-4-44	12	81.3	35.75	8-4-44
Spokane, Wash.	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
SHEET METAL WORKERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.—									
Building work	65.0	31.20	1½	2	8-8-48		33.3	16.67	9-9-50
Railroad shops, road A.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		46.5	25.11	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road B.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		49.5	26.73	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road G.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		50.5	35.35	10-10-70
Baltimore, Md.	62.5	27.50	2	2	8-4-44	12	45.0	21.60	8-8-48
Jacksonville, Fla.—									
Railroad shops, road C.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		48.0	25.92	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road E.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		48.0	25.92	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road F.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		48.0	25.92	9-9-54
Norfolk, Va., district—									
Norfolk, Va.	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8-8-48		44.0	21.12	8-8-48
Portsmouth, Va.—									
Railroad shops	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		46.0	23.00	9-9-54
Richmond, Va.—									
Building work	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8-8-48		41.9	20.11	8-8-48
Railroad shops, road A.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		40.5	21.87	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road B.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		44.5	24.03	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road C.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		40.5	21.87	9-9-54
Washington, D. C.	70.0	30.80	2	2	8-4-44	12	56.3	25.03	8-4½-44½
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Building work	65.0	28.60	1½	2	8-4-44	12	50.0	22.00	8-4-44
Railroad shops, roads B, E, and F	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		41.0	22.14	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road C.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		47.0	25.38	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road D.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		49.0	26.46	9-9-54
Railroad shops, roads E and F.	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		49.5	26.73	9-9-54
Dallas, Tex.	75.0	33.00	7 1½	2	8-4-44	12	68.8	30.25	8-4-44
Houston, Tex.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Little Rock, Ark.—									
Building work	65.0	31.20	2	2	10-8-48	3	60.0	28.80	8-8-48
Railroad shops, road A.	68.0	36.64	11 1	1½	8-8-48		38.5	20.75	12 9-8-53
Railroad shops, road B.	68.0	36.64	11 1	1½	8-8-48		41.0	22.09	12 9-8-53
Louisville, Ky.	50.0	22.00	7 1½	2	8-4-44	12	47.5	20.90	8-4-44
Memphis, Tenn.—									
Building work	62.5	30.00	7 1½	2	8-8-48		53.1	25.50	8-8-48
Railroad shops	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		42.5	22.95	9-9-54
Nashville, Tenn.	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8-8-48		30.0	14.40	8-8-48
New Orleans, La.	68.8	30.25	2	2	8-4-44	12	45.0	19.80	8-4-44

¹ Scale became 90 cents on June 3, 1918.

² Scale became \$1 on Aug. 1, 1918.

³ 54 hours per week, July to January, inclusive.

⁴ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁵ Scale became 60 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

⁷ Double time after midnight.

⁸ Scale became 87.5 cents on Oct. 11, 1918.

⁹ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹⁰ 44 hours per week, July to September, inclusive.

¹¹ Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

¹² Work 53 hours, paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
SHEET METAL WORKERS—concluded.									
Western:	<i>Cents.</i>		<i>Dolls.</i>						
Butte, Mont.	193.8	41.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.—									
Building work.....	75.0	33.00	2 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	43.5	20.88	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road D.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	(4)	(4)	(4)
Los Angeles, Cal.	68.5	30.14	2 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Oreg.	82.5	36.30	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.6	28.88	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Building work.....	5 62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	45.5	21.84	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.	82.5	36.30	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.—									
Building work.....	82.5	36.30	2 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Ship yards.....	6 82.5	39.60	2	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	59.0	28.32	8 - 8 - 48
Spokane, Wash.	75.0	36.00	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	65.6	31.50	8 - 8 - 48
SHIP CARPENTERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Charleston, S. C.	8 45.0	21.60	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	39.7	21.45	9 9 - 5 - 50
Jacksonville, Fla.—									
First class.....	70.0	33.60	10 1½	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	(11)	(11)	(11)
Second class.....	65.0	31.20	10 1½	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	(11)	(11)	(11)
Third class.....	60.0	28.80	10 1½	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	(11)	(11)	(11)
South Central:									
Houston, Tex.—									
First class.....	70.0	33.60	1½	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	(11)	(11)	(11)
Second class.....	65.0	31.20	1½	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	(11)	(11)	(11)
Western:									
Portland, Oreg.	82.5	39.60	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.	82.5	39.60	2	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.	6 82.5	39.60	2	2	7 8 - 8 - 48	3	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
SLATE AND TILE ROOFERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.	5 60.0	28.80	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	12 8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.	13 62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
San Francisco, Cal.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44

¹ Scale became \$1 on Aug. 1, 1918.

² Double time after midnight.

³ Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

⁴ No scale in effect on May 15, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁶ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁷ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

⁸ Scale became 70 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁹ Work 50 hours, paid for 54.

¹⁰ Double time on repair work.

¹¹ Not organized on May 15, 1917.

¹² 45 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

¹³ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
STEAM FITTERS AND SPRINKLER FITTERS.									
	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>			<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>		
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	44.4	24.00	19 - 8 - 53
Baltimore, Md.	68.8	30.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Charleston, S. C.	\$59.0	28.32	4½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Jacksonville, Fla.	75.0	33.00	4½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district.	\$72.5	31.90	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Richmond, Va.	\$62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.	787.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.	\$75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.	\$60.0	26.40	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.	1070.0	30.80	11	1	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.	68.8	30.25	4½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	12100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	100.0	44.00	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Ore.	181.3	35.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Sprinkler fitters.	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Sprinkler fitters.	81.3	35.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	790.0	39.60	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
STEAM FITTERS AND SPRINKLER FITTERS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.	43.8	19.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	31.3	15.00	8 - 8 - 48
Washington, D. C.	37.5	16.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	30.0	13.20	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.	1543.8	19.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	40.0	17.60	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.	1630.0	13.20	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	27.5	12.10	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.	1735.0	15.40	11	1	8 - 4 - 44	12	31.3	13.75	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Butte, Mont.	1856.3	24.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	46.9	20.63	8 - 4 - 44
Denver, Colo.	43.8	19.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44

1 Work 53 hours; paid for 54.

2 Four times regular rate for Labor Day.

3 Scale became 73 cents on July 1, 1918.

4 Double time after midnight.

5 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported. Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

6 Scale became 75 cents and 44 hours on Aug. 15, 1918.

7 Scale became \$1 on Aug. 1, 1918.

8 Scale became 87.5 cents on June 1, 1918.

9 Scale became 75 cents on June 22, 1918.

10 Scale became 81.3 cents on July 1, 1918.

11 Double time after 6 p. m.

12 Scale became \$1.09 on July 1, 1918, and \$1.125 on Sept. 1, 1918.

13 Scale became 90 cents on June 3, 1918.

14 Scale became 50 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

15 Scale became 37.5 cents on June 22, 1918.

16 Scale became 40.6 cents on July 1, 1918.

17 Scale became 62.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
STEAM FITTERS AND SPRINKLER FITTERS' HELPERS—concluded.									
Western—Concluded.	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>				<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
Portland, Ore.	52.5	23.10	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	43.8	19.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	31.3	13.75	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.....	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
Sprinkler fitters' helpers.	56.3	24.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	56.3	24.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	43.8	19.25	8 - 4 - 44
STONE MASONS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	¹ 60.0	30.00	1½	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	60.0	30.00	9 - 5 - 50
Baltimore, Md.....	² 62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Norfolk, Va., district.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.....	³ 75.0	33.38	1½	2	8 - 4½ - 44½	12	70.0	31.50	⁴ 8 - 5 - 45
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Sewer work.....	100.0	44.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	100.0	44.00	8 - 4 - 44
Little Rock, Ark.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Laying dressed stone.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.0	28.60	8 - 4 - 44
Nashville, Tenn.....	80.0	35.20	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.....	62.5	27.50	⁵ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	100.0	48.00	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	100.0	48.00	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Portland, Ore.....	⁶ 87.5	38.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	62.5	27.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.....	100.0	44.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	81.3	35.75	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
STRUCTURAL IRON WORKERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.....	⁷ 75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Norfolk, Va., district.....	⁷ 75.0	33.00	⁸ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
Richmond, Va.....	80.0	35.20	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.....	⁸ 80.0	35.20	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	75.0	33.00	⁹ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Dallas, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	⁹ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	67.5	29.70	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	100.7	29.70	11	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Reinforced concrete.....	1256.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Memphis, Tenn.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	65.0	28.60	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.....	75.0	33.00	¹⁰ 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44

¹ Scale became 70 cents on June 1, 1918.

² Scale became 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

³ Scale became 87.5 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁴ 4½ hours per week, November to April, inclusive.

⁵ Double time after midnight.

⁶ Scale became \$1 on July 1, 1918.

⁷ Scale became 87.5 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

⁸ Scale became 92.5 cents on Nov. 30, 1918.

⁹ Double time after 7 p. m.

¹⁰ Scale became 75 cents on Nov. 1, 1918.

¹¹ From 7 to 8 a. m. and from 5 to 7 p. m.; double time thereafter.

¹² Scale became 62.5 cents on July 1, and 75 cents on Nov. 1, 1918.

¹³ Double time after first hour.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
STRUCTURAL IRON WORKERS—concluded.									
Western:	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>				<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
Butte, Mont.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	36.00	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
Reinforced structures, concrete	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.	81.3	35.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Reinforced structures, concrete	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Spokane, Wash.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Reinforced structures, concrete	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
STRUCTURAL IRON WORKERS: FINISHERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Richmond, Va.	80.0	35.20	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.	80.0	35.20	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.	75.0	33.00	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	67.5	29.70	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.	75.0	33.00	6 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
Denver, Colo.	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	8 - 4 - 44
Los Angeles, Cal.	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Salt Lake City, Utah.	81.3	35.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	8 - 4 - 44
San Francisco, Cal.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Seattle, Wash.	87.5	38.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
STRUCTURAL IRON WORKERS: FINISHERS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Richmond, Va.	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	35.0	15.40	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	40.0	17.60	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Memphis, Tenn.	45.0	19.80	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	35.0	15.40	8 - 4 - 44
Western:									
San Francisco, Cal.	43.8	19.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
TILE LAYERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.	65.0	31.20	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district.	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.—									
Union A.	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Union B.	56.3	24.75	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44

¹ Double time after 9 p. m.

² Time and one-half on Saturday afternoon.

³ Scale became 87.5 cents on Aug. 31, 1918.

⁴ Scale to become 92.5 cents on Nov. 30, 1918.

⁵ Double time after 7 p. m.

⁶ Double time after first hour.

⁷ Scale became 87.5 cents on Aug. 5, 1918.

⁸ Scale became 55 cents on Aug. 31, 1918.

⁹ Scale became 50 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹⁰ Scale became 75 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹¹ Scale became 68.8 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

BUILDING TRADES—Concluded.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
TILE LAYERS—concluded.									
South Central:	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>					<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
Dallas, Tex.....	75.0	36.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	75.0	36.00	
Little Rock, Ark.....	75.0	33.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	
Louisville, Ky.....	75.0	33.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	(²)	(²)	
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	100.0	48.00	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	12	100.0	48.00	
Denver, Colo.....	³ 70.0	30.80	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	70.0	30.80	
Los Angeles, Cal.....	62.5	30.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	56.3	27.00	
Portland, Oreg.....	81.3	35.75	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	75.0	33.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	30.25	
San Francisco, Cal.....	81.3	35.75	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	75.0	33.00	
Seattle, Wash.....	81.3	39.00	1 1/2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	75.0	36.00	
TILE LAYERS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Washington, D. C.....	⁴ 31.3	13.75	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	31.3	13.75	
Western:									
Denver, Colo.....	⁵ 37.5	16.50	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	
Los Angeles, Cal.....	34.4	16.51	1 1/2	2	8 - 8 - 48	12	31.3	15.00	
Portland, Oreg.....	56.3	24.75	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	40.6	19.50	
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	40.6	17.86	1 1/2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	34.4	15.13	
San Francisco, Cal.....	⁶ 43.8	19.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	
Seattle, Wash.....	48.5	24.00	1 1/2	2	8 1/2 - 8 1/2 - 49 1/2	12	42.4	21.00	

FREIGHT HANDLERS.

South Atlantic:								
Norfolk, Va., district—								
Longshoremen—								
Overseas, ships.....	50.0	30.00	1 1/2	2	10 - 10 - 60	12	40.0	24.00
Overseas, docks.....	⁷ 40.0	24.00	1 1/2	2	10 - 10 - 60	12	30.0	18.00
Coastwise, ships.....	⁷ 30.0	18.90	1	1	10 1/2 - 10 1/2 - 63	12	27.5	17.33
Coastwise, docks.....	⁸ 25.0	15.75	1	1	10 1/2 - 10 1/2 - 63	12	22.5	14.18
South Central:								
Houston, Tex.....	40.0	24.00	2	2	10 - 10 - 60	12	40.0	24.00
New Orleans, La.—								
Carmen, inside.....	28.3	16.98	⁹ 32 1/2 c.	⁹ 32 1/2 c.	10 - 10 - 60	12	20.0	12.00
Carmen, outside.....	28.3	16.98	⁹ 32 1/2 c.	⁹ 32 1/2 c.	10 - 10 - 60	12	18.5	11.10
Coal handlers.....	50.0	30.00	⁹ 80 c.	⁹ 80 c.	10 - 10 - 60	12	40.0	24.00
Freight handlers.....	¹⁰ 25.0	15.00	⁹ 28 1/2 c.	⁹ 28 1/2 c.	10 - 10 - 60	12	18.5	11.10
Longshoremen and stevedores.....	50.0	29.00	1 1/2	2	10 - 8 - 58	12	40.0	23.60
Screwmen, foremen.....	84.8	42.00	1	2	8 1/2 - 8 1/2 - 49 1/2	12	72.7	36.00
Screwmen.....	72.7	36.00	1	2	8 1/2 - 8 1/2 - 49 1/2	12	60.6	30.00
Stave classifiers.....	¹¹ 35.0	18.90	1 1/2	2	9 - 9 - 54	12	35.0	18.90
Trimmers, grain, Union A.....	60.0	34.80	⁹ 50 c.	⁹ 100 c.	10 - 8 - 58	12	50.0	29.50
Trimmers, grain, Union B.....	60.0	34.80	1 1/2	2	10 - 8 - 58	12	50.0	29.50

¹ Double time after midnight.

² No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

³ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁴ Scale became 37.5 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 43.8 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 50 cents on May 18, 1918.

⁷ Scale became 45 cents on June 6, 1918.

⁸ Scale became 40 cents on June 6, 1918.

⁹ Rate in cents per hour.

¹⁰ Scale became 28.2 cents on June 1, 1918.

¹¹ Scale became 50 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

FREIGHT HANDLERS—Concluded.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
Western:									
Los Angeles, Cal.:									
Longshoremen—									
Loaders and unloaders, vessels.....	Cents. 50.0	Dolls. 24.00	¹ 75c.	¹ 75c.	8 - 8 - 48	Cents. 50.0	Dolls. 27.00	9 - 9 - 54
Truckers, docks and sheds.....	50.0	24.00	¹ 75c.	¹ 75c.	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	24.30	9 - 9 - 54
General cargo, foreign bound, and coast-wise vessels.....	65.0	31.20	¹ 100c.	¹ 100c.	8 - 8 - 48	55.0	29.70	9 - 9 - 54
Salvage work.....	100.0	54.00	1	1	9 - 9 - 54	100.0	54.00	9 - 9 - 54
Portland, Oreg.—									
Longshoremen—									
Grain handlers.....	60.0	28.80	¹ 90c.	¹ 90c.	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	24.30	9 - 9 - 54
Lumber handlers, export trade.....	80.0	38.40	¹ 20c.	¹ 20c.	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	27.00	9 - 9 - 54
General cargo.....	80.0	38.40	¹ 20c.	¹ 20c.	8 - 8 - 48	55.0	29.70	9 - 9 - 54
San Francisco, Cal.—									
Longshoremen—									
General freight.....	65.0	35.10	¹ 100c.	¹ 100c.	9 - 9 - 54	55.0	29.70	9 - 9 - 54
Coal handlers and men working on tramp steamers.....	75.0	40.50	¹ 25c.	¹ 25c.	9 - 9 - 54	55.0	29.70	9 - 9 - 54
General cargo, coast-wise vessels.....	70.0	37.80	¹ 10c.	¹ 10c.	9 - 9 - 54	55.0	29.70	9 - 9 - 54
Damaged cargoes and salvage work.....	125.0	67.50	¹ 25c.	¹ 25c.	9 - 9 - 54	100.0	54.00	9 - 9 - 54

GRANITE AND STONE TRADES.

GRANITE CUTTERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	60.0	26.40	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Baltimore, Md.—									
Outside.....	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Inside.....	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Charleston, S. C.....	50.0	22.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	45.0	19.80	8 - 4 - 44
Richmond, Va.—									
Inside.....	50.0	22.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Machine.....	53.1	23.38	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	53.1	23.38	8 - 4 - 44
Washington, D. C.—									
Outside and machine....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	56.3	24.75	8 - 4 - 44
Inside.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
South Central:									
Dallas, Tex.—									
Outside.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	57.5	25.30	8 - 4 - 44
Inside.....	62.5	27.50	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Machine.....	68.8	30.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	24.00	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.—									
Outside.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	57.5	25.30	8 - 4 - 44
Inside.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Machine.....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Louisville, Ky.—									
Outside.....	66.0	29.04	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	55.0	24.20	8 - 4 - 44
Inside and machine.....	60.0	26.40	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
New Orleans, La.—									
Inside.....	50.0	22.00	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Machine.....	53.3	23.47	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	53.3	23.47	8 - 4 - 44

¹ Rate in cents per hour.

² Scale became 80 cents on June 13, 1918.

³ Scale became 60 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁴ Scale became 63.1 cents on July 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

GRANITE AND STONE TRADES—Concluded.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
GRANITE CUTTERS—concl'd.									
Western:									
Butte, Mont.—									
Outside.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8-4-44	12	81.3	35.75	8-4-44
Inside.....	87.5	38.50	2	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
Denver, Colo.—									
Inside.....	68.8	30.25	1½	2	8-4-44	12	57.0	25.08	8-4-44
Machine.....	71.3	31.35	1½	2	8-4-44	12	59.4	26.13	8-4-44
Los Angeles, Cal.—									
Outside.....	76.3	33.55	1½	2	8-4-44	12	73.8	32.45	8-4-44
Trimming and fitting.....	73.1	32.18	1½	2	8-4-44	12	70.6	31.08	8-4-44
Inside.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8-4-44	12	67.5	29.70	8-4-44
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Outside and machine.....	81.3	35.75	2	2	8-4-44	12	68.8	30.25	8-4-44
Inside.....	75.0	33.00	2	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
San Francisco, Cal.—									
Outside.....	76.3	33.55	2	2	8-4-44	12	73.8	32.45	8-4-44
Inside.....	70.0	30.80	2	2	8-4-44	12	67.5	29.70	8-4-44
Seattle, Wash.—									
Outside.....	81.3	35.75	1½	2	8-4-44	12	68.8	30.25	8-4-44
Inside.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Spokane, Wash.—									
Outside and machine.....	81.3	35.75	1½	2	8-4-44	12	68.8	30.25	8-4-44
Inside.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
STONECUTTERS.									
South Atlantic—									
Atlanta, Ga.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8-4-44	12	50.0	22.00	8-4-44
Baltimore, Md.....	56.3	24.75	(³)	(³)	8-4-44	12	56.3	24.75	8-4-44
Jacksonville, Fla.....	50.0	22.50	1½	2	8-5-45	12	50.0	22.50	8-5-45
Richmond, Va.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8-4-44	12	54.5	23.98	8-4-44
Washington, D. C.....	65.0	28.60	1½	2	8-4-44	12	56.3	24.75	8-4-44
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8-4-44	12	50.0	22.00	8-4-44
Dallas, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
Houston, Tex.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	75.0	33.00	8-4-44
Little Rock, Ark.....	60.0	26.40	1½	2	8-4-44	12	55.0	24.20	8-4-44
Louisville, Ky.....	60.0	26.40	1½	2	8-4-44	12	60.0	26.40	8-4-44
Memphis, Tenn.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	65.0	28.60	8-4-44
Nashville, Tenn.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8-4-44	12	55.0	24.20	8-4-44
Western:									
Denver, Colo.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	62.5	27.50	1½	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	8-4-44
San Francisco, Cal.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8-4-44	12	70.0	30.80	8-4-44
Seattle, Wash.....	87.5	38.50	1½	1½	8-4-44	12	70.0	30.80	8-4-44
Spokane, Wash.....	75.0	33.00	1½	2	8-4-44	12	70.0	30.80	8-4-44

¹ 76.3 cents, November to February, inclusive.

² 73.8 cents, November to February, inclusive.

³ Work prohibited.

⁴ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 80 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917				
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.		
BLACKSMITHS.										
South Atlantic:										
Atlanta, Ga.—										
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>				<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>		
Railroad shops, roads A and B.....	155.0	29.70	1½	1½	9 - 9 - 54		39.0	23.40		10 - 10 - 60
Railroad shops, road E.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road E.....	68.8	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		43.5	20.88		9 - 9 - 54
Charleston, S. C.—										
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	72.5	34.80	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		41.7	22.50		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		44.5	24.03		9 - 9 - 54
Jacksonville, Fla.—										
Railroad shops, road C, light fire, car shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		44.5	24.03		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road C, light fire, locomotive shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27		9 - 9 - 5
Railroad shops, road C, heavy fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		52.5	28.35		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road D.....	68.0	38.08	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 56		52.5	33.08		9 - 9 - 63
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		52.5	28.35		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road F.....	68.0	32.64	2 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(*)	(*)		(*)
Norfolk, Va., district—										
Portsmouth, Va.—										
Railroad shops, welders.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		53.0	26.50		9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops, heavy fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		52.5	26.25		9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops, general fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	25.25		9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops, second fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		47.5	23.75		9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops, hammer-smiths.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(*)	(*)		(*)
Richmond, Va.—										
Manufacturing shops A.....	452.0	24.96	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		52.0	24.96		8 - 8 - 48
Manufacturing shops B.....	62.5	31.25	1½	1½	9 - 5 - 50	12	40.0	20.00		9 - 5 - 50
Manufacturing shops B, hammermen.....	115.0	57.50	1½	1½	9 - 5 - 50	12	70.0	35.00		9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		44.5	24.03		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		49.5	25.73		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road C.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		48.5	25.19		9 - 9 - 54
South Central:										
Birmingham, Ala.—										
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		41.0	22.14		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, roads D and E.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27		9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road F.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		51.0	27.54		9 - 9 - 54
Little Rock, Ark.—										
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		45.0	24.25		* 9 - 8 - 53
Car fire.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		39.5	21.28		* 9 - 8 - 53
Flue welders.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		42.5	22.90		* 9 - 8 - 53
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		47.5	25.59		* 9 - 8 - 53
First fire.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		45.5	24.52		* 9 - 8 - 53
Second fire.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		45.5	24.52		* 9 - 8 - 53
Forging machine operators.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		45.5	24.52		* 9 - 8 - 53
Miscellaneous fires.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		42.5	22.90		* 9 - 8 - 53
Light fire.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		38.5	20.75		* 9 - 8 - 53
Hammermen.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		37.5	20.21		* 9 - 8 - 53
Bulldozer hammermen.....	68.0	32.64	* 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		36.0	19.40		* 9 - 8 - 53

¹ Scale became 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

² Time and one-half after 2 hours.

³ No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

⁴ Scale became 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁵ Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

⁶ Work 53 hours, paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BLACKSMITHS—continued.									
South Central—Concluded.									
Louisville, Ky.—									
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	¹ 1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	38.5	20.79	9 - 9 - 54	
Memphis, Tenn.—									
Railroad shops—									
Car fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	32.5	17.55	9 - 9 - 54	
Engine fire.....	71.5	34.32	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	24.30	9 - 9 - 54	
Frame fire.....	73.0	35.04	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	46.5	25.11	9 - 9 - 54	
New Orleans, La.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	36.1	19.50	9 - 9 - 54	
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	42.0	22.68	9 - 9 - 54	
Railroad shops, road E.....	68.0	32.64	² 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	46.0	24.84	³ 9 - 8 - 53	
Western:									
Butte, Mont.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	475.0	36.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48	
Mines, smelters, and concentrators.....	475.0	36.00	1½	⁵ 1½	8 - 8 - 48	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 56	
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	652.0	24.96	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	27.00	9 - 9 - 54	
Railroad shops, road A—									
Bolt makers.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	42.8	20.54	8 - 8 - 48	
Bradley hammerman.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	39.5	18.96	8 - 8 - 48	
First fire and frame fire.....	71.0	34.08	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	48.9	23.45	8 - 8 - 48	
Second fire and spring fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	46.1	22.13	8 - 8 - 48	
First car fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	41.5	19.92	8 - 8 - 48	
General fires.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	21.60	8 - 8 - 48	
General car fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	37.3	17.88	8 - 8 - 48	
Railroad shops, road B—									
First fire and hammer-smith.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	54.0	25.92	8 - 8 - 48	
Second fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	52.0	24.96	8 - 8 - 48	
Railroad shops, road D—									
First fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	47.5	22.80	8 - 8 - 48	
General fires.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	43.5	20.88	8 - 8 - 48	
Railroad shops, road F.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48	
Portland, Oreg.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	72.2	34.65	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48	
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	62.5	30.00	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48	
Railroad shops—									
Bolt makers.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	44.5	21.36	8 - 8 - 48	
First fire.....	72.0	34.56	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	51.1	24.50	8 - 8 - 48	
Second fire.....	71.0	34.08	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	23.98	8 - 8 - 48	
Third fire.....	69.5	33.36	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	48.5	23.28	8 - 8 - 48	
Spring fire.....	71.0	34.08	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	23.98	8 - 8 - 48	
General fires.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	47.2	22.66	8 - 8 - 48	
Bulldozer and Ajax forging machine.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	47.2	22.66	8 - 8 - 48	
San Francisco, Cal.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	⁹ 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ Five hours pay for 3½ hours' or less work, after 2 hours.

² Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

³ Work 53 hours, paid for 54.

⁴ Scale became 81.3 cents on July 4, 1918.

⁵ For Sundays; double time for holidays.

⁶ Scale became 60 cents on June 12 and 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁷ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁸ Scale became 70 cents on July 1 and 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

⁹ Forty-four hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BLACKSMITHS—concluded.									
Western—Concluded.									
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	Cents.	Dolls.	Regular rate multiplied by—			Cents.	Dolls.		
Shipyards.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	18-8-48	4	54.0	25.92	
Spokane, Wash.—									
Railroad shops—									
First fire.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	48.0	25.92	
General fires.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	41.5	22.41	
BLACKSMITHS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Richmond, Va.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	29.5	15.93	
South Central:									
Little Rock, Ark.—									
Railroad shops, road A—									
Car fire.....	45.0	21.60	1	1½	8-8-48	23.5	12.66	
Miscellaneous fire.....	45.0	21.60	1	1½	8-8-48	24.5	13.20	
Railroad shops, road B..	45.0	21.60	1	1½	8-8-48	26.5	14.28	
Louisville, Ky.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	23.5	12.69	
New Orleans, La.—									
Manufacturing shops ..	37.5	18.00	2	2	8-8-48	25.0	13.50	
Railroad shops, road D..	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	24.0	12.96	
Railroad shops, road E..	45.0	21.60	1	1½	8-8-48	27.0	14.58	
Western:									
Butte, Mont.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8-8-48	56.3	27.00	
Mines, smelters, and concentrators.....	62.5	30.00	1½	1½	8-8-48	56.3	27.00	
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing shops ..	37.0	17.76	1½	1½	8-8-48	32.5	17.55	
Railroad shops, road A..	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	35.5	17.04	
Do.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	31.5	15.12	
Railroad shops, road A—									
First frame, spring, Ajax forging machine and bulldozer fires.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	33.5	16.08	
Railroad shops, road D..	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	30.5	14.64	
First fire.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	31.5	15.12	
Railroad shops, road F..	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	37.0	17.76	
Do.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	38.0	18.24	
Portland, Oreg.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	53.7	25.77	2	2	8-8-48	37.5	18.00	

1 Forty-four hours per week, May 18 to September 17, inclusive.
 2 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.
 3 Double time after midnight.
 4 Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.
 5 Work 53 hours, paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.
 6 5 hours' pay for 3½ hours' or less work after 2 hours.
 7 Work 53 hours, paid for 54.
 8 Scale became 68.8 cents on July 4, 1918.
 9 For Sundays; double time for holidays.
 10 Scale became 45 cents on June 12, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BLACKSMITHS' HELPERS—concluded									
Western—Concluded.									
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	Cents. 41.7	Dolls. 20.11	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48			(?)	
Railroad shops—									
First fire.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	34.5	16.56	8 - 8 - 48	
General fire.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	33.5	16.08	8 - 8 - 48	
San Francisco, Cal.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	53.8	25.80	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	3	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	62.5	30.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	3	40.0	19.20	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards.....	53.4	25.63	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	4	40.0	19.20	8 - 8 - 48
Spokane, Wash.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		26.5	14.31	9 - 9 - 54
BOILER MAKERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops A.....	55.0	27.50	1½	1½	9 - 5 - 50	12	44.0	22.00	9 - 5 - 50
Manufacturing shops B.....	60.0	30.00	1½	1½	9 - 5 - 50	12	44.0	22.00	9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
altimore, Md.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	50.0	22.00	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	48.0	23.76	9 - 4½ - 49½
Outside.....	68.8	30.25	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
harleston, S. C.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	72.5	34.80	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		42.8	23.10	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, roads A and B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road C.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(12)	(12)	(12)
*Jacksonville, Fla.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	50.0	27.00	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		40.0	21.60	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road D.....	68.0	35.08	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 56		53.0	33.39	9 - 9 - 63
Railroad shops, roads C and E.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		53.0	28.62	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road G.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(12)	(12)	(12)
Shipyards.....	70.0	33.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(12)	(12)	(12)
Norfolk, Va., district:									
Norfolk—									
Manufacturing shops, Portsmouth—	72.5	34.80	2	2	8½ - 5½ - 48	12	50.0	27.00	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
Richmond, Va.—									
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.8	27.43	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, roads B, C, and D.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
Washington, D. C.....	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		53.1	25.50	8 - 8 - 48

¹ Scale became 56.3 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

² Not organized on May 15, 1918.

³ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

⁴ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁵ 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

⁶ Double time after midnight.

⁷ Scale became 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁸ Scale became 70 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁹ July 4 and Christmas, 3½ times regular rate; Labor Day, 5 times regular rate.

¹⁰ Scale became 80 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹¹ Double time on outside work.

¹² No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

¹³ Scale became 68 cents and 48 hours on Aug. 15, 1918.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half day.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BOILER MAKERS—contd.									
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	Cents. 67.5	Dolls. 32.40	1½	2	8-8-48	Cents. 47.5	Dolls. 28.50	10-10-60
Steel mills and blast furnaces.....	66.5	39.90	1	1½	10-10-60	55.0	33.00	10-10-60
Railroad shops, roads B and D.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	52.0	28.08	9-9-54
Railroad shops, roads E and F.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	50.5	27.27	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road K.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	48.0	23.04	8-8-48
Railroad shops, road L.....	66.5	39.90	1½	1½	10-10-60	52.5	31.50	10-10-60
Dallas, Tex.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	68.0	36.72	2	2	9-9-54	50.0	27.00	9-9-54
Houston, Tex.—									
Shipyards.....	70.0	30.80	1½	2	8-8-48	3	(³)	(³)	(³)
Little Rock, Ark.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	58.0	34.80	1½	1½	10-10-60	45.0	27.00	10-10-60
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	45.0	24.25	9-8-53
Railroad shops, round-houses, night work.....	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	45.0	26.98	9½-8½-57
Louisville, Ky.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	45.0	22.50	2	2	9-5-50	12	35.0	17.50	9-5-50
Outside.....	68.8	30.25	2	2	8-4-44	12	56.0	24.64	8-4-44
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	42.0	22.68	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road G.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	41.0	22.14	9-9-54
Memphis, Tenn.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	55.0	29.70	2	2	9-9-54	45.0	24.30	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road A.....	71.5	34.32	1½	1½	8-8-48	45.0	24.30	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road B.....	70.3	33.72	1½	1½	8-8-48	50.5	27.27	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road C.....	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	45.0	24.30	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road E.....	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	44.0	23.76	9-9-54
Nashville, Tenn.—									
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	42.0	22.68	9-9-54
New Orleans, La.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	62.5	30.00	2	2	8-8-48	43.8	21.00	8-8-48
On repair work.....	68.8	33.00	2	2	8-8-48	50.0	24.00	8-8-48
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	42.0	22.68	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road C.....	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	46.0	24.84	9-8-53
Western:									
Butte, Mont.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	75.0	36.00	1½	14 1½	8-8-48	68.8	33.00	8-8-48
Building work.....	87.5	38.50	1½	1½	8-4-44	12	87.5	38.50	8-4-44
Mines, smelters, and concentrators.....	75.0	36.00	1½	14 1½	8-8-48	68.8	33.50	8-8-56
Railroad shops.....	68.5	32.88	1½	1½	8-8-48	49.0	26.46	12-9-8-54

¹ Scale became 73 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

² 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

³ No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

⁴ Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

⁵ Work 53 hours; paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

⁶ Time and one-half after 1½ hours; on Saturday after 40 minutes.

⁷ Work 57 hours; paid for 59 hours and 57 minutes.

⁸ Time and one-half after 1 hour.

⁹ Scale became 58 cents on May 25, and 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹⁰ Scale became 68.8 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹¹ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹² Work 53 hours; paid for 54.

¹³ Scale became 81.3 cents on July 4, 1918.

¹⁴ For Sundays; double time for holidays.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	May 15, 1917		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.		Rate of wages—		
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BOILER MAKERS—concluded.									
Western—Concluded.									
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing shops	52.0	24.96	1½	1½	8-8-48	42.5	21.68	8½-8½-51	
Railroad shops, road A	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	43.5	20.88	8-8-48	
Flangers and layers out.	70.5	33.84	1½	1½	8-8-48	45.5	21.84	8-8-48	
Railroad shops, road B	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	50.0	24.00	8-8-48	
Flangers and layers out.	70.5	33.84	1½	1½	8-8-48	52.0	24.96	8-8-48	
Railroad shops, road D	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	43.5	20.88	8-8-48	
Railroad shops, road G	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	(2)	(2)	(3)	
Portland, Oreg.—	72.5	34.80	2	2	8-8-48	53.0	25.44	8-8-48	
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Manufacturing shops	62.5	30.00	1½	1½	8-8-48	56.3	27.00	8-8-48	
Railroad shops, road A	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	45.5	21.84	8-8-48	
Railroad shops, road B	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48	45.5	21.84	8-8-48	
San Francisco, Cal.—									
Building work	75.0	33.00	2	2	8-4-44	12	62.5	27.50	
Manufacturing and jobbing shops	72.5	34.80	2	2	8-8-48	3	53.1	25.50	
Outside	81.6	39.15	2	2	8-8-48	3	59.8	28.69	
Tanks and pipe lines	75.0	36.00	2	2	8-8-48	3	56.3	27.00	
Riveters, chippers, and caulkers	72.5	34.80	2	2	8-8-48	3	53.1	25.50	
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing shops	75.0	36.00	2	2	8-8-48	4	56.3	27.00	
Outside	81.3	39.00	2	2	8-8-48	4	62.5	30.00	
Railroad shops	68.0	32.64	1	1½	8-8-48	4	49.0	26.46	
Shipyards	72.2	34.65	2	2	8-8-48	4	56.3	27.00	
Spokane, Wash.—									
Railroad shops	68.5	32.88	1½	1½	8-8-48	4	49.0	26.46	
BOILER MAKERS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.—									
Manufacturing shops	104.0	17.60	2	11 2	8-4-44	12	27.8	13.75	
Outside	156.3	24.75	2	11 2	8-4-44	12	56.3	27.00	
Charleston, S. C.—									
Manufacturing shops	42.0	20.16	1½	1½	8-8-48	(12)	(1)	(13)	
Railroad shops	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	(12)	(13)	(1)	
Richmond, Va.—									
Railroad shops, road A	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	29.5	15.93	9-9-54	
Railroad shops, roads B and C	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	30.5	16.47	9-9-54	
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Railroad shops	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8-8-48	31.5	17.01	9-9-54	
Dallas, Tex.—									
Manufacturing shops	40.0	21.60	2	2	9-9-54	33.3	18.00	9-9-54	
Houston, Tex.—									
Shipyards	46.0	22.08	1½	2	8-8-48	(12)	(13)	(13)	

¹ Scale became 60 cents on June 12, and 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

² Also a bonus of 10 per cent for making a full month's time.

³ Not organized on May 15, 1917.

⁴ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

⁵ Scale became 70 cents on July 1, and 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

⁶ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁷ 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

⁸ Time and one-half after 1 hour.

⁹ Double time after midnight.

¹⁰ Scale became 46 cents on July 1, 1918.

¹¹ Three and one-half times the regular rate for July 4 and Christmas; 5 times regular rate for Labor Day.

¹² Scale became 67½ cents on July 1, 1918.

¹³ No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
BOILER MAKERS' HELPERS—concluded.									
South Central—Concluded.									
Little Rock, Ark.—	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>			<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>		
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	¹ 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	26.0	14.01	2 9 - 8 - 53	
Railroad shops, round-house, night work.....	45.0	21.60	³ 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	26.0	15.58	9½ - 8½ - 57	
Louisville, Ky.—									
Manufacturing shops....	35.0	17.50	2	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	25.0	12.50	9 - 5 - 50
Outside.....	56.8	24.97	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
Railroad shops, road A....	45.0	21.60	⁵ 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		22.5	12.15	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road G....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		23.5	12.69	9 - 9 - 54
Nashville, Tenn.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	(6)	(6)	(6)	
New Orleans, La.—									
Manufacturing shops....	34.4	16.50	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		25.0	12.00	8 - 8 - 48
Outside.....	40.6	19.50	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		31.3	15.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road B....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		23.0	12.42	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road C....	45.0	21.60	¹ 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		28.0	15.12	9 - 8 - 53
Western:									
Butte, Mont.—									
Building work.....	⁸ 62.5	27.50	1½	1½	8 - 4 - 44	12	62.5	27.50	8 - 4 - 44
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	⁶ 62.5	30.00	1½	⁹ 1½	8 - 8 - 48		59.4	28.50	8 - 8 - 48
Mines, smelters, and concentrators.....	⁸ 62.5	30.00	1½	⁹ 1½	8 - 8 - 48		59.4	33.25	8 - 8 - 56
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		26.0	14.04	7 9 - 8 - 53
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing shops....	¹⁰ 37.0	17.76	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		32.5	16.58	8½ - 8½ - 51
Railroad shops, road A....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		30.5	14.04	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road B....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		37.0	17.76	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road C....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(6)	(6)	(6)
Portland, Oreg.—									
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Railroad shops, road A....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		31.5	15.12	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road B....	45.0	21.60	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		31.5	15.12	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	53.8	25.80	2	2	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Building work.....	53.8	23.65	2	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	37.5	16.50	8 - 4 - 44
Tanks and pipe lines....	75.0	36.00	2	2	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
Drillers, reamers, and tappers.....	57.8	27.12	2	2	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	40.6	19.50	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing shops....	50.0	24.00	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	4	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Outside.....	62.5	30.00	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	4	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	⁵ 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		30.0	16.20	9 - 9 - 54
Shipyards.....	¹⁸ 49.5	23.76	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	4	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Spokane, Wash.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	¹⁴ 1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		26.0	14.04	9 - 9 - 54

¹ Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

² Work 53 hours; paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

³ Time and one-half after 1½ hours; on Saturday after 40 minutes.

⁴ Work 57 hours; paid for 59 hours and 57 minutes.

⁵ Time and one-half after 1 hour.

⁶ Not organized on May 15, 1917.

⁷ Work 53 hours; paid for 54.

⁸ Scale became 68.8 cents on July 4, 1918.

⁹ For Sundays; double time for holidays.

¹⁰ Scale became 45 cents on June 12, 1918.

¹¹ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

¹² 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

¹³ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

¹⁴ Double time after midnight.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
COPPERSMITHS.									
South Atlantic:	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	<i>Regular rate multiplied by—</i>				<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Dolls.</i>	
Baltimore, Md.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
CORE MAKERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.....	68.8	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		46.9	22.50	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.....	58.3	31.50	1½	2	9 - 0 - 54		41.7	22.50	9 - 0 - 54
Washington, D. C.....	68.8	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
South Central:									
Little Rock, Ark.....	41.7	22.50	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		35.0	18.90	9 - 9 - 54
Memphis, Tenn.....	56.0	30.24	1½	2	9 - 0 - 54		40.0	21.60	9 - 0 - 54
New Orleans, La.....	62.5	30.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	81.3	39.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.....	69.4	28.50	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Ore.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	3	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Manufacturing shops.....	62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		41.0	22.14	9 - 9 - 54
San Francisco, Cal.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	3	53.1	25.50	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	82.5	39.60	2	2	10 8 - 8 - 48	4	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards.....	82.5	39.60	2	2	10 8 - 8 - 48	4	50.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
MACHINISTS.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	155.0	29.70	1½	1½	9 - 9 - 54		40.0	21.60	9 - 9 - 54
Automobile repair shops.....	155.0	29.70	1½	1½	9 - 9 - 54		40.0	20.00	9 - 5 - 50
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
Baltimore, Md.—									
Manufacturing shops A.....	62.5	30.00	12 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		47.0	22.56	8 - 8 - 48
Manufacturing shops B.....	68.8	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		65.0	31.20	8 - 8 - 48
Manufacturing shops C.....	62.0	29.76	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Outside.....	68.0	32.64	13 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		47.0	22.56	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	14 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48		40.0	21.60	9 - 9 - 54
Charleston, S. C.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	159.0	31.86	1½	2	18 9 - 9 - 54		42.8	23.10	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, roads A and B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road C.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		(16)	(16)	(16)

¹ Scale became \$1 on Sept. 10, 1918.

² Triple time for July 4, Labor Day, and Christmas.

³ Scale became 60 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁴ Scale became 68.8 cents on July 15, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 87.5 cents on July 4, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁷ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

⁸ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

⁹ Scale became 70 cents on July 1 and 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

¹⁰ 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

¹¹ Scale became 70 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹² Double time after midnight.

¹³ Double time after midnight and on Saturday after 4 p. m.

¹⁴ Time and one-half after 1 hour.

¹⁵ Scale became 73 cents and 48 hours on July 1, 1918.

¹⁶ No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1913, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1913.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
MACHINISTS—continued.									
South Atlantic—Concluded.									
Jacksonville, Fla.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	65.0	35.10			19-9-54	12	40.0	21.60	9-9-54
Railroad shops, roads C, D, and E.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		50.5	27.27	9-9-54
Norfolk, Va., district—									
Norfolk.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	8½-5½-48	12	50.0	24.00	8-8-48
Portsmouth—									
Railroad shops.....	69.5	33.36	1½	1½	8-8-48		50.5	27.27	9-5-50
Richmond, Va.—									
Manufacturing shops A.....	57.0	28.50	1½	1½	9-5-50	12	37.5	20.63	10-5-55
Manufacturing shops B.....	62.0	29.76	1½	1½	8-8-48		51.0	24.48	8-8-48
Manufacturing shops C (tool and die makers).....	66.0	36.30	1½	1½	10-5-55	12	40.0	22.00	10-5-55
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		50.5	27.27	9-9-54
Washington, D. C.—									
Manufacturing shops A.....	57.5	27.60	2	2	78-8-48	3	50.0	24.00	8-8-48
Manufacturing shops B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	2	78-8-48	3	55.0	26.40	8-8-48
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	60.0	32.40	1½	2	9-9-54		47.5	25.65	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		43.5	23.49	9-9-54
Railroad shops, roads D, E, and F.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		50.5	27.27	9-9-54
Railroad shops, roads H, I, and K.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		(10)	(10)	(10)
Houston, Tex.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	140.0	21.60	1½	1½	9-9-54		40.0	21.60	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road A.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		45.0	24.30	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		41.3	22.28	9-9-54
Railroad shops, road C.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		40.0	21.60	9-9-54
Little Rock, Ark.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	60.0	32.40	1½	1½	9-9-54		45.0	24.30	9-9-54
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		45.0	24.25	149-8-53
Railroad shops, round-house, night work.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8-8-48		45.0	26.98	169½-8½-57

1 Scale became 68 cents and 48 hours on Aug. 15, 1918.

2 Scale became 72 cents on Aug. 15, 1918.

3 Scale became 72 cents on July 1, 1918.

4 For Sundays; time and one-half for holidays.

5 For Sundays; single time for holidays.

6 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported. Scale became 68.8 cents on June 1, 1918.

7 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

8 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported. Scale became 73 cents on July 1, 1918.

9 Double time after midnight.

10 No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

11 Scale became 72.5 cents on July 1, 1918.

12 Time and one-half after 1 hour.

13 Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

14 Work 53 hours, paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

15 Time and one-half after 1½ hours; on Saturday after 40 minutes.

16 Work 57 hours, paid for 59 hours and 57 minutes.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
MACHINISTS—continued.									
South Central—Concluded.									
Louisville, Ky.—									
Manufacturing shops....	1 45.0	22.50	2 1½	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	33.3	18.00	9 - 9 - 54
Outside.....	50.0	25.00	2 1½	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	40.0	21.60	9 - 9 - 54
Breweries.....	54.3	26.00	2 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	41.5	19.92	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	3 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	41.0	22.14	9 - 9 - 54
Memphis, Tenn.—									
Manufacturing shops....	4 55.0	26.40	5 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road A..	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	24.30	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road B..	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.5	27.27	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, roads D and F.....	68.0	32.64	6 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	45.0	24.25	7 9 - 8 - 53
Nashville, Tenn.—									
Manufacturing shops....	65.0	31.20	1½	2½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	9 - 9 - 54	42.0	22.68	9 - 9 - 54
New Orleans, La.—									
Manufacturing shops....	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Outside.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road B..	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	42.0	22.68	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, road E..	68.0	32.64	6 1	1½	8 - 8 - 48	46.0	24.84	8 9 - 8 - 53
Western:									
Butte, Mont.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	9 75.0	36.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Outside.....	87.5	38.50	1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	87.5	38.50	8 - 4 - 44
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	47.5	25.65	9 - 9 - 54
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing shops....	10 52.0	24.96	8 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	42.5	21.68	8½ - 8½ - 51
Railroad shops, roads A and B.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road D..	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	43.5	20.88	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road E..	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	44.0	23.76	9 - 9 - 54
Los Angeles, Cal.—									
Breweries.....	62.5	30.00	11 1½	2	8 - 8 - 48	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards, specialists..	55.0	26.40	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	40.6	19.49	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Manufacturing shops....	13 62.5	30.00	14 1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48	52.0	24.96	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.—									
All-round men and tool and die makers.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Specialists.....	55.0	26.40	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Auto-repair shops.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

² Double time after 10 p. m.

³ Time and one-half after one hour.

⁴ Scale became 68 cents on Aug. 15, 1918.

⁵ Double time after midnight.

⁶ Time and one-half after one hour: on Saturday for all overtime.

⁷ Work 53 hours, paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

⁸ Work 53 hours, paid for 54.

⁹ Scale became 81.3 cents on July 3, 1918.

¹⁰ Scale became 60 cents on June 12, and 68 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

¹¹ Double time after 3 hours.

¹² 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

¹³ Scale became 70 cents on July 1, and 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

¹⁴ Double time after 8 hours.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
MACHINISTS—concluded.									
Western—Concluded.									
Seattle, Wash.—									
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	47.5	25.65	9 - 9 - 54
Shipyards and manufac-turing.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	2 8 - 8 - 48	4	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards — manufac-turing ships.....	72.2	34.65	2	2	2 8 - 8 - 48	4	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards, specialists....	55.0	26.40	2	2	2 8 - 8 - 48	4	(3)	(3)	(3)
Spokane, Wash.—									
Manufacturing and job-bing shops.....	75.0	36.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48	4	53.1	25.50	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	53.0	28.62	9 - 9 - 54
MACHINISTS' HELPERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Norfolk, Va., district, Nor-folk.....	46.0	22.08	2	2	8 1/2 - 5 1/2 - 48	12	(2)	(1)	(2)
South Central:									
Little Rock, Ark.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	4	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	23.0	12.39	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops, round-house, night work.....	45.0	21.60	6	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	23.0	13.79	7 9/8 - 8 1/2 - 57
Louisville, Ky.—									
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	30.0	16.20	9 - 9 - 54
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	62.5	30.00	1 1/2	9 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	46.9	22.50	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing shops....	34.0	16.32	1 1/2	2	8 - 8 - 48	4	26.0	13.26	8 1/2 - 8 1/2 - 51
Railroad shops, roads A and B.....	45.0	21.60	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	34.0	16.32	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road D.....	45.0	21.60	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	26.5	12.72	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops, road E.....	45.0	21.60	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	25.5	13.50	9 - 9 - 54
Los Angeles, Cal.—									
Breweries.....	50.0	24.00	11 1/2	2	8 - 8 - 48	4	50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.—									
Manufacturing and job-bing shops.....	53.1	25.50	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	34.4	16.50	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards.....	49.5	23.76	2	2	12 8 - 8 - 48	3	34.4	16.50	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Manufacturing shops....	40.6	19.50	15 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	38.8	18.60	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	45.0	21.60	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	34.0	16.32	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing and job-bing shops.....	50.0	24.00	2	2	2 8 - 8 - 48	4	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards.....	49.5	23.76	2	2	2 8 - 8 - 48	4	37.5	18.00	8 - 8 - 48
Spokane, Wash.....	45.0	21.60	1 1/2	1 1/2	8 - 8 - 48	4	27.0	14.58	9 - 9 - 54

1 Double time after midnight.

2 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

3 No scale in effect on May 15, 1917.

4 Time and one-half after 1 hour; on Saturday for all overtime.

5 Work 53 hours, paid for 53 hours and 53 minutes.

6 Time and one-half after 1 1/2 hours; on Saturday after 40 minutes.

7 Work 57 hours, paid for 59 hours and 57 minutes.

8 Scale became 68.8 cents on July 5, 1918.

9 For Sundays: double time for holidays.

10 Scale became 45 cents on June 12, 1918.

11 Double time after 3 hours.

12 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

13 More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

14 Scale became 48.1 cents on July 1 and 53.1 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

15 Double time after 8 hours.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Continued.

METAL TRADES—Continued.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.						May 15, 1917.		
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For overtime.	For Sun-days and holi-days.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
METAL POLISHERS AND BUFFERS.									
South Atlantic:									
Baltimore, Md.....	¹ 50.0	24.00			8 - 8 - 48		¹ 35.6	17.10	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Los Angeles, Cal.....	65.0	31.20	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	² 8 - 8 - 48	3	38.9	21.00	9 - 9 - 54
Seattle, Wash.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	² 8 - 8 - 48	3	50.0	22.00	8 - 4 - 44
MOLDERS: IRON.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	² 50.0	27.00	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		41.7	22.50	⁴ 9 - 9 - 54
Baltimore, Md.....	¹ 68.8	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		46.9	22.50	8 - 8 - 48
Norfolk, Va., district—									
Portsmouth.....	⁵ 52.0	24.96	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		41.0	19.65	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	¹ 58.3	31.50	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		47.2	25.50	9 - 9 - 54
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		47.2	25.50	9 - 9 - 54
Washington, D. C.....	68.8	33.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Manufacturing shops A.....	⁶ 72.0	43.20	1½	2	10 - 10 - 60		37.5	21.50	10 - 10 - 60
Manufacturing shops B.....	56.3	27.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		(7)	(7)	(7)
Manufacturing shops C.....	63.9	34.50	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		(7)	(7)	(7)
Manufacturing shops D.....	66.7	36.00	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		36.1	19.50	9 - 9 - 54
Manufacturing shops E.....	56.3	27.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		36.1	19.50	9 - 9 - 54
Little Rock, Ark.....	⁸ 44.4	24.00	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		41.7	22.50	9 - 9 - 54
Louisville, Ky.....	¹ 44.4	24.00	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		30.0	18.00	10 - 10 - 60
Memphis, Tenn.....	56.0	30.24	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		40.0	21.60	9 - 9 - 54
Nashville, Tenn.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	50.0	24.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		43.8	21.00	8 - 8 - 48
New Orleans, La.....	⁹ 62.5	30.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Western:									
Butte, Mont.....	¹⁰ 81.3	39.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Denver, Colo.—									
Iron and brass.....	¹¹ 59.4	28.50	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.—									
Iron and brass.....	¹ 72.5	34.80	2	2	² 8 - 8 - 48	3	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah—									
Iron and brass—									
Manufacturing shops.....	¹² 62.5	30.00	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		56.8	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		41.0	22.14	9 - 9 - 54
San Francisco, Cal.....	72.5	34.80	2	2	¹³ 8 - 8 - 48	3	53.1	25.50	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.—									
Iron and brass.....	82.5	39.60	2	2	¹³ 8 - 8 - 48	4	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

² 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

³ Scale became 62.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁴ Hours vary, but total 54 per week.

⁵ Scale became 73 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 78.5 cents on Aug. 1, 1918.

⁷ Not organized on May 15, 1917.

⁸ Scale became 60 cents on June 1, 1918.

⁹ Scale became 68.8 cents on July 15, 1918.

¹⁰ Scale became 87.5 cents on July 4, 1918.

¹¹ Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 1918.

¹² Scale became 70 cents on July 1, and 75 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

¹³ 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

UNION SCALE OF WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN EACH TRADE, IN THE SOUTH ATLANTIC, SOUTH CENTRAL, AND WESTERN STATES, ON MAY 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1917—Concluded.

METAL TRADES—Concluded.

Occupation, geographical division, and city.	May 15, 1918.					May 15, 1917.			
	Rate of wages—				Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.	Number of mos. with Saturday half holiday.	Rate of wages—		Hours: Full days; Saturdays; full week.
	Per hour.	Per week, full time.	For over-time.	For Sundays and holidays.			Per hour.	Per week, full time.	
PATTERN MAKERS: WOOD.									
South Atlantic:									
Atlanta, Ga.....	Cents.	Dolls.	Regular rate multiplied by—				Cents.	Dolls.	
Baltimore, Md.—	160.0	32.40	1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		45.0	24.30	9 - 9 - 54
Shops A.....	63.9	31.94	1½	2	9 - 5 - 50	12	60.0	30.00	9 - 5 - 50
Shops B.....	71.9	34.50	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Richmond, Va.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	58.0	31.90	1½	1½	10 - 5 - 55	12	45.0	24.75	10 - 5 - 55
Railroad shops.....	68.0	32.64	1½	1½	8 - 8 - 48		41.5	22.41	9 - 9 - 54
Washington, D. C.....	61.5	29.52	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		60.0	28.80	8 - 8 - 48
South Central:									
Birmingham, Ala.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	70.0	37.80	7 1½	2	69 - 9 - 54		60.0	32.40	9 - 9 - 54
Jobbing shops.....	70.0	30.80	7 1½	2	8 - 4 - 44	12	60.0	26.40	8 - 4 - 44
Houston, Tex.....	66.7	36.00	2	2	69 - 9 - 54		61.0	32.94	9 - 9 - 54
Memphis, Tenn.....	55.0	29.70	7 1½	2	9 - 9 - 54		47.5	25.65	9 - 9 - 54
Western:									
Denver, Colo.—									
Manufacturing and jobbing shops.....	65.0	31.20	1½	2	8 - 8 - 48		60.0	32.40	9 - 9 - 54
Los Angeles, Cal.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	70.0	33.60	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		50.0	24.00	8 - 8 - 48
Jobbing shops.....	70.0	33.60	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		53.0	25.44	8 - 8 - 48
Portland, Oreg.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	89.4	42.90	2	2	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Jobbing shops.....	89.4	42.90	2	2	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	68.8	33.00	8 - 8 - 48
Salt Lake City, Utah.....	68.8	33.00	2	2	8 - 8 - 48		56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
San Francisco, Cal.....	89.4	42.90	2	2	11 8 - 8 - 48	3	62.5	30.00	8 - 8 - 48
Seattle, Wash.—									
Manufacturing shops.....	96.3	46.20	2	2	13 8 - 8 - 48	4	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Jobbing shops.....	115.6	55.50	2	2	13 8 - 8 - 48	4	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48
Shipyards.....	89.4	42.90	2	2	13 8 - 8 - 48	4	56.3	27.00	8 - 8 - 48

¹ Scale became 65 cents on June 1, 1918.

² Hours vary, but total 54 per week.

³ Scale became 75 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁴ Scale became 65 cents on July 1, 1918.

⁵ Scale became 75 cents on July 15, 1918.

⁶ Scale became 75 cents and 48 hours on July 1, 1918.

⁷ Double time after midnight.

⁸ Scale became 60 cents on June 8, 1918.

⁹ Scale became 75 cents on June 11, 1918.

¹⁰ More than half of the members received more than the scale; amount not reported.

¹¹ 44 hours per week, June to August, inclusive.

¹² Scale became 75 cents on June 1, 76.3 cents on July 1, and 81.3 cents on Sept. 1, 1918.

¹³ 44 hours per week, May 18 to Sept. 17, inclusive.

WAGE SITUATION IN ANTHRACITE AND BITUMINOUS COAL DISTRICTS.

The question of increase in wages of mine workers in both the anthracite and bituminous fields was again agitated in July, 1918, when international officers of the United Mine Workers of America approached Dr. Garfield, the Fuel Administrator, with the suggestion that substantial increases should be granted to apply to all classifi-

cations of mine labor throughout the country. During the present year the bituminous miners have been working under the terms of the Washington agreement of October 6, 1917,¹ and the anthracite miners have been working under the wage scale of May 5, 1916, as modified April 25 and November 17, 1917, which made substantial advances over the rates fixed on May 5, 1916, at which time an agreement was signed to run for a period of four years. In both the October 6 (bituminous) and the November 17 (anthracite) agreements the rates established were to continue in force during the war, but not to exceed two years from April 1, 1918. Concerning the demand for a general increase submitted by the miners' representatives, the Fuel Administrator addressed the following note to the president of the United Mine Workers of America:

While I find it impossible to go to the President with a request that wages be raised contrary to the spirit and understanding of the promise made to him last October, I have not hesitated from the beginning to say that I shall give careful heed to the investigation now under way by the Department of Labor of the cost of living and of the relative wages paid in all fields of industry. The principle of equalization of wages between mine workers and the workers in other fields to which you call attention is sound. It is also reasonable and right that account should be taken by me of the findings of the Labor Department committee.

The wage situation in the anthracite fields, however, seemed to call for adjustment, and on October 1 a conference was held, attended by the Secretary of Labor, the Fuel Administrator, and representatives of the miners and operators, to discuss the matter thoroughly. At this conference Secretary Wilson, of the Department of Labor, urged upon the miners the importance of fulfilling their part of any contracts made and referred to the discrepancies which seemed to exist between the wages being paid to them and the wages being paid to those engaged in munitions manufacture and in bituminous mines—a situation that is inducing “a movement from the mines to these other industries that is injurious to the country in the present situation. That is a condition that the whole country is interested in correcting.” The Secretary continued:

In correcting it, however, we ought to have a care not to create a condition that would reverse the process and create an undue drift from other industries into your industry.

We have built up within a week or so as a result of the desire of the President to secure more stable conditions in industry a board the title of which has not yet been decided upon.² I presume it will be looked upon and considered possibly as a general wage board. It is a board that is to be composed of two representatives from each of the wage adjustment boards that have been created by the Federal Government. The purpose of that board is to review the proposed contracts or proposed wage adjust-

¹ See MONTHLY REVIEW for December, 1917, p. 110.

² The recommendations of the War Labor Policies Board respecting the stabilization of wages in war industries is (Oct. 31) before the President for approval. It is understood that provision for the board here referred to is included in the recommendations.

ments that may be arrived at by any one of the adjustment boards so that when they are finally announced they will not be of such a character that they will disturb the labor conditions under the jurisdiction of the other boards. With that situation existing I want to make this suggestion to Dr. Garfield, that he immediately call a conference of the representatives of both sides in the anthracite mining industry with the representatives of the Fuel Administration; that with the facts already available and those that may be available before the conference takes place or is closed, the conference endeavor to arrive at a wage rate that will be just and fair, compared with other industries, and will not result in workers drifting to your industry from other industries or from your industry into other industries; and that when you have arrived at what seems to you to be a proper wage rate it be submitted to this general wage board for its consideration before being approved by Dr. Garfield so that they will know and you will know that your wage scale is not out of line with the general wage conditions of the country.

WAGE INCREASE FOR ANTHRACITE MINERS.

In line with this suggestion of the Secretary, the Fuel Administrator called a conference for October 3, which was attended by Secretary Wilson, Dr. Garfield, three representatives of the mine operators, and five officials of the miners' organizations, including the presidents of the districts affected, representing approximately 150,000 workers. As a basis for the discussion considerable information relative to wage rates and conditions in other industries was submitted by the War Labor Policies Board, whose program of principles to govern the whole subject of wage stabilization affecting all war industries has been submitted to the President for approval. The agreement which resulted is believed to establish a wage scale that places the anthracite coal industry in an equitable position as respects competing lines of work. In brief, it provides for an average wage increase of \$1 per day to all workers, and is effective as of November 1, 1918. The conference of national wage adjustment agencies, to which the agreement was submitted for review, in approving its terms gave out a statement including the following paragraphs:

We, therefore, recommend the readjustment of the anthracite wage scale, as provided in the plan submitted to us, which establishes, in substance, a scale of wages ranging from 42 cents per hour for laborers outside of the mine to estimated average earnings for contract miners of approximately \$6.60 per day. This scale we have found to be in line with the wages already established by governmental agencies for other industries and are convinced that its adoption will act as a stabilizing influence. Without such a readjustment, the vital needs of the country for coal are jeopardized. With such readjustment, there should be no further drains on the labor force of the anthracite mines and production should be maintained and, probably, increased.

One general aspect of the anthracite situation was made clear in our meetings which we deem very pertinent for the consideration of the Fuel Administration. It appears that there is lacking the basis for scientific knowledge in regard to some of the underlying facts of the industry, upon which issues as to wages and output must finally be decided. Therefore, representatives of the mine workers, as well as of the operators, urged upon us that steps should at once be taken whereby systematic and authoritative information will be had, for the future, in regard to such fundamental questions as comparative earnings, labor turnover, continuity of employment and

sufficiency of output. It was agreed that we must create conditions which will assure greater continuity of employment, greater regularity of work, greater quantity of output, at the same time that we fully observe all those safeguards which should protect the workers in this hazardous industry. In a word, the conditions of the industry must be stabilized. Therefore, the attitude of mind of those in the industry in regard to those conditions must be organized. As a necessary prerequisite we must have that basis of knowledge upon which alone we can act wisely and with justice.

The rates provided in the new agreement, it should be stated, are advances over the basic rates established in the agreement of May 5, 1916, and do not apply to those rates as modified by the agreements of May 17 and November 17, 1917, under which the miners were working at the time this new agreement became effective. The new rates absorb the advances provided in the May 17 and November 17 modifications. The following is the text of the agreement which was made public by the Fuel Administrator on October 31:

(a) Contract hand and machine miners shall be paid an advance of 40 per cent on their gross earnings.

(b) Consideration miners shall be paid an advance of 25 per cent plus \$1 per day for each day worked.

(c) Contract miners' laborers shall be paid an advance of 40 per cent on their earnings. As this increase of 10 per cent over the agreement of November 17, 1917, is less than \$1 per basic shift, the difference between said increase of 10 per cent in the rate and \$1 per basic shift shall be assumed by the operator.

(d) Consideration miners' laborers shall be paid an advance of 25 per cent plus \$1 per day for each day worked.

(e) Day machine miners' laborers who received not less than \$2.72 per day shall be paid an advance of 25 per cent plus \$1 per day for each day worked.

(f) Outside blacksmiths, carpenters, electricians, machinists, firemen, hoisting engineers on shafts and slopes where employment is limited by law or by the award of the anthracite coal strike commission to 8 hours per day, and engineers working on a 12-hour shift basis, shall be paid an advance of \$2 per day for each day worked. All other outside company men who received \$1.54 or more per day shall be paid an advance of \$1.80 per day for each day worked.

(g) Inside engineers and pumpmen working on a 12-hour shift basis shall be paid an advance of \$2.20 per day for each day worked. All other inside company men who received \$1.54 or more per day shall be paid an advance of \$2 per day for each day worked.

(h) All employees paid by the day who received less than \$1.54 per day shall be paid an advance of \$1.20 per day for each day worked.

(i) Monthly men coming under the agreement of May 5, 1916, shall receive an advance per day for each day worked equivalent to that provided for their respective occupations under paragraphs (f) and (g).

(j) The advances of \$2.20 per day, \$2 per day, \$1.80 per day, \$1.20 per day, and 25 per cent plus \$1 per day provided above, are to be applied to a day, whether 8 hours or more, as established under the agreement of May 5, 1916; any proportionate part of a day to be paid a proportionate part of the advances herein provided.

(k) The employees of stripping contractors paid by the day, working on the basis of a 9-hour or 10-hour shift, shall be paid the same increase per hour for each hour worked that is provided for outside company men working on an 8-hour basis.

WAGE INCREASE FOR BITUMINOUS MINERS REFUSED.

The demand of the miners' representatives for a substantial increase in wages of workers in the bituminous fields was considered as a proposition separate from that affecting the anthracite workers. The bituminous miners, as already stated, have been working under the terms of the Washington agreement of October 6, 1917, which provides that the scale then fixed shall be in force "during the continuation of the war, not to exceed two years from April 1, 1918." The Fuel Administrator found that the wages in the bituminous fields do not appear to be unstable in comparison with those in other industries, and accordingly, on October 26, 1918, he denied the request for a general advance. The decision was announced in a telegram to the president of the United Mine Workers of America as follows:

I have read with care your letter of the 21st and have conferred fully with Mr. White and Mr. Pippin. Also have considered carefully whole question of bituminous wages in comparison with those of other industries and am convinced that increase of wages in the bituminous fields is not called for as part of the plan of stabilization, and therefore that no increase ought to be made at the present time.

MINIMUM WAGE.

MINIMUM WAGE DECREES IN CALIFORNIA, OREGON, AND WASHINGTON.

CALIFORNIA.

Fruit and vegetable canning industry.—Reference was made in the July, 1917, MONTHLY REVIEW (pp. 57, 58) to Orders Nos. 3 and 4, effective June 16, 1917, issued by the California Industrial Welfare Commission, fixing minimum wages, hours of labor, and sanitary conditions for women and minors in the fruit and vegetable canning industry. The effect of these determinations was subsequently set forth in a report by the commission in its Bulletin No. 1, issued in May, 1917, which report was summarized in the February, 1918, number of the MONTHLY REVIEW (pp. 138-142). These orders have since been superseded by a new order, dated April 3, 1918, and effective June 3, 1918, in which the minimum wages to be paid to time workers, both experienced and inexperienced, and to piece workers are materially advanced over those fixed in the preceding decree. For example, experienced workers¹ are to receive not less than 20 cents per hour instead of 16 cents as formerly, and inexperienced workers are to receive not less than 16 cents per hour instead of 13 cents. Provided the normal week of 48 hours, as noted hereafter, is worked, this rate for experienced workers is equivalent to \$9.60 per week as compared with \$8.64 for the 54-hour week under the old rates. The rates for piece workers are changed throughout as indicated in the following table, which shows the old and the new rates and the per cent of increase in each instance:

MINIMUM PIECE RATES FIXED BY CALIFORNIA INDUSTRIAL WELFARE COMMISSION FOR FRUIT AND VEGETABLE CANNING INDUSTRY.

Product.	Old rate. ²	New rate. ²	Per cent of increase.
Apricots.....	\$0.250	\$0.350	40.0
Pears.....	.375	.500	33.3
Cling peaches.....	.225	.275	22.2
Free peaches.....	.125	.175	40.0
Plums.....	.130	.125	-----
Asparagus.....	.130	.175	34.6
Tomatoes.....	.030	.045	50.0

¹ An experienced woman or minor is one who has been employed three weeks. When demand is made by a woman employee, the employer is expected to furnish her with a statement setting forth the period of her employment in his establishment.

² Per 100 pounds.

³ Per 12 quarts.

It is provided, however, that every adult woman shall be guaranteed the learner's wage of 16 cents per hour for the first week of employment on each product.

Daily hours are reduced from 9 to 8, and, except in case of emergency, no female employee may work more than 6 days in the week. Minors (that is, those under 18 years of age) may not work more than 48 hours in any one week. Overtime is permitted, but payment for all excess up to 12 hours must be made at the rate of not less than one and one-quarter times the rate of wages paid during regular time, and at not less than twice the regular wages for all excess over 12 hours.

Fruit and vegetable packing industry.—Minimum wages for female employees in the fruit and vegetable packing industry were fixed by the industrial welfare commission in its Order No. 8, dated March 9, 1918, the rates becoming effective 60 days thereafter. This order establishes a minimum wage of \$10 per week for experienced workers¹ and \$8 for inexperienced workers in the following branches of the industry: Citrus fruits, deciduous fruits and grapes, vegetables, dried fruit including layer raisins, seeded raisins, olives, and pickles. "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." The same hours of labor as for workers in the canning industry are fixed, and provision for overtime at the rate of one and one-quarter times the regular rate is made for those employed in the packing of green fruits or vegetables but not for those employed in the packing of dried fruits.

General and professional offices.—An order (No. 9) issued by the commission on May 3, 1918, effective July 2, 1918, fixes minimum wages for female employees in general and professional offices. The essential provisions of this order are as follows:

1. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit an experienced woman or minor to work in any office at a rate of wages less than \$10 per week (\$43.33 per month).

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

- (a) That learners entering employment under 18 years of age be paid an initial weekly wage of not less than \$7 per week (\$30.33 per month) for the first six months of employment; for the second six months not less than \$8 per week (\$34.67 per month); for the third six months not less than \$9 per week (\$39 per month); and thereafter shall be deemed experienced workers and be paid not less than the minimum rate for experienced workers.

- (b) That learners entering employment 18 years of age and over shall be paid an initial weekly wage of not less than \$8 per week (\$34.67 per month) for the first six months of employment; for the second six months not less than \$9 per week (\$39 per month), and thereafter shall be deemed experienced workers and shall be paid not less than the minimum rate for experienced workers.

¹ See note 1 on p. 171.

3. Students attending accredited vocational, commercial, continuation or cooperative schools may be employed on part time work on special permits from the commission and at special rates to be determined by the commission.

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

5. The total number of female learners in any establishment shall not exceed 25 per cent of the total number of women employed.

6. Every person, firm or corporation employing women or minors in any office 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.

7. Every person, firm or corporation employing women or minors in any office shall allow every woman or minor not less than 24 consecutive hours of rest in every seven consecutive days.

Unskilled and unclassified occupations.—The minimum wages to be paid to female workers in these occupations are prescribed in Order No. 10 issued by the industrial welfare commission on May 3, 1918, said order becoming effective on July 2, following. This order contains the same general provisions as those in paragraphs 6 and 7 of Order No. 9, and in addition prescribes 8 hours per day and 48 hours per week as the maximum to be worked, except that this provision does not apply to harvesting, curing, or drying of any variety of perishable fruits or vegetables. The paragraphs of this order pertaining to minimum wages are as follows:

1. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit an experienced¹ adult woman, 18 years of age or over, to be employed in any unskilled or unclassified occupation in California at a rate of wages less than \$9.60 for a 48-hour week, or 20 cents per hour.

2. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit an inexperienced woman to be employed in any unskilled or unclassified occupation in California at a rate of wages less than \$7.50 for a 48-hour week, or 16 cents per hour.

3. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit a minor of either sex, under the age of 18 years, to be employed in any unskilled or unclassified occupation in California at a rate of wages less than \$7.50 for a 48-hour week, or 16 cents per hour.

4. The term "unclassified occupations" shall include all employment not classified under the mercantile, manufacturing, laundry, or canning industries, office or professional occupations, fruit and vegetable packing establishments, telephone or telegraph establishments, hotels or restaurants, domestic labor or the skilled trades.

5. Where payment of wages is made upon a system other than time rate, the worker shall be paid not less than the minimum time rate for the number of hours worked.

OREGON.

There have been 36 orders issued by the Industrial Welfare Commission of the State of Oregon up to September 14, 1918. The first five orders which were reprinted in Bulletin 176 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics were rescinded from and after September 1, 1916.

¹ See note 1, p. 171.

Orders Nos. 6 to 23, inclusive, were reviewed in the MONTHLY REVIEW for May, 1917 (p. 797), and an account was given, in the same number (pp. 673-677), of the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States upholding the constitutionality of the minimum-wage law for this State.

Order No. 24, which was effective from and after June 30, 1917, related to the packing, drying, preserving, or canning of any variety of perishable fruit or vegetables. The order applies equally to women and minors and provides that the minimum wage rates shall be those in the following schedule, the period for inexperienced workers being limited to three weeks:

PIECE RATES.

Occupation.	Variety.	Minimum piece rate.		
Cutting.....	Apricots.....	22½ cents per 100 pounds (or 9 cents per 40 pounds).		
Do.....	Pears.....	37½ cents per 100 pounds (or 15 cents per 40 pounds).		
Do.....	Cling peaches.....	22½ cents per 100 pounds (or 9 cents per 40 pounds).		
Do.....	Free peaches.....	12½ cents per 100 pounds (or 5 cents per 40 pounds).		
Do.....	Tomatoes.....	3 cents per 12 quarts.		
Peeling.....	Apples.....	2½ cents per 40-pound box.		
Quartering.....	do.....	9 cents per 40-pound box.		
Hulling.....	Strawberries.....	1 cent per pound.		
Stemming.....	Cherries.....	½ cent per pound.		
Sorting and stemming.....	do.....	½ cent per pound.		
Do.....	String beans.....	½ cent per pound.		
	Variety.	Size of can.	Minimum piece rate.	
Canning.....	Apricots, pears, and peaches...	No. 2½.....	1½ cents per dozen cans.	
Do.....	do.....	No. 10.....	3½ cents per dozen cans.	
Do.....	Apples.....	do.....	1½ cents per dozen cans.	
Do.....	Strawberries, loganberries, blackberries, raspberries, and cherries.	No. 2.....	1 cent per dozen cans.	
Do.....	do.....	No. 2½.....	1½ cents per dozen cans.	
Do.....	Tomatoes.....	do.....	1 cent per dozen cans.	
Do.....	do.....	No. 10.....	2½ cents per dozen cans.	

A uniform basis for facing prunes in 25-pound boxes, double faced, of 3 cents per box.

TIME RATES.

Class.	Minimum time rate.
Experienced workers.....	16 cents per hour.
Inexperienced workers.....	13 cents per hour.

The remaining orders, except No. 36, which were issued April 12, 1918, became effective on June 12, 1918.

Orders Nos. 25 and 26 relate to mercantile occupations. The first of these determinations relates to the city of Portland and the second to the State at large. The order for Portland provides that:

1. No person shall employ any woman in the city of Portland in any mercantile establishment for more than 8 hours and 20 minutes in any one day nor for more than 50 hours in any one week.

2. No person shall employ any experienced woman in the city of Portland in any mercantile establishment at a weekly wage rate of less than \$11.10.

3. The length of apprenticeship term for women workers in mercantile establishments shall be eight months and such apprenticeship term shall be divided into three periods as follows: First period, one month; second period, three months; third period, four months. No person shall employ any woman in any mercantile establishment for the first period at a weekly wage of less than \$7.20, nor for the second period at a weekly wage of less than \$8.40, nor for the third period at a weekly wage of less than \$9.60.

4. No person shall employ any woman in the city of Portland in a mercantile establishment for more than six days in one calendar week.

5. No person shall employ any woman in any mercantile establishment for more than six hours of continuous labor without a rest period of at least 45 minutes.

6. No person shall employ any woman in the city of Portland in a mercantile establishment, other than cigar stands in hotels and confectionery stores, later than 6 o'clock p. m.

The order for the State is identical with this except that women may work nine hours a day or 54 hours a week and may be employed up to 8.30 o'clock in the evening.

Order No. 27 deals with manufacturing occupations and follows the rulings in No. 26 except on the following two points: (1) The minimum weekly wage for experienced women is placed at \$11.61. (2) The average weekly rate for women employed at piece rates shall not be less than the time rate, and at least 75 per cent of such employees shall be paid at not less than the minimum wage rate and not more than 25 per cent shall be paid at a weekly wage rate of less than \$11.61, provided that any woman or girl who has been employed at prevailing piece rates for three weeks shall then be paid not less than \$7.20 per week even though the amount earned shall be less than that sum. In determining the average wage a period of not less than 60 days shall be taken as a basis.

Order No. 28 relates to women employed in personal service establishments and follows the rulings in No. 26 (mercantile establishments) in regard to the hours per day and hours and days per week; the minimum wage for experienced workers, and the minimum wage for apprenticeship, though this apprenticeship term is one year divided into three equal periods of 4 months each.

Order No. 29 for women employed in laundry establishments follows the rules laid down for employees in personal service occupations (Order No. 28), except that rules governing piecework are the same as for manufacturing establishments (No. 27).

The rules for those employed in telephone and telegraph occupations are laid down in Order No. 30 for the city of Portland and No. 31 for the State at large. Order No. 30 fixes the same daily and weekly hours, minimum weekly rate and length of time employed without a rest period as those for manufacturing establishments (No. 27), but the apprenticeship period for telephone establishments is divided into four periods of three months each, the minimum

wage to be \$7.20, \$7.92, \$8.64, and \$9.36, respectively, and for telegraph establishments this term is divided into three periods of four months each for which the minimum wage paid is \$7.20, \$8.40, and \$9.60. For seven consecutive days of labor in any telegraph establishment, there must be one day in which the hours of employment do not exceed six. The commission may upon such terms as it deems proper release any applicant employing less than 10 telephone operators from compliance with the rule limiting the number of days work per week to six. For the State at large the rules are the same as the foregoing except that no woman may be employed for 14 consecutive days without one day of rest and one day in which the hours of employment do not exceed six.

Orders Nos. 32 and 33 cover office occupations in Portland and the State. These two orders follow Order No. 28, except that in Portland the maximum weekly hours of employment are 51 and the minimum monthly salary for experienced women is fixed at \$48.

Public housekeeping occupations Order No. 34 follows Order No. 28, except that women are not limited to six days work per week, and, if any woman or minor girl receives either board and lodging or both as part payment of wages, not more than \$1.60 per week for lodging and not more than \$3.20 per week for board shall be deducted from her wages.

Order No. 35 relating to employment of minors is as follows:

1. No person shall employ any minor girl in any occupation in the State of Oregon more than 9 hours in one day and in no case more than 50 hours in one week.
2. No person shall employ any minor boy in the State of Oregon for more than 16 hours in any one day.
3. No person shall employ any minor boy or minor girl under 16 years of age, in the State of Oregon, more than 8 hours in any one day.
4. No person shall employ any minor girl or minor boy in the State of Oregon more than 6 days in one calendar week.
5. No person shall employ any minor girl for more than 6 hours of continuous labor between the hours of 7 a. m. and 6 p. m., without a rest period of at least 45 minutes.
6. No person shall employ any minor girl in any occupation in the State of Oregon after the hour of 6 p. m. on any day.
7. No person shall employ any minor between 14 and 15 years of age at less than \$5 per week.
8. No person shall employ any minor between 15 and 16 years of age at less than \$6 per week.
9. No person shall employ any minor between 16 and 18 years of age for less than \$7.20 per week for the first 6 months of employment and shall increase the weekly wage of such minor by 50 cents per week for every six months of employment until said minor becomes 18 years of age, when the minimum wage for adult workers shall be paid.
10. No person shall employ any minor boy or minor girl between the ages of 16 and 18 years in any occupation in the State of Oregon at a weekly wage of less than \$7.20, except as otherwise arranged by the commission in the case of apprentices.

11. For the purpose of determining a rising scale for minor apprentices, the working time of female minors between the ages of 16 and 18 years shall be divided into periods of 3 months each. Each period, or major fraction thereof, shall be considered the equivalent of 1 month in the corresponding period of the apprenticeship of the adult worker and shall be paid at a corresponding increase of wages per week.

An emergency overtime permit was issued on May 26, 1918, for fruit and vegetable canning and packing establishments allowing them 6 weeks of overtime in each year beyond the 54 hours per week prescribed in Orders Nos. 2 and 5. This permit limits the overtime to 6 hours for any week and prohibits the employment of women for more than 10 hours in any one day. This emergency overtime shall be paid for at the rate of not less than 25 cents an hour and such earnings shall in no case be included in the minimum weekly wage. Every owner or manager of a canning or packing establishment where such overtime is worked must submit a sworn statement to the industrial welfare commission of the overtime worked and the wages paid to each woman who has worked overtime.

WASHINGTON.

Under orders issued by the Industrial Welfare Commission for the State of Washington, on the dates indicated, weekly minimum wage rates for females over the age of 18 years were established as follows:

April 28, 1914, employees in mercantile establishments, \$10.

June 2, 1914, factory workers, \$8.90.

June 25, 1914, employees in laundries and dye works, \$9.

July 9, 1914, telephone and telegraph employees, \$9.

December 21, 1914, stenographers, typists, etc., and clerical workers, \$10.

June 18, 1915, hotel, restaurant, and lunch-room employees, \$9.

On September 14, 1917, the commission issued an order fixing the minimum wages for minors in the occupations above enumerated, this order being printed in the MONTHLY REVIEW for December, 1917 (pp. 112, 113).

A minimum-wage provision adopted by the Washington Industrial Welfare Commission on September 10, 1918, prescribing that no female over the age of 18 years "in any occupation, trade, or industry throughout the State during the period of the war" shall be employed "at a weekly wage rate of less than \$13.20." A uniform minimum wage rate based on the cost of living is thus fixed and, as suggested, is to stand for the duration of the war. The order is based upon recommendation of a war emergency conference held under the auspices of the commission on August 28 and 29, 1918, and is to become effective on November 15, 1918, "unless legal action be taken by employing interests to prevent the enforcement of the order." Provision is made for the reconvening of the conference six months after the cessa-

tion of hostilities, when it is probable that the matter of a minimum wage will receive further attention. Other important recommendations for the improvement of working conditions intended to safeguard the health and morals of female workers were adopted by the commission and, because of the advanced position taken by the commission in this connection, these recommendations are deemed worthy of publication in full. It should be stated that action on recommendation No. 3 was deferred "until it can be ascertained what effect its adoption will have upon war activities."

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE WAR EMERGENCY CONFERENCE RELATING TO WOMEN WORKERS.

1. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to standards of labor demanded for the health and morals of women workers in the different occupations, trades, and industries throughout the State under war conditions:

That no person, firm, association or corporation shall employ any female over the age of 18 years in any occupation, trade, or industry throughout the State during the period of the war at a weekly wage rate of less than \$13.20, such wage being the estimate of said conference of the minimum wage adequate to supply the necessary cost of living and to maintain them in health and comfort.

And it is recommended that this war emergency conference be reconvened six months after the cessation of hostilities.

2. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to standards of labor demanded by the health and morals of women workers in the different occupations, trades, and industries throughout the State under war conditions:

(1) That all occupations be prohibited to women which are injurious to their health, their morals, or womanhood, or which are unavoidably disfiguring.

(2) That all occupations be prohibited to women for which men in general are better fitted by temperament, training, or custom, and for which men are available.

(3) That among the occupations in Washington which should be prohibited to women are certain phases of railroading, as section work, certain work in shipbuilding plants, certain work in lumber and in shingle mills, certain work in hotels, as "bell hops," certain work in metal-working plants, as with molten metals, all work underground, all work in shooting galleries, penny arcades, and the like.

(4) That exclusion be made having in mind the designations and prohibitions of the United States War Labor Policies Board, the State Council and the county councils of defense, and such other bodies under the General Government as shall find occasion to relate women's work to patriotic efficiency.

(5) That all occupations be prohibited to women for two months before confinement and for six weeks thereafter.

3. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to standards of labor demanded for the health and morals of women workers in the different occupations, trades, and industries throughout the State under war conditions:

That no person, firm, association, or corporation shall employ any female over the age of 18 years between the hours of 7 p. m. and 6 a. m. in the following occupations or classifications:

Sawmills, factories, garages, metal-working plants, machine shops, laundries, cleaning and pressing establishments, messenger service, porters, callers for railroads,

and such other occupations as in the judgment of the industrial welfare commission may be hazardous to the health, welfare, or morals of the employee, except that with street railways and elevators the hours permitted shall be, respectively, from 8 a. m. to 5 p. m. in cities of the first class and from 6 a. m. to 5 p. m. in cities of the second class; and 6 a. m. to 11 p. m.

4. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to the posting in advance of schedule of hours to be observed in establishments offering less than full-time employment:

That every person, firm, or corporation in this State offering less than full-time employment to female employees in any occupation, trade, or industry shall post in a conspicuous place in the establishment a proper schedule of hours to be observed for such period of time in advance as the industrial welfare commission shall in its discretion determine not later than noon of the preceding day.

5. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to standards of labor demanded for the health and morals of women workers in the different occupations, trades, and industries throughout the State under war conditions:

That no person, firm, association, or corporation shall employ any female over 18 years on a shift over six hours without a rest period of 15 minutes.

6. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to equal pay for women for equal work with men in the different occupations, trades, and industries of this State:

That women doing equal work with men in any occupation, trade, or industry in this State shall receive the same compensation therefor as men doing work of the same character and of like quantity and quality, the determination of what constitutes equal work to rest with the industrial welfare commission.

7. *Be it resolved*, That this war emergency conference does hereby make the following recommendation to the industrial welfare commission in reference to standards of labor demanded for the health and morals of women workers in the different occupations, trades, and industries throughout the State under war conditions:

That no person, firm, association, or corporation shall employ a female over 18 years without compliance with the standards regarding meal hours, seats, and sanitation already established by law, and without adequate separate and apart toilets, including individual cloth or paper towels.

Provided, however, That where there are less than four women employed by any person the industrial welfare commission may, upon application and showing, release such applicant from compliance with the foregoing regulations or any part of the same.

TRADE BOARDS ACT, 1918, OF GREAT BRITAIN.

Under the provisions of the Trade Boards Act of 1909 minimum wages have been fixed in a limited number of industries during the past eight years. On the 8th of August last an amending act¹ was passed, greatly extending the scope of the original act and providing for much speedier action as well as greater flexibility. The act is one of the results of the investigations of the subcommittee of the Reconstruction Committee of the United Kingdom, whose special subject for study was the relations between employers and employees.

¹ 8 and 9, Geo. 5. Trade Boards Act, 1918.

The particular occasion for the act is the prospective readjustment of labor at the close of the war, which seems likely to accentuate the problem of inadequate wages for unskilled and unorganized workers, particularly women. Female workers have been drawn to strictly war work, as in munition plants, from such feminine occupations as dressmaking, and after the war will necessarily leave the establishments in which they have been employed, and in seeking reemployment in the old lines will meet competition likely to depress the wage rate. Women are also engaged in other industries, which, while continuing after the war, will receive many applications for employment for returning soldiers. It was especially to meet these conditions that the amendment has been prepared. The *British Labor Gazette* in speaking on this point says: "The eight years' experience of the satisfactory results achieved by the trade boards, whose activities have proved of benefit not merely to the workers but to all sections of the trades which have worked under them, pointed to an extension of the Trade Boards Act, 1909, as the best means of meeting the situation."¹

The original law designates four trades to which the act shall apply, but contains an authorization for its extension to other trades by provisional orders of the Board of Trade. Many inclusions were made under this authorization, but the proceeding was cumbersome, and rates became effective only after nine months from their proposal by a trade board. A trade could be passed upon only when it appeared that wages in it were at the time exceptionally low as compared with those in other employments, and as the wages of women were very low in many cases during normal times, there was difficulty in urging that wages were exceptionally low in any given trade. The new act permits the Minister of Labor to apply its provisions to any trade in which it appears to him that no adequate machinery exists for the effective regulation of wages, so that, having regard to the rates of wages prevailing in the trade, or any part of it, it seems expedient that the law should be made to apply. It is thus possible to forestall an apprehended fall in wages in view of changes or anticipated changes in conditions of employment. It is also provided that any rate fixed may be made to apply to the trade as a whole or to any special process in the trade, or to any special area, or to any class of workers in the trade, or to any class of workers in any special process or in any special area. Rates may also be fixed to come into operation successively on the expiration of specified periods, and variations in rates may be declared operative only during specified periods. This great flexibility of provision makes it possible to meet every con-

¹ Great Britain. *Labour Gazette* (London), August, 1918. p. 308.

tingency, piece rates and time rates being equally subject to regulation.

Other provisions of the act require that a worker present on his employer's premises for the purpose of receiving work shall be regarded as employed and entitled to wages for the time unless the employer proves that the worker was so present without the employer's consent, express or implied, or that he was present for some purpose unconnected with the work. An employer may not receive from an apprentice or learner engaged at a fixed minimum rate payment by way of premium either directly or indirectly, though this provision does not forbid payments made in pursuance of an instrument of apprenticeship not later than four weeks after commencement of the employment.

This act came into effect the 1st of October, thus becoming one of the first provisions of permanent law looking toward readjustment after the termination of the war. The enlargement of the scope of the law, based on its satisfactory operation during eight years of experience, is of special interest in view of the stage of progress in this field of wage regulation in the United States.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

FEDERAL POLICY IN THE EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN.

WORK OF THE NATIONAL WAR LABOR BOARD.

The National War Labor Board, appointed by President Wilson on April 8 of this year to be the supreme court of industry with reference to labor disputes, must necessarily in the course of its work have regard to the problems of women in industry. It does not, however, deal with women merely in their undifferentiated capacity as workers; it has appreciated the fact that, because of their sex, women in industry have problems in some measure peculiar to them. It has, accordingly, made special provisions for their problems in its principles and policies, and has established a women's department which has the welfare of woman workers as its special concern.

The exact status and powers of the Board are sometimes misunderstood. It has no legal standing in the sense of having been created by legislative enactment; it has no powers in the sense of possessing weapons and penalties for the enforcement of its decrees. It represents rather the voluntary agreement of labor and capital that there should be no interruption of production during the war and that all disputes should be adjusted without cessation of work. Its authority is that of public opinion given effect through presidential proclamation. Its prestige rests upon the evident justice of its decisions. So obvious is the national need for the Board, and so reasonable have been its decisions that, save in three cases only, its awards or recommendations have been willingly accepted by both sides in the interest of the national welfare. In the three cases mentioned, where the Board's conciliatory powers were not sufficient, the President of the United States has by summary executive action enforced obedience to its decisions.

Again, the authority of the Board is not national in scope, but is confined to those industries in respect to which its good offices are requested. Yet this in itself is considerable, for the Board has on its docket, disposed of or to be disposed of, cases involving more than half a million workers, men and women. Already, cases involving 200,000 workers have been disposed of. Even though the authority of the Board is not national, its awards have a standardizing effect throughout the country; adjustments made in respect to one plant tend to spread to all other plants in the same industry, since industrial stability demands a measure of uniformity in working conditions.

Many employers voluntarily grant to their workers the wages and conditions awarded by the Board for similar industries and in general employers and employees find the decisions of the Board a satisfactory basis on which to adjust their differences.

It is just, then, to regard the Board as having a national scope and an effective authority. The Board is not merely adjusting differences as they arise, but is building up what is in effect a body of industrial common law for the period of the war. For this reason its policies and awards in respect to women have a nation-wide significance.

BASIC POLICIES OF THE BOARD.

The Board, when it was still in the formative stage as the War Labor Conference Board, recognized the importance of the problems arising out of the inevitable influx of women into industry due to war conditions and especially to the draft. It saw that it would need to meet the problems boldly and deal with them thoroughly. Accordingly, in its original statement of principles it embodied the following sweeping provision:

Women in Industry.—If it shall become necessary to employ women on work ordinarily performed by men, they must be allowed equal pay for equal work and must not be allotted tasks disproportionate to their strength.

There are three reasons for the first part of this provision, familiar to all who have studied the subject: First, abstract justice requires that payment be made according to service; second, the evidence shows that the woman who is being drawn into industry because of the war is in a large proportion of cases actually taking the place of some man in the support or partial support of the family, and a decrease in her wages would mean a decrease in the family's standard of living; third, it is not economically sound or socially desirable that women should be brought into industry at a faster rate or in greater numbers than the needs of production actually demand, and the only effective check is to make it no more profitable to employ women than men. The reason for providing against tasks of an excessively exhausting nature is obvious.

The Board appreciates fully that this provision calls for special planning, both on the part of the Board and on the part of the employer. It is by no means true that the product of women's work is always equal in quantity or quality to that of men's work. In some crafts it is not so large or so good; in others it is larger and better. Where piece rates prevail, men and women can work side by side on the same tasks without injustice either to employer or to worker. But where hour or day rates prevail in crafts in which women's product is inferior to men's, it is obviously unfair that the same rates should apply to both. There may, consequently, become

tendency to specialize woman workers in the processes for which they are best fitted and to adjust the rate accordingly. The provision against the allotment of exhausting tasks will obviously close certain processes or trades to woman workers. In these trades the demand for more workers must be filled by men from other trades or departments of the industry, women taking the place of these latter workmen. Here again, there is a tendency to specialization according to sex, and a certain readjustment of industry becomes necessary.

In short, the application of the equal-pay principle is not so simple as it looks, and the Board, fully realizing this fact, made provision for the administration of its principles according to their spirit rather than their letter.

In all matters in which there is no sex differentiation in fact, absolute equality obtains in all the Board's principles and awards. For instance, the provisions in the Board's principles calling for the unrestricted right of organization and collective bargaining apply equally to women and men. What is desirable for one sex in industry is equally desirable for the other. If it is desirable that men should be free from molestation in joining the union of their trade, it is equally desirable that women should have the same freedom. If the Government has found it desirable to deal with the men through their union instead of individually, it has found it equally desirable to deal with women through unions. Whenever collective bargaining is instituted by an award of the Board, women have a vote in the selection of representatives as a matter of course, and the Board even urges, through its field representatives, that where any considerable number of women are involved, one or more of such representatives be women. Equal suffrage in industry is axiomatic with the National War Labor Board.

APPLICATION OF BASIC PRINCIPLES.

In the many awards made by the Board affecting women, it has not generally been necessary to make any special provision for them beyond the application of the Board's principles to the specific case. Women have shared with men in the increase in wages which the Board has granted. Very frequently they have received a greater proportionate increase than the men, because the prevailing rate of wages for women has been lower. In certain cases it was necessary to specify that there must be no discrimination against women, but usually it has been sufficient to lay down in general terms the equal-pay principle.

In several of the awards special minimum-wage provisions have been inserted in respect to women, setting their minimum lower than that of the men. This was done partly to avoid too great a disturbance

within the industry, and partly because the women referred to were doing a lower grade of work than any of the men. The minimums set, however, were generous, and well in advance of the wages of men in many an industry which has not yet come under the jurisdiction of the Board.

In general, the minimum set by the Board for men is 40 or 42 cents an hour, and that for women (where the distinction is made) 30 or 32 cents. In one case a weekly and not an hourly minimum was set. In the Bridgeport machine shops case 32 cents an hour was fixed as the minimum for women 18 years of age or over. In the case of the General Electric Co.'s plant at Pittsfield, Mass., male employees of 21 years and over were granted 42 cents an hour as a minimum, and women 21 years and over, with 6 months' experience in the plant, 30 cents. The women shared equally with the men in the flat increase of 20 per cent in wages. In the Schenectady, N. Y., plant of the same firm the women received a flat 20 per cent increase as against the 10 per cent and 15 per cent increases awarded to the men. The minimum wage for women in the plant was fixed at \$15 per week. A special provision was made for the scrubwomen, who work less than eight hours a day but at unusual and inconvenient times. They were granted a minimum of \$10.50 per week.

ADMINISTRATIVE FUNCTION OF THE BOARD.

It has been shown how the Board, within the limits set forth, exercises both legislative and judicial functions—establishing general principles and adjudicating special disputes. But the Board has a third function, the executive or administrative, and it is in the exercise of this last function that the greater part of its work on behalf of women is done.

When an award in a given dispute has been handed down an "examiner" is detailed to go to the factory and "apply" it. He remains as long as necessary, sometimes for months. His first and obvious function is to see that both sides live up to their agreement. But this is usually only a formal duty; both sides, in the vast majority of cases, are faithfully endeavoring to cooperate and live up to the spirit and the letter of their pledge. What occupies the administrator's time is the interpretation of the award *in detail* in respect to this particular machine and that particular process. And it is in this work that the substantial benefit to the woman worker is found.

It is easy to say "equal pay for equal work," but what if the work is not exactly equal? Or what if the work is equal, but additional help (such as the fetching of material) must be given to women which is not given to men? What if a process originally belonging to men is now wholly performed by women, so that no standard of comparison

is possible with present wages of men? Or what if tasks not "beyond the strength" of woman workers still impose working conditions peculiarly unhygienic for them?

It is evident that in each case some ruling must be made in conformity with broad principles of equity and with the intention of the Board, rather than according to the strict letter of the award. Because the work of the women differs in some trifling way from that of the men the employer is not justified in designating a wholly different and unfavorable wage rate for that work. The difference, if it is demanded, should be only such as to cover the difference in service or the additional cost to which the employer is put because the workers are women. And how is that to be decided? By agreement between the employer and the workers' committee, if possible; but if not, then by the Board's examiner, clothed with full power.

Again, what is "beyond the strength" of a woman is a question not to be decided except by a competent person who is on the spot, able to observe each detail of the task and take into account each factor of the strain, physical, mental, and nervous, which goes to make the fatigue. For expert judgment in these matters the Board employs a physician.

It should be clear that the fate of eight out of ten of the woman workers who come under the Board's awards is decided not by the Board in its judicial capacity, but by the Board's examiner in his administrative capacity. For this reason a considerable proportion of the Board's examiners are women, all of them specially equipped with technical knowledge. Wherever there is an award to be applied which involves any great number of women, one or more of these examiners is detailed on behalf of the woman workers. The examiner remains long enough to observe and make a ruling on each essential detail in each particular case.

If the number of the women is large, woman investigators having trade-union experience make a diplomatic effort to urge the inclusion of one or more women on such shop committees or representative boards as are to be elected. In charge of this division of the Board's staff is Miss Elizabeth Christman.

While this section of the staff works frankly on behalf of the women in the preparation of the case before the award is made, urging their claims and seeking their best interests (there is also a section of the staff detailed to the assistance of the employers), another section is attached to the Board in its judicial capacity. This section of "examiners," headed by Miss Marie Obenauer, formerly of the industrial section of the Bureau of Aircraft Production, is assigned to sit or assist at formal hearings, to weigh the respective claims of the disputing parties as they affect woman workers, and to gather such

special information concerning the trade and living conditions in the community as is needed for the equitable adjudication of the case. For example, Miss Obenauer and her staff make special investigations of the tasks assigned to women, not only with a view to preventing the employment of women in "tasks beyond their strength," but more particularly for the purpose of recommending such minor alterations or improvements in the machinery or the methods of operation as will make the job suitable for them. The woman examiners often make a detailed survey of the budget requirements of the woman workers of the community which serves as a basis for determining the minimum wage awarded to women there.

The Board is desirous that woman workers throughout the country should know their rights under its principles and precedents; for the purpose of the Board is not solely to adjust differences in the industrial field, but quite as much to better conditions which are unfavorable to the best interests of the industry and the workers therein. It does not seek (as some have supposed) to preserve the status quo in industry, where that status is an unjust one. Accordingly, it does not condemn the institution of complaints by woman workers who believe their complaints are justified and are willing to submit to the Board's peaceful and orderly process of adjustment. Rather, such complainants are serving the country in calling attention to a possible inefficiency in one of the country's war industries.

WORK OF THE BOARD IN STABILIZING THE NATION'S INDUSTRY.

In its various rulings, which consistently apply a clearly defined policy, it is believed that the Board is doing much to stabilize the Nation's industrial condition. In so far as its awards have a national influence, they serve to standardize wages and conditions of employment, in a natural and unbureaucratic way; to keep the worker contentedly and efficiently at his task, and hence decrease the "labor turnover" and the undue flow of workers from job to job; and to control to a considerable extent the substitution of women for men and to regulate the conditions of their employment.

The general aims of the Board, in such control over the general conditions of women's labor as it may exercise, are to protect the women already in industry, in the interests of their own welfare and the future of the race; to render them as efficient as may be in their particular jobs by assuring them a wage which will provide them with wholesome nourishment and healthful living conditions, and free their minds from undue worry; to guide them into the jobs in which they are likely to prove most efficient, and to cause the minimum of readjustment and confusion in industry; to control and, if necessary, to check the rate of the induction of women into

industry, through the rigid application of the equal-wage principle; to prevent the exploitation of women by unscrupulous employers for the purpose of lowering the wage scale or breaking up lawful associations of wage earners; and finally, to prevent more women being brought into industry than the needs of the Nation demand, in order that the American home may be maintained, as far as possible, as it is, during the war.

In all this, the Board works in closest cooperation with other Government agencies, such as the War Labor Policies Board and the Women's Employment Division of the Department of Labor. The aims of all are identical, and no one agency is adequate to control the entire situation. It is the function of the National War Labor Board to turn the liability of each industrial dispute into an asset for the Nation's industrial program.

WORK OF THE WOMEN'S BRANCH, INDUSTRIAL SERVICE SECTION, OF ARMY
ORDNANCE.

When the needs of war demanded an immensely increased output of all kinds of munitions, the production division of the Bureau of Ordnance found itself face to face with the question of women's employment, and to meet the problems which arose, the women's branch of the industrial service section was formed in January, 1918. Miss Mary Van Kleek was at first put in charge, but left to take the position of director of the Women in Industry Service of the Department of Labor, and was succeeded by the present director, Mrs. Clara M. Tead.

The division approaches the question of women in industry from the standpoint of production. Output is the great need. The division accepts unreservedly the principle that the best output can be obtained only under the best conditions of work, and therefore believes that as a matter of war necessity every woman engaged on work under a Government contract should and must have good working conditions, reasonable hours, fair wages, and suitable accommodations. Naturally, seen from this point of view, the work of the women's branch embraces a wide field, which falls into two divisions, remedial and preventive.

The remedial side may be called into play either by a distinct shortage in production or by a failure to reach an expected output. If a firm working under a Government contract is not making a satisfactory showing, the cause must be sought, and if women are engaged on the work, the women's branch is called upon to advise as to how with better employment methods and under improved working conditions, the woman labor force can more effectively contribute toward increasing production. Agents are dispatched to the plant, and the whole situation examined carefully. If the

women are doing work hitherto performed only by men, the question of whether or not this is suitable work for women at once arises, and experts may be called upon for advice. Perhaps there is enough male labor available, and no real need exists for employing women upon such work. Perhaps the work can be altered in some way so as to bring it well within the power of women. New training methods may be needed. Or the work may be entirely suitable and well within their ability, but working conditions may be inadequate. Hours may be too long, or ventilation or light deficient, or the accommodations for women so badly planned as to subject them to unnecessary strain or hazard. In the interests of production such matters must be studied, and any defects which are hampering output must be remedied. It may be necessary for the agents of the division to spend weeks in the plant, studying the situation and devising the best way of meeting the difficulties involved in obtaining the maximum output in spite of the withdrawal of men of draft age.

In order to anticipate this process, employers may call upon the division for advice before introducing women, thus bringing into play the preventive side of the division's work. One such case was that of a firm which wished to employ women in acetylene welding, a process in which few women have hitherto been engaged in this country. Information as to the possibilities of women in this line was hard to obtain, so an agent was dispatched to learn the work herself and pronounce at first hand whether or not women would be likely to make a success at it. She learned the process thoroughly, found what were the special difficulties from the point of view of a woman unfamiliar with such work, studied how the training could be modified so as to meet these difficulties, and in general how women could best be adapted to it and it to women. As a result, not only are women now working successfully as acetylene welders in that plant, but this agent's experience has been utilized by a number of other employers who have wished to introduce women. The division is gradually establishing in this manner a fund of industrial knowledge which will be available to all manufacturers and which will greatly facilitate the successful introduction of women in new processes.

In some cases this preventive work is done on a much larger scale. When, for instance, the employment of women in the Watertown Arsenal was under consideration, the first step was to bring in a representative of the women's branch who spent some weeks in studying the plant and the work. Each machine was examined and each process considered with a view to the propriety of employing women upon it. If it was adjudged suitable the question of necessary training was taken up and plans developed for giving what instruction was needed in the quickest and most effective manner

possible. Such special installations as were necessary for women were made, and in every way the plant and the work alike were prepared for their introduction, so that when they were finally brought in no time was lost; from the very beginning the women employed were working under conditions known to be suitable, at work fully within their powers, for which they received whatever training was required.

In each of the manufacturing arsenals where women are employed, there is at present a representative of the women's branch who is responsible to the arsenal management for handling all questions concerning the employment of woman workers and the conditions under which they work.

Conditions which the women may have to meet outside the plant—such as poor boarding arrangements, overcrowded or unhygienic lodgings, inadequate transportation facilities, and lack of means for recreation and amusement—are not dealt with by the women's branch but by the community organization branch of the Industrial Service Section of Army Ordnance.

In securing the improvements and alterations desired within the plants, the division relies both upon the real desire of many employers to give the best conditions possible when they know what these are, and upon the realization on the part of employers that contracts for Government work may be withheld. It is but fair to the employers to say, however, that in general they welcome the suggestions made by the division, or even, as in the instances cited, ask for its help.

CONFERENCE OF TRADE-UNION WOMEN UNDER AUSPICES OF U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

The first conference of trade-union women ever called by the United States Government was held on October 4 and 5, 1918. At the call of Miss Mary Van Kleeck, director, and Miss Mary Anderson, assistant director, of the Women in Industry Service of the Department of Labor, 16 women, representing national and international labor organizations, assembled in Washington for this conference. They drew up a set of resolutions to constitute a platform of principles for the cooperation of the trade-union women with the director of the service, and called for a large immediate appropriation from available emergency funds to expand the work of the service. In order to help carry out these principles they resolved themselves into a permanent committee to meet from time to time with the director.

Some of the principles most strongly urged by the conference are: (1) the practical and thorough application of the principle of

equal pay for equal work by women and men, which, according to the delegates, is not now the case; (2) the fixation, by wage boards, of a minimum wage for women, not on the basis of a living for a woman alone, but for the support of a woman with dependents, just as for a man with dependents; (3) and the giving of the same opportunity for training for women entering skilled trades that is now given to men in these occupations. Moreover, upon all Government wage boards, especially the National War Labor Board, the appointment of woman members was urged, since the delegates declared that, as the boards were now constituted, the women's interests were neglected. The principle of woman's suffrage was indorsed and an emphatic protest was entered against the United States Senate for denying the President's appeal for the passage of the Federal constitutional amendment.

Secretary Wilson, in opening the conference, had outlined a policy of controlling night work by women on all Government contracts, which the delegates indorsed. This plan provides for the absolute prohibition of such work except by special permit from the Secretary of War or the Secretary of the Navy for limited periods in particular plants, after declaration by these Secretaries that an emergency exists, and after thorough investigation by the Women in Industry Service. The conference also declared for a shorter work day. The delegates stated that a serious tendency exists toward the breakdown of this standard because of the willingness of employers to pay, and the workers to accept, overtime rates for excessive hours. A maximum day of eight hours or less, as distinguished from the eight-hour basic day for computation of wages with pay for overtime, was demanded. The shorter working day was urged in the interests of health of the workers, greater efficiency, and increased production.

In considering the situation of the Government civil-service employees the conference stood for the revision of the law and the regulations of the Civil Service Commission, so as to insure women equal opportunity with men in appointments, promotions, salaries and admission to all examinations, the establishment of a wage adjustment board on which the employees shall be adequately represented, and the appointment of committees of employees to be consulted by the head of every department with reference to estimates or recommendations concerning wages or working conditions.

The conference also considered the school situation and demanded better pay for all teachers, both in the interest of the teachers and the welfare of the nation.

Certain specific recommendations for bettering the conditions of labor were made by the conference. These included the enforce-

ment of sanitary regulations and increased provision for the health and safety of the workers, recognizing that special steps should be taken in the more dangerous trades to reduce the risk to a minimum, and recognizing also the efficacy of health insurance. In some particular industries such as munition workers, electrical workers, textile workers, and workers in navy yards and arsenals, special measures were considered and recommended in order to achieve the betterment of conditions.

On the final day of the conference, Mr. Felix Frankfurter, chairman of the War Labor Policies Board, explained the purpose and functions of the Board. He pointed out the interrelation of the various Government agencies for keeping war production at maximum efficiency, and showed how the cooperation of the woman workers with the Women in Industry Service, would insure that any labor policy advocated by the Board, had been decided on with the assistance and in the light of the experience of the women war workers.

The delegates present at the conference were Miss Margaret Daley and Miss Elizabeth McCallum, of New York, representing the United Garment Workers of America; Miss Fannie M. Cohn, of New York, International Ladies' Garment Workers; Miss Elizabeth Christman, of Washington, International Gloveworkers' Union; Mrs. Sarah Conboy and Miss Mary Kelliher, of New York, United Textile Workers; Miss Clara Stutz, of Washington, American Federation of Teachers; Miss Florence Etheridge, of Vinita, Okla., and Miss Ethel M. Smith, of Washington, National Federation of Federal Employees; Mrs. May Peake and Miss Blanche DeCelles, of Boston and Springfield, Mass., respectively, International Association of Machinists; Miss Agnes Johnson, of Chicago, International Boot and Shoe Workers; Mrs. Mary P. Scully, of New York, American Federation of Labor; Miss Emma Steghagen, of Chicago, National Women's Trade Union League; Miss Ida McCutcheon, of Springfield, Mass., International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers; and Miss Laura Graddick, of Washington, Bookbinders' International Union.

BUREAU OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRY ESTABLISHED IN NEW YORK STATE.

Under date of July 16, 1918, the New York State Industrial Commission adopted the following resolutions creating in the Department of Labor a bureau of women in industry:

Resolved, That there is hereby created in the Department of Labor a bureau to be known as the Bureau of Women in Industry which is to be under the immediate supervision of a chief of bureau appointed by the Industrial Commission and responsible directly to the Industrial Commission.

Further resolved, The functions of the Bureau of Women in Industry shall be to make investigations and reports upon the conditions under which women are employed in industry, wages, and hours of labor and working conditions; also for the employment of women in industry, and to that end such bureau shall cooperate with the Bureau of Statistics, the Bureau of Inspection, the Bureau of Employment, and any other bureau or agencies of the State Industrial Commission.

Further resolved, That the commission shall define the duties of the members of this bureau and may from time to time modify or change their duties and that no member of the bureau shall assume any functions or responsibility other than those delegated by the commission, and all questions of policy and all questions of publication shall be determined and approved by the Industrial Commission.

Resolved, That Nelle Swartz be, and she hereby is, appointed chief of the Bureau of Women in Industry.

EFFECT OF INDUSTRIAL EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN UPON MATERNITY.¹

The Women's Industrial Council of London has recently published an article on the relation between industrial occupation and the quality of maternity based on a study of working mothers in London, which has undertaken to discover, if possible, whether industrial employment affected a woman's capacity for successful maternity, and whether, if any effect were found, it must be considered as due to industrial work per se, or to some particular kinds of work.

To secure authoritative information, the investigators confined themselves to cases of mothers who on account of maternity were being dealt with in one way or another by some recognized authority. Schools for mothers, infant welfare centers, and the maternity wards of hospitals were selected as the field of inquiry, and from these they sought to obtain full particulars as to each mother's age, health, occupation during adolescence, before marriage, and during pregnancy, history of former confinements, nature of present confinement, health of the infant, and the mother's ability to nurse it; also, as bearing directly on the child's health, the age and health of the father, and the family's standard of living and home conditions.

This program proved too ambitious, as few or none of the institutions kept records of all these items. Several undertook special inquiries for the purposes of this study, but even with this aid the subject of adolescent and premarriage occupations and some other details had to be dropped out. Altogether 934 cases were studied, but not all the facts desired were obtained for all of these. The council realizes that this number is far too few to justify conclusions. One of the medical experts consulted estimated that at least 1,000,000 cases would be required to yield statistics of real value, but the

¹ Quality of maternity in relation to industrial occupation. The Women's Industrial News, London, July, 1918, pp. 2-16.

results obtained are put forward as being suggestive and as perhaps pointing the lines along which further efforts might well be made.

The first fact which emerges very clearly, perhaps the most clearly of all, is that practically no real data exist. If this country really wanted to improve the health and well-being of its citizens, the first step should be to acquire accurate knowledge of those things which act adversely upon the health of the infants. And the first factor is that which begins to operate before birth, even before conception, through the mother's health. One can even go further and say the effect on infant mortality of the adolescent life of the mother is not one of the least important factors. Yet no records seem to exist which enable an inquiry to take account of such factors.

The inquiry into the effect of different kinds of employment before and during pregnancy was also unsatisfactory. A questionnaire was prepared for doctors, both those in general practice and those in attendance at maternity hospitals, and in addition the investigators interviewed matrons of hospitals, midwives, health visitors, and superintendents of infant welfare centers. A summary of the replies obtained is given, as follows:

1. Continuous sitting before or during pregnancy is almost universally admitted to have a bad effect on labor, on the mother's health after confinement, and on the health of the child. The contrary opinion was given only by one woman general practitioner, who held that sitting widens the pelvis and renders childbearing more easy.

2. Standing continuously was held to be less bad, with the single exception that it tends to induce varicose veins. One doctor mentions, however, that this effect only injures the health of the mother, apart from childbearing, and does not affect the health of the child nor the character of confinement.

3. Lifting, stretching, and reaching up are all injurious during pregnancy and when carried to excess by young women may cause sterility. This is, however, only when undue strain is caused and internal organs are displaced.

4. Jolting is bad for pregnant women only, and three doctors referred to the unsuitability of tram and bus conducting for women when pregnant.

5. Treadling in general was not objected to by any of the doctors, but two say that treadling with one foot only during immaturity has a serious effect on labor in later years. During pregnancy it might result in miscarriage.

6. Working in a bad atmosphere is only injurious in that it is bad for the general health and in that way affects the life and health of the unborn child.

7. The effect on labor, on the mother's health, and on that of the child of poor and insufficient food, insufficient clothing, and long hours of fatiguing work, were all agreed to be bad, with the exception of clothing, which all declared to be of minor importance. Dr. Adamson, of Leeds, is of opinion that overwork and nerve strain tend to impair the power to suckle, and that this condition is increasing very much in recent years. * * * The greatest stress was laid upon the importance of a sufficiency of nourishing food for the mother.

8. The types of bodily exercise beneficial to pregnant women are not specified by anyone; all agree, however, that exercise, and within reasonable limits even hard work, is not only beneficial but necessary to the health of pregnant women. * * * Several types of exercise are named as being bad for pregnant women, such as lifting heavy weights, reaching and straining upward, and stooping. * * * It is noted by several doctors and one midwife that custom plays a very important part in deciding whether a pregnant woman can or can not undertake any physically laborious work. If it is work to which her muscles have become accustomed, it would not be attended

by any bad results, but if it is new to her and brings into play muscles she is not in the habit of exercising, it should be undertaken with great caution.

9. Other causes likely to produce stillbirths, sickly children, bad confinements, etc., are cited in order of importance, as syphilis, malnutrition, tuberculosis, and alcoholism.

As far as the effect on the babies is concerned, these findings are in line with the conclusion reached independently by other English investigators, that the health of the new-born child is affected little if at all by antenatal conditions, but the failure to establish a connection between industrial work during pregnancy and suffering and ill health on the mother's part is rather surprising. An explanation is perhaps suggested in another work on a kindred subject:

Writers on infant mortality and the decline of the birth rate never tire of justly pointing to the evils which come from the strain of manual labor in factories for expectant mothers. Very little is ever said about the same evils which come from the incessant drudgery of domestic labor. People forget that the unpaid labor of the working women at the stove, at scrubbing and cleaning, at the washtub, in lifting and carrying heavy weights, is just as severe manual labor as many industrial operations in factories. It is this labor which the mother performs often up to the very day on which the child is born, and she will be at it again perhaps six or eight days afterwards.¹

The statistical data on the comparative success in motherhood of women who are and who are not industrially employed lack a number of items which would be necessary for a conclusive result; nevertheless, they are of interest. Their showing is somewhat against the generally accepted attitude concerning the effect of employment outside the home upon motherhood. Dividing the mothers according to whether they had or had not been industrially employed during pregnancy, it appears that the proportionate number of living children, of children who had died, and of stillbirths was almost the same for both groups, though nonemployed mothers showed a very slight excess, especially as regards dead children and of stillbirths. On some other points the figures stood as follows:

	Women industrially occupied during pregnancy.		Women not industrially occupied during pregnancy.	
	Number.	Per cent of total number reported on.	Number.	Per cent of total number reported on.
Had lost 25 per cent or more of their children.....	48	14.5	84	14.7
Had infants born not healthy.....	41	16.2	55	16.29
Had bad confinements.....	28	10.55	52	11.06

The number of women industrially employed for whom reports were received was for the first item in the above table, 331, for the second,

¹ Maternity: Letters from working women collected by the Women's Co-Operative Guild, p. 5. London, 1915.

253, and for the third, 265; for the women not industrially employed the corresponding figures were 572, 338, and 470. An interesting detail is that of the industrially employed women having babies born not healthy, 16, and of those having bad confinements, 14, were engaged in office cleaning, charring, or domestic service, "which is much the same work as they would have done had they remained at home." The health of infants at birth must depend on prenatal conditions, so that the second item in this table is of special interest as to the effect upon the child of the mother's employment during pregnancy. The babies classed as "not born healthy" included those who were described as only fair, as well as those who were recorded as "rather sickly" and "weakly," together with the premature and stillbirths and those children born with specific ailments. The third item, as showing directly the effect upon the mother of work during pregnancy, was felt to be of such importance that the figures were very carefully revised and tested, but no error was found. Two possible explanations for the situation are suggested:

It was thought that possibly [the mothers not in industry] might have been subjected to more anxiety about husbands at the front than the others. The case papers were reexamined with a view to determine this point, and reveal, in fact, that the home-keeping women had a percentage of 38.18 husbands in the Army, while those industrially occupied had a percentage of 31.70. It is possible that this fact may in some measure account for the higher rate of bad confinements. We offer no comment on the subject; the results of the scrutiny are merely offered for consideration. There is one other point that may here be noted, viz., that in the majority of cases it is the stronger woman who goes out to work, while the more delicate and weakly remains at home. This fact would probably have considerable bearing on the figures.

An attempt was made to see whether any light could be obtained as to what occupations showed a tendency to produce bad results on maternity. For this purpose occupations were divided into four classes—sitting, standing, active, and heavy. It was soon found that the last must be dropped, since "it was only in those cases where harm was suspected that the fact of having had to lift heavy weights was alluded to." The 331 mothers who were reported as industrially employed during pregnancy were therefore grouped under the three remaining heads, and the percentage of "bad" cases calculated for each group. "Bad cases are those where (a) 25 per cent or over of the children have died; (b) the mother had a difficult or complicated confinement; and (c) the infants were born not healthy." This calculation gave the following results:

	Number.	Per cent.
Total women employed during pregnancy in active occupations.....	213	100
Total bad cases among.....	83	39
Total women employed during pregnancy in sitting occupations.....	88	100
Total bad cases among.....	23	26.1
Total women employed during pregnancy in standing occupations.....	30	100
Total bad cases among.....	2	6

The women in "standing" occupations are barmaids, counterhands, shop assistants, lift attendants, and ironers in laundries. The "sitting" included all sewing trades, bookfolders, clerks, and those branches of the tobacco trade which are done sitting at a bench, as well as one or two odd industries of a similar character.

The numbers concerned are of course too few to give much weight to these figures, but the relatively small proportion of bad cases among the women in standing occupations is striking. It is pointed out that the "sitting occupations" are all in skilled or semiskilled trades, which a girl is apt to enter at 14 and remain in continuously, while the "standing occupations" are largely unskilled, and the women following them change their occupations very frequently, taking "anything that comes along." In this way they get a greater variety and avoid the effect of continuously using one set of muscles and neglecting the others.

In the main, the investigators feel that their work is inconclusive, but they believe that one point has been established:

Apart from this matter of the sitting occupations, then, we seem to have obtained no definite results from our inquiry, not even a clear lead to or from any type of industrial occupation. But this it has certainly revealed, that, judging by any or all of the tests to which we have put our 934 cases, there is practically nothing to choose in quality of maternity between those who "go out to work" and those who stay at home. Their children live or die in about equal numbers, their confinements are equally good or bad, their infants are born with an equal chance of survival. * * * This at least we claim to have proved, that we can find no case, on the grounds of quality of maternity, for the prohibition of any woman to undertake any kind of healthy employment of which she feels herself capable.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY.

REPORT OF SEVENTH ANNUAL SAFETY CONGRESS, NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL.

The Seventh Annual Congress of the National Safety Council was held September 16-20 at the Hotel Statler, St. Louis, Mo.

In his opening address, President Van Schaack said:

We know that to-day, with all its shortcomings, accident prevention is a real factor in the conservation of our country's greatest asset—the lives and health of its people. We know that in whatever it contributes to this conservation it is distinctly helping to win the war, the one object in comparison with which all others of the time fade into insignificance. We know that its propaganda, through the discipline of safety education, rules, and ordinances, is furthering that wholesome respect for law which is the one permanent basis of a government of the people, by the people, and for the people. We know that by bringing employer and employee together, to deal with a matter in which neither can have any but a common interest, it is opening the way to keener appreciation by both of the principles of industrial and social justice and is helping to lay the foundations for an enduring industrial peace and for a better world in which to live.

H. W. Forster, general manager, Independence Bureau, Philadelphia, reassured those who had feared the retarding of the safety movement during the war. He said in his address on "Safety and warfare:"

It has been cheering for us to observe that, with few exceptions, our industrial plants and transportation organizations have not let their safety work suffer appreciably since the outbreak of the war. They were furthering safety before the war because they knew it paid in every sense of the word, and, although they found it harder to maintain records and to create new ones than in the years prior to the war, they have kept up the good work. * * * Even more cheering is the prominence which safety has achieved in the new war industries, where the need of speed has been such a factor that nothing could be allowed to delay the building program. These industries all have safety departments as a part of their operating forces, and most of them have had good accident-prevention judgment applied to the plans of their plants. I know of a gigantic plant, now nearing completion in record time, on which over 20,000 men were engaged in construction where safety engineering principles were applied to the first pencil sketch of the first building and in which every structural feature, every piece of equipment, and every operating practice came in for minute consideration from the point of view of safety. This plant, which will have over one million square feet under roof, bids fair to achieve that triple accident-prevention ideal: Ample head room, ample clearances, and ready accessibility of all portions. This unusual attention to accident prevention will not delay the completion of this great plant.

Mr. John Ring, jr., president, Advertising Men's Club of St. Louis, Mo., in his address on "Nationalizing the safety idea" distinguished

between "publicity" and "advertising" and showed how both mediums could be employed in a national campaign for safety.

Dr. Thomas Darlington followed with a convincing paper on "The economic value of health of industrial employees."

The general session, September 17, was arranged primarily for the benefit of safety engineers desiring to familiarize themselves with the fundamental principles and methods of securing success with their safety work. The reputation of the speakers attracted large numbers. Charles R. Hook, vice-president, operating division, American Rolling Mill Company, Middletown, Ohio, spoke on "The real problem of the safety engineer;" Frank E. Morris, safety engineer, American Rolling Mill Company, on "How to organize for safety;" J. J. Heelan, superintendent, Bureau of Inspection and Accident Prevention, Aetna Life Insurance Company, Hartford, on "Modern methods of safeguarding;" and W. E. Worth, general superintendent, Chicago Tunnel Company, Chicago, on "Does the attitude of the foreman determine the success of the safety engineer?"

The general round-table discussion, September 17, was devoted to the subjects: I. "How to sell safety to the big boss;" II. "The promotion of community interest in safety as an industrial asset." During the first discussion there was an interesting practical demonstration by a safety engineer "selling the idea" to a plant manager.

The local council meeting of officers and committee men was held September 17, with C. W. Price, field secretary, National Safety Council, in the chair. W. R. Rasmussen, permanent secretary, Western Pennsylvania Division, explained "The Western Pennsylvania Division plan." There was a "discussion" by Carl L. Smith, permanent secretary, Central Mississippi Valley Local Council, St. Louis. F. M. Rosseiland, president, Chicago Local Council, gave "The ideal local council program" for large-sized communities; Marcus A. Dow, general safety agent, New York Central Lines, "Successful methods of securing attendance at safety meetings;" John W. Costley, chairman, Tri-City Local Council, Granite City, Ill., "How to successfully conduct foremen's meetings;" and E. B. Saunders, assistant field secretary, National Safety Council, "Moving picture mass meetings for workmen."

For the first time in the history of the congress there was a session devoted to women, and the present necessity for placing women in industry to do the work of men called to war made this session of exceptional interest. Mrs. Neill A. McMillan, chairman, Women's Committee, National Council for Defense, St. Louis, presided.

Mrs. Pauline Saunders, service department, National Lamp Company, Cleveland, Ohio, was not present and her paper on "Medical supervision and adaptation of work to the woman in industry" was read by Miss Edwards.

Miss Tracy Copp, director, woman's department, Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, contributed a valuable paper on "The physical condition of workshops where women are employed," emphasizing the value of sanitation, first-aid rooms—properly equipped, and a capable person in charge to give advice and council in matters of personal hygiene and health—recreation, good food, and proper clothing.

Mrs. Anna Burdick, special agent, Industrial Education of Girls and Women, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington, D. C., in her paper, "The effect of war upon women in industry," spoke of the readjustment necessary to fit women into industry, of the special courses of training given in colleges for women, the number of national agencies dealing with the problems of women in industry, the work of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, and the problem which industry itself faces. In conclusion she stated:

If the war continues for three years, we shall have three and a half million green workers or new women workers in industry. What is our duty to these women from the standpoint of training, and from the standpoint of education? Are they not entitled to a knowledge of shop organization? Wherever increased production and the cost of it falls upon the physical strength, the intelligence or the skill of women wage workers, society must offer them the same safeguards of health and wage, and the same opportunities for training as for men.

H. W. Forster, general manager, Independence Bureau, Philadelphia, spoke on "Safety in the home (including equipment and teaching)," enumerating the serious accidents that frequently take place in the home and how they may be avoided through safety education. Mrs. J. R. Wilson, chairman, Committee on Safety Education in Public Schools, Philadelphia, emphasized the importance of "Safety instruction in the schools."

The Health Service Section held three sessions. Maj. Thomas Darlington of the American Iron and Steel Institute, New York City, was the first speaker, his topic being "Practical health work for the industries, large and small." He believes the so-called "occupational diseases" more frequently come from wrong living conditions than from the worker's occupation. The substance of this address was concisely expressed by Dr. Shoudy, the chairman—"Teach the men how to live, more than how to make a living."

Some good points advanced in the address on "The medical administration of workmen's compensation laws," by Dr. George E. Tucker, of the Aetna Life Insurance Company, San Francisco, were the importance of physical examination before placing men in hazardous occupations; early treatment for injuries and the employment of all known medical and surgical aid, special apparatus, and the orthopedic appliance expert; the period of reconstruction should begin immediately with the period of convalescence; compensation for per-

manent injury should be based not alone on wages but should consider two other essential factors—age and occupation.

H. L. Goodwin, efficiency and safety engineer, Merry Optical Company, Kansas City, urged "The conservation of the human eye."

Dr. Ralph W. Elliott, the National Lamp Company, Cleveland, speaking on "The value of the dental clinic from the standpoint of the industrial surgeon," stated that 60 large industrial organizations have well organized dental clinics.

Mrs. Samuel Semple, member of the Industrial Board, Pennsylvania Department of Labor, was unable to be present, but sent her paper, "Women in industry, their work and their health," in which she records that while war has never been kind to women, it is nevertheless possible to gather from the present situation certain by-products of advantage to women: First, the reestablishment of the dignity of the old occupation of housekeeping; and, second, the recognition of women's services in the business affairs of the world outside the home. Regarding the kind of work women ought to do, Mrs. Semple says, "No women should be admitted to what is for them a new industry until it has been made decently safe for human beings." In a later session of this section, Dr. C. D. Selby, industrial hygienist, United States Public Health Service, Toledo, Ohio, gave his impression of "The physician in industry," gained from a study of 170 industrial medical departments.

Dr. E. L. Pettibone, Cleveland, Ohio, in his paper, "Dentistry as an efficiency factor in increasing production," gave a list of large industrial organizations that have found dental clinics paying investments, and offered the assistance of the members of the National Association of Industrial Dental Surgeons in the establishment of dental clinics in industrial plants.

Dr. L. A. Shoudy, chief surgeon, Bethlehem Steel Co., spoke on "Practical first aid," and Dr. A. P. Hourigan, plant physician, Larkin Co., Buffalo, on "Health work in the small plant."

In a "Symposium on the responsibility for the industrial cripple" at a health service and governmental joint sectional meeting, Harry A. Mackey, chairman, Workmen's Compensation Bureau, State of Pennsylvania, discussed "The responsibility of the State," and Dr. Francis D. Patterson, chief, Division of Industrial Hygiene and Engineering, Department of Labor and Industry, Harrisburg, Pa., discussed "The industry's responsibility." Mr. Mackey believes the reeducation of the cripple to be a State duty—the cost to be met by legislative appropriation—and that every dollar of his compensation should go to his family, or, in the case of a single man, that the money should accumulate, during his reeducation, into a small working capital. Dr. Patterson advocates State laws providing that "vocational training should become a part and parcel of the compensation

award," and the enforcement by law of the "vocational training of those who are injured."

In a general round-table discussion on "Eliminating lost time for the man and for the industry, from the industrial surgeon's viewpoint," Dr. J. A. Cousins, Union Bag & Paper Corporation, Chicago, treated "Eliminating other unnecessary time lost"—other than by injury or sickness—under three heads: (a) Care of employees' families, (b) adequate housing, and (c) recreational facilities. He states:

There are two ways in which employees may be regarded, and only two: One as machines, the other as men. They are no longer content to be regarded as machines; they are going to insist, with ever-increasing firmness and decision, on being regarded not only as men, as fellowmen, but as fellow creators of the industries in which they toil. They are going to insist that a man who invests his life in a business, who puts his toil into it, is to be considered before the man who merely puts his money into it. From a physician's standpoint "the 'human element' must not merely be recognized, it must be predominant," and this is the only way to avoid unnecessary loss of time and unnecessary waste of energy and product.

The two papers of most general interest given in the public safety division were "City planning as related to public safety," by Thomas Adams, of the Conservation Commission, Ottawa, Canada, and Harland Bartholomew, engineer, City Plan Commission, St. Louis, and an address by Julien H. Harvey, director of the six months' experimental public safety campaign at Rochester, N. Y. Both papers were extremely valuable, but their length makes it impossible to give any idea of their contents in so brief a review of the congress.

The Employees' Benefit Association held a meeting on September 17, with Dr. Shoudy, of the Bethlehem Steel Co., in the chair.

After opening the meeting Dr. Shoudy, with the statement that Mr. Chandler had fathered the employees' section during its course under the health section and that it was his idea that they should have a separate section, asked W. L. Chandler, vice chairman of the section, and assistant treasurer, Dodge Sales & Engineering Co., Mishawaka, Ind., to take the chair. Mr. Chandler is a well-known authority and writer on the subject of "employees' benefit associations," and many valuable suggestions were gleaned during the discussions which followed the papers.

F. S. Bigler, vice president, Michigan Nut & Bolt Works, Detroit, was the first speaker, and outlined the plan that has proved successful in their own plant in his paper on "How to solve its problems and operate it successfully."

Russel M. Jamieson, of the Monument Pottery Co., Trenton, N. J., discussed "Its relation to the employer and employee and the best form of management;" D. H. M. Bascom, chief surgeon, Illinois Traction Co., Peoria, Ill., "The need for medical service and other benefits." J. Oswald, manager, Fels & Co., Philadelphia, thought that "super-

vision of beneficiaries" was necessary. "Fees, dues, and assessments" was discussed by W. L. Chandler; "Side issues which may be included to advantage," by J. H. Goldie, manager, welfare department, Cadillac Motor Car Co., Detroit; and J. M. Eaton, assistant to president, Lincoln Motor Co., Detroit, spoke on "Getting and measuring results."

The paper and pulp section held two meetings, the first largely technical and the second devoted to housing and community welfare.

G. E. Williamson, chief engineer, Strathmore Paper Co., Mittineague, Mass., gave a very practical account of how they had solved their housing problem, giving descriptions of the several classes of houses, with photographs and blue prints. While he considers their solution a success in their own community, he expresses his personal opinion that every community must solve its housing problem in conformity to local conditions.

A. Rousseau, safety engineer, the Norton Co., Worcester, Mass., spoke on the "Indian Hill development of the Norton Co." While not advocating their plan for "industrial plants which have sprung up over night and must find some means of housing temporarily, at least, a large proportion of the rank and file of their employees," he thought there were many features, particularly the plan of selling the houses, which could be applied to other conditions. He then gave an outline of the Indian Hill development and method of financing. "In most instances," he said, "the purchasers of these houses are occupying them and virtually securing ownership of them by monthly payments which do not exceed the amount which they previously paid for rent in tenement houses in which they had no lasting interest. It is needless to say that these families take a pride in their new houses and that the houses and lawns are maintained in excellent condition."

Evelyn B. Binz, associate director, employment and service, Miller Lock Co., Philadelphia, in a paper entitled "Community welfare" told how, in the absence of model towns with community clubhouses and other ideal conditions, the factory itself may be made a community center.

The steam railroad section held five meetings. The paper that naturally attracted the greatest attention was "What the United States Railroad Administration expects of the different safety organizations in the promotion of safety work," by H. W. Belnap, manager, safety section, Division of Operation, United States Railroad Administration, Washington, D. C.

In his conclusion he summarized briefly under the four following heads what was expected:

1. That all officers in executive positions shall give safety work their active cooperation; that they shall regard it as of the same importance as other branches of rail-

road work, and that they shall take an intensive interest in it and do everything they consistently can to make it successful.

2. That the fundamental principles of safety shall be wisely and energetically instilled in the minds of the men who do the actual work of operating the railroads, and they all shall become imbued with the importance of safety, knowing that since it is they who are killed or injured, all employees must take an active interest in the work and understand from instruction and practice that proper observance of the requirements of safety is a work of the men, by the men, and for the men.

3. That the proper officers of railroads shall give attention to all reasonable and practical suggestions and recommendations made, in order that unsafe conditions and unsafe practices may be promptly eradicated. In each instance proper acknowledgment of suggestions and recommendations shall be made to the end that those making them may be apprised as to their disposition and of the fact that due consideration was given to such suggestions or recommendations.

4. That officers and employees shall cooperate to the maximum and that proper efforts shall be made to get all to realize that in safety committee meetings, officers and employees meet on a common level, all being members of the committee, and each having an important duty to perform in the prevention of avoidable accidents.

The Iron and Steel Section held three meetings, and the Mining Section, three.

There was an informal dinner, with patriotic music, September 18. W. E. Bilheimer, sales manager, Franklin Life Insurance Co., St. Louis, was toastmaster, and the speakers and their subjects were: R. M. Little, director, American Museum of Safety, New York, "Forethought vs. afterthought in safety;" and James Schermerhorn, of Detroit, "The first set of fours."

An interesting feature of the Congress was the safety first campaign week, September 15-21, inclusive, carried out by the Central Mississippi Valley Division of the council, with the result that one death only from accident (an intoxicated man falling from a wagon) was reported during the week. Ten accidental deaths were reported during the week before the campaign, and 24 deaths from accidents during the corresponding week last year. The total record of accidental deaths for 1917 was 510.

About 2,000 persons attended the congress, which was a remarkably good showing considering the stress of war activities and other abnormal conditions.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

FIFTH ANNUAL CONVENTION OF INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS.

The International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions held its fifth annual meeting September 24-27, at Madison, Wis. Seventeen States, two Provinces of Canada, and five Federal departments were represented. The last named included the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Employees' Compensation Commission, Federal Board for Vocational Education, Bureau of Standards, and the Surgeon General's Office of the War Department. An address of welcome was delivered by the Hon. Emanuel L. Philipp, Governor of Wisconsin.

The discussion centered about five main subjects: Accident prevention; methods of compensating for partial disabilities; statistics and statistical methods as an aid in efficient administration; medical problems, including the method of selecting physicians; and the problem of rehabilitation and retraining.

In his presidential address, Mr. Fred M. Wilcox, of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, emphasized the necessity of greater uniformity in compensation practices, especially as regards partial disability schedules. He also advocated unlimited medical and hospital treatment, urged the adoption of State compensation insurance, and emphasized the importance of closer personal supervision of accident cases.

The opening session of the convention was devoted to brief State reports on important legislative and administrative developments during the year. An important instance of effective cooperation was given by Mr. J. L. Gernon, first deputy commissioner of the New York Industrial Commission. A great many of the small employers subject to the compensation act in New York had not insured in accordance with the law, and it had been practically impossible for the commission to canvass the entire State for violations of this sort. Now one of the duties of the factory inspectors is to inquire whether employers are insured under the compensation act. Violations are reported to the compensation bureau and then prosecuted. Mr. J. W. Armstrong, of Nova Scotia, stated that 75 per cent of the troubles of compensation commissions would be eliminated if a monopolistic State fund were substituted for private casualty companies. He also advised strongly against payment of compensation benefits in lump sums, stating that 90 per cent of such lump-sum payments are actually wasted.

ACCIDENT PREVENTION.

The entrance of large numbers of women into war industries has necessitated a change in the character of accident prevention methods. Machines and processes not particularly hazardous when men are employed become so when such machines are operated by women. Even the mechanical safeguards themselves, installed primarily for the protection of male employees, are a source of danger to women workers. Another prolific source of accidents, as pointed out by Mr. Gernon, of New York, is the lack of proper instruction in the use or technique of tools. The greater liability to accident of the inexperienced or "green" employee is due not to his carelessness but to his ignorance of the proper methods of performing his work. This unfamiliarity has become a very potent factor in view of the present large labor turnover and the employment of thousands of new and inexperienced workers.

Some of the accident prevention methods found effective in the various States were discussed at the conference. The more salient features are shown in the following summaries of the papers read.

Mr. Emile E. Watson, actuary of the Industrial Commission of Ohio, presented the plan in effect in that State.

An account of the safety work in Wisconsin was given by Mr. G. H. Hambrecht, chairman of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission. One method of interesting employers in inaugurating intensive safety campaigns is to study the accident experience in their plants and furnish the deputies with this data. The compensation law itself is an aid to the safety movement. When an injury is due to failure of an employer to comply with any safety order the compensation of the injured is increased 15 per cent, to be paid by the employer himself, and when an injury is due to violation of an order by the injured the employee's compensation is reduced 15 per cent. Accidents are carefully investigated on this basis and the result has been to create a demand for copies of safety orders.

The safety department of the Industrial Accident Commission of California, as outlined by Mr. J. R. Brownell, superintendent of safety, was organized in 1914 with a nucleus of safety engineers, and now consists of 22 members. The chief mine inspector is paid jointly by the Federal Government and the commission through an arrangement with the Federal Bureau of Mines, by which he is also employed. The following accident prevention methods have been found useful: Development of safety organizations among employers; preparation and distribution of safety rules and orders; mass meetings and shop talks to employees; issuance of bulletins dealing with special hazards in different industries; a safety museum; and the publication of a monthly safety news bulletin.

Particular emphasis upon the necessity of instructing inexperienced employees in the use of tools and methods was laid down by Mr. J. L. Gernon, of the New York Industrial Commission. He further stated:

Of the 65,449 factories employing 1,500,000 workers in New York State, many thousands are doing nothing in the way of effective safety work, some of the reasons for this situation being lack of knowledge or indifference, reluctance to spend money for the installation of safeguards and inability to hire safety engineers. The State inspector must therefore act as safety man for this large group of establishments, instructing employers and workmen in the practical methods of safeguarding dangerous machinery and in conducting effective safety campaigns. Cooperation of manufacturers is essential but not always possible to secure, and experience in New York shows that without a policy of insistence on compliance with the orders issued and without power to prosecute violators of the law or authority to tag unsafe machinery not much would be accomplished. A conservative estimate of the cost of installing safeguards in New York State for the past three years will total about \$5,000,000. In that period 877,945 orders were issued by the division of factory inspection, 244,011 of which related to accident prevention.

The inspection bureau is empowered to tag as unsafe machines which are dangerous and unguarded, and this has proved a most effective means of securing compliance with the orders issued. Notice is sent to the delinquent manufacturer telling him to comply by a certain date with the order that has been issued applicable to his plant, and if he fails to do so the unsafe machinery is tagged for such period as the hazard complained of exists, during which time the machine may not be used. That the method is effective is shown by the fact that of 47,475 compliances with orders for accident prevention recorded in the year ending June 30, 1918, tags were required in only 933 cases. The effectiveness of the plan is further shown by the fact that in the same period there were only 52 prosecutions relative to accident prevention out of a total of 1,869 prosecutions covering all classes of orders issued.

Considerable success has been achieved by the bureau in the policy of requiring every inspector to report all installations of new machinery where the machinery itself is dangerous and the manufacturer has failed properly to safeguard it. When called to their attention the makers of the machinery have in every instance signified their intention to remedy the defects and have cooperated with the bureau in an effort to make their machinery safe for the operator.

Mr. Victor T. Noonan, director of safety of Ohio, emphasized the human element in accident prevention work. The war, he said, had given the safety movement a much needed stimulus. Employers and workmen alike must consider it their patriotic duty to do everything possible to prevent accidents.

Mr. S. J. Williams, manager of the accident prevention division of the National Safety Council, spoke of the need of uniform safety standards. The following is a summary of his remarks:

A proper balance between safeguarding and education should be maintained in any safety campaign, since education reduces accident frequency and safeguarding prevents many of the more serious accidents. Education which shows greatest results for the least money has frequently been favored by employers, while legislative requirements in regard to safeguarding have often been considered absurd and oppressive. With the increase of laws, however, which are framed by administrative bodies having the benefit of expert advice these objections are heard less often, although an arbitrary attitude on the part of an inspector may create friction and ill-feeling.

Safety organizations which State officers feel have been introduced to cover glaring defects in mechanical equipment are fortunately growing less frequent, and this improvement is hastened by the growing realization that in a large plant the safety work can not be left to committees but should be in charge of an experienced safety engineer who will first correct physical hazards before starting an educational campaign.

The National Safety Council, which is essentially a cooperative organization of employers, is giving increasing attention to mechanical safeguarding and "engineering revision." The Council is unable to enforce observance of standards but it can cooperate with all organizations engaged in working out proper standards and in testing and labeling devices.

Progressive States have abandoned the idea of inspections which only enforce the laws and now carry on educational campaigns, although these have hardly been used to the fullest possible extent. The employer as well as the employee needs education and more good can be accomplished sometimes by showing him a record of his own accidents, accompanied by recommendations for safety organization and for the employment of a safety engineer if the record shows a large number of accidents due to bad conditions, than by legal prosecutions. It is probable that no State has yet made full use of such individual statistics.

Foremen, who are generally conceded to have the greatest power to help or hinder safety efforts, should be educated by State inspectors by means of meetings at times of regular inspections and by monthly bulletins, which some departments now publish. The workmen should be educated through safety meetings and rallies and by speakers furnished by the State. Some States also furnish posters, but it is a question if it is not better to encourage employers to join the National Safety Council which, through its weekly bulletin service, can furnish better material, and at less cost, than can most State departments.

The formulation of standards or codes is essentially a governmental function. While State industrial commissions have done much during the last five years toward perfecting the safety standards, still there is a serious lack of uniformity in State codes. The advantages of uniform safety standards in the different States are obvious. In addition to all the State standards, there are several standards of a national character such as those of the Schedule Rating Committee of the Federal Safety Engineers and the United States Compensation Board and (on certain subjects) of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers. It is urged therefore that, with the backing of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics and the Federal Bureau of Standards, this association take action at the coming meeting toward establishing a certain amount of uniformity. It would not be necessary that each State discard its own standards but that the State and national departments interested and other organizations such as engineering societies, insurance companies, and the National Safety Council should form a joint committee to set up a national standard to serve as a guide for States adopting new codes and for those revising existing codes in order to secure perhaps not complete uniformity but a reasonable approach to it.

PARTIAL DISABILITY SCHEDULE.

The formulation of an adequate and just compensation schedule for partial disabilities is a problem which is still confronting every State legislature and compensation commission. No two schedules are alike and none is adequate. This inadequacy is particularly noticeable as to foot and leg injuries. As was pointed out by Mr. Carl Hookstadt of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, in every State compensation law the schedule provides smaller benefits for the loss of the lower limbs than for the loss of the upper limbs.

Yet every investigation shows that from both the medical and economic standpoint the loss of the former are more severe than the loss of the latter.

On what basis permanent partial disability should be compensated was discussed in a paper prepared by Mr. John Mitchell, chairman of the Industrial Commission of New York.

The discussion of this subject is based upon the permanent partial disability provisions of the New York law. In the administration of the law consideration has been given to the vocational element to modify the rigidity of the statute, in no case, however, diminishing the award on this account, but it might be advisable to allow a definite increase of, say $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent for vocational reasons alone. Formerly the commission was not permitted to consider any injury short of loss of, or loss of the use of, a member as other than a simple disability case, but now the commission has power to make an award on proportionate loss of use of a member, thus preventing much injustice to the injured person. Under the former plan it was even possible for a man who for vocational purposes had lost one eye to receive less compensation than if he had lost a little finger. There is also justification for granting compensation for certain disfigurements. Provision should also be made to give the claimant returning to work at a lower wage than he formerly received, two-thirds of the difference between his old and new wage with certain maximum limitations. It is also proper to increase the maximum compensation for the loss of a hand, arm, foot, leg, or eye.

Under an amendment to the New York law compensation for permanent total disability is awarded in cases in which the claimant loses a hand, arm, foot, leg, or eye, having previously suffered the loss of one or more such members. The totality is no more chargeable to the last accident than to the first. The proper way to handle such a matter would seem to be to charge the present employer with the result of the last accident and to throw the combination result of the totality upon the industry as a whole. This may be done by adding a small additional rate upon each risk or by collecting, as New York has done, in each death case in which there are no dependents, a fixed sum of \$100, which contribution has been sufficient to establish a fund to take care of the permanent total cases. This has done away with the objection of employers to employing or reemploying crippled or defective workmen.

The statutory method of providing for permanent partial disabilities not included in the schedule is to pay two-thirds of the difference between the old wages and the new, but the administration difficulties are numerous. The claimant may refuse to return to work; changed industrial conditions may cause the claimant to earn more or less than he earned at the time of the accident; the claimant may experience intermittent employment—sometimes employed and sometimes not. The method followed in New York in such cases is to allow the workman and the employer (or his insurance carrier) to present themselves before the commission with a proposition to adjudicate compensation by a single payment commuting all future payments. More than 5,000 such cases a year are thus adjusted. The chief defects of such a plan are (1) the danger of introducing the "settlement," so called, in which the obnoxious element of the old plan may be perpetuated and (2) the danger which always attends the giving of compensation in a lump sum against which is the general tendency of compensation laws. The first objection is entirely avoided by the commission's active interest in every case. The second defect is overcome largely by ordering the payment of the lump sum periodically where there is indication that it otherwise might be wasted.

STATISTICAL METHODS.

Mr. W. H. Burhop, of the Wisconsin Compensation Department, discussed the standard accident and compensation tables used by the

industrial commission, and pointed out the importance of proper statistics as an aid in administration.

The paper of Dr. L. W. Chaney, of the Federal Bureau of Labor Statistics, emphasized the need of information as to exposure in the determination of relative industrial hazards. Accident rates always have significance as disclosing prevalence; while in the matter of hazard the significance is slight in extended groups such as the entire State but steadily increases as it is narrowed to industries, departments, and finally to occupations. Dr. Chaney also discussed the several methods which may be adopted to ascertain the amount of exposure in any industry, the most accurate method being the use of actual hours as recorded by time clocks.

Dr. L. W. Hatch, chief statistician of the New York Industrial Commission, in his discussion of noncompensable accidents stated that while such accidents should be reported, very little could be gained by tabulating them. The results obtained would not be commensurate with the great labor and cost involved.

MEDICAL SERVICE.

The medical session proved to be one of the most spirited and interesting features of the convention. A description of the medical administration and practices in each State opened the session. Every speaker emphasized the importance of medical and surgical treatment which was unlimited both as regards time and amount. Nothing short of this was held to be adequate. Too great a tendency on the part of employers and insurance carriers to select cheap and incompetent physicians was also pointed out. The practices of many of the contract doctors were especially condemned by Maj. P. B. Magnuson, of the Surgeon General's Office, and by Dr. C. H. Lemon, of Milwaukee. On the other hand, as pointed out by Dr. J. W. Mowell, of the State medical aid board of Washington, selection of physicians by employees results in selection of incompetents in a large proportion of cases. Supervision by State industrial commissions over the selection of physicians was suggested as the best way out of the difficult problem.

Washington is one of the few States in which employees under the compensation act are permitted to choose their own physicians. The following synopsis of a paper read by Dr. Mowell of that State shows how the system is working out:

This subject is here discussed from the standpoint of the Washington compensation law which provides for (1) The free choice of physician by the injured workman; (2) The selection of a physician by the employer, after securing the consent of his workmen to contract for their care; (3) The selection of the physician for special work by the industrial insurance commission through the medical aid board.

The first provision has many shortcomings. For instance, where only one or two physicians are available free choice means nothing; where there are a great number of physicians to choose from, many workmen make a wise choice, but there are many who select a physician who is not well equipped to handle the case. Thus a man with an eye injury will often consult an ordinary practitioner until the serious nature of his case necessitates his transfer to an eye specialist. The principal thing that can be said in favor of free choice of physician is the effect that it has on the workman's mind, that is, the feeling that he is getting what he wants.

Similar difficulties arise under the contract plan. Often a physician with little experience locates in the district and contracts with the employer on a monthly basis to care for his workmen, and then proceeds to handle every sort of case, sometimes at the expense of the workman and the employer. In the larger industrial centers some of these physicians are efficient "business getters."

Considerable trouble has been occasioned by nonmedical men who commercialize the contract plan by forming a hospital association and then induce employees to give their consent in writing to employers to make a contract for their care. These men then secure the services of a surgeon and pay a small part of the proceeds to him for the work and keep the remainder. This has caused much dissatisfaction among workmen and physicians, bringing about some agitation in favor of State hospitals for the care of workmen under the industrial act.

Under the head of "Selection of surgeon for special work," the medical aid board requires that where a contracting surgeon is not able to do the work personally he must furnish the services of a specialist.

Under free choice of physician the medical aid board reserves the right to transfer a man for treatment to a surgeon of its choice where it becomes evident that the injured workman is not receiving the service that he should at the hands of the physician of his choice. In making this selection, the board is guided entirely by its knowledge, based on seven years' experience, of the various kinds of work that the different surgeons of the State are best fitted to do.

In conclusion, it may be said that for the ordinary accident the workman should have free choice of physician, but in more serious accidents it would be much better if he would take the advice of someone who is in a position to know what physician is best equipped by experience, or otherwise, to treat the particular condition from which he is suffering. In this way the permanent partial disabilities resulting would be fewer and the injured man would be left in better shape to take up a gainful occupation, for the disability awards, although as liberal as under any compensation act, are not in keeping with what the workman does.

The invaluable aid medical advisers render to compensation commissions was generally recognized and emphasized. Not only do they advise the commissioners on technical medical problems, but they are especially qualified to select the impartial examining physicians. A valuable paper on how to prevent and minimize permanent disabilities of the hand was read by Dr. F. D. Donoghue. The long period of disability resulting from hand injuries, Dr. Donoghue stated, was due largely to neglect or improper treatment. Valuable papers were also read by Mr. Meyer Lissner, of the California Industrial Accident Commission, on preëxisting disease aggravated by accident, and by Mr. Geo. A. Kingston, of the Ontario Workmen's Compensation Board, on the interpretation of injuries "arising out of and in course of employment."

REHABILITATION.

A discussion of rehabilitation problems closed the convention. Mr. T. N. Dean, statistician of the compensation board of Ontario, spoke of the importance of rehabilitating industrial cripples and stressed the desirability of prompt action. Mr. Carl Hookstadt, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, outlined the actual industrial problem, as disclosed by several investigations, confronting workmen permanently injured in industry. He pointed out that the present industrial handicap of a workman who sustains a major limb injury is a serious one. The period of total disability resulting from the injury is unnecessarily long. Only about one-third of the seriously crippled workers return to the same employer and relatively few reenter the same occupation. The compensation benefits are inadequate and practically no retraining has been done.

Mr. R. M. Little, former chairman of the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, outlined the history and progress of Federal rehabilitation legislation as regards both military and industrial cripples. He urged specifically that the association support the pending Smith-Bankhead bill providing for the rehabilitation of industrial cripples under the supervision and administration of the Federal Board for Vocational Education. Resolutions were adopted by the association approving the Smith-Bankhead bill and authorizing the executive committee to further State and Federal legislation along lines outlined in the said bill.

BUSINESS SESSION.

The following officers for the ensuing year were elected: President, George A. Kingston, Commissioner, Workmen's Compensation Board of Ontario, Canada; vice president, Will J. French, member of the Industrial Accident Commission of California; secretary-treasurer, Royal Meeker, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics, Washington, D. C. The new executive committee consists of Charles S. Andrus, chairman of the Illinois Industrial Commission, J. W. Armstrong, vice chairman of the Workmen's Compensation Board of Nova Scotia, together with the incoming officers and the outgoing president of the association, Mr. Fred M. Wilcox, member of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission. The next annual convention of the association will be held at Toronto, Canada.

The committee on jurisdictional conflicts reported progress and was continued. Upon recommendation of the secretary that the I. A. I. A. B. C. amalgamate with the Association of Government Labor Officials, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved that the executive committee be authorized and instructed to confer with the executive committee of the Association of Government Labor Officials as to the advisability of the consolidation of the two organizations, and if in the judg-

ment of said committees said consolidation seems to be advisable, that a referendum vote by mail be taken of the membership of both said organizations on the proposition of consolidation. If a majority of the membership of each of said organizations vote in favor of consolidation the executive committee is further authorized to arrange with the executive committee of the labor officials for a joint meeting of the two organizations in 1919 at which time the proposed consolidation may be consummated.

The report of the committee on statistics was adopted. The executive committee was authorized to cooperate with the Federal Bureau of Standards in the formulation of a uniform safety code; also to study the question of uniformity in State compensation laws.

Resolutions relating to the business of the Association were adopted, of which the following are the most significant:

1. We contemplate with much encouragement the development of workmen's compensation and the accompanying growth of the kindred movement for the promotion of safety among the hosts of industrial workers within a period comparatively recent in the States and Provinces of North America. A better day dawned in the industrial world when these most helpful agencies were instituted among men. Mindful of continuing widespread mourning and heavy sacrifice of usefulness the steady reduction of these grievous losses is a source of deep satisfaction. Conscious of the imperfections of the compensation service we may well view with pride and gratification the more equitable and humane consideration of the unfortunate victims of industrial accident, the smaller and less wasteful levies upon industrial enterprise and progress, and the consequently more harmonious and mutually helpful relations between workmen and employers through the introduction and development of this important system. In feeling our way along dim trails or untrodden paths it were strange indeed if mistakes were not manifest and improvement required, but the record justifies indulgence of the hope that we shall profit by these mistakes and continue to more nearly approach ideal standards and irrefragable methods. To this end we pledge the highest endeavor of ourselves and our several jurisdictions. In this endeavor we crave the practical and sympathetic cooperation of good men and women everywhere.

2. The association desires to place on record its sense of appreciation of the services of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, and particularly the Commissioner of the Bureau, Dr. Royal Meeker, for the invaluable services rendered to the association during the past two years.

We recognize that the services of the bureau are almost absolutely essential to the continued successful carrying out of the work of this association and we express the hope that the bureau under the able administration of Dr. Meeker will be able to continue heading up the secretarial branch of the work for which he has shown such excellent qualification.

3. In the opinion of the association the executive committee should place at the disposal of the secretary a sum not exceeding \$500 to be disbursed by him and accounted for in the usual way, in paying for special clerical services required in the conduct of the secretarial work of the association.

The following motion was passed by the convention: Moved that this organization indorse the principle of the Smith-Bankhead Bill (S. 4922, and H. R. 12880), and that the president of this organization be authorized and instructed to appoint a committee for the purpose of furthering legislation along that line.

The Smith-Bankhead bill referred to in this motion is "a bill to provide for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise, and their return to civil employment."

"ARISING OUT OF AND IN COURSE OF EMPLOYMENT."¹

BY GEORGE A. KINGSTON, COMMISSIONER, WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION BOARD OF ONTARIO.

Perhaps no expression made use of in compensation laws has been the subject of more consideration and discussion by administering boards and law courts than that which constitutes the subject of this paper.

People sometimes say that the modern compensation law provides for compensation in case of all work accidents regardless of the question of negligence, and that probably is the general conception of the law, but in 39 out of the 48 jurisdictions on this continent (i. e., 40² in the United States and 8 in Canada) where a workman's compensation law is in force there is ingrafted upon the more general expression of the law the provision that an accident to entitle a workman to compensation must have happened in course of and must also have arisen out of his employment.

The eight jurisdictions whose laws do not include this expression are Ohio, Pennsylvania, Texas, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, Wyoming, and the United States.

I will briefly state the expressions used in the laws of these States in lieu of the uniform wording of the other laws in this respect:

Ohio: "All injuries not self-inflicted received in course of employment."

Pennsylvania: "Injury by accident in course of employment."

Texas: "Personal injury sustained in course of employment."

Washington: "Personal injury whether received upon the premises or at the plant or in the course of employment while away from the establishment."

West Virginia: "All personal injuries not the result of willful misconduct or intoxication of employee or self-inflicted."

Wisconsin: "Personal injury while performing service growing out of and incidental to the employment, not intentionally self-inflicted."

Wyoming: "Personal injuries as a result of employment and not due to culpable negligence of injured employee or to the willful act of a third person due to reasons personal to such employee or because of his employment."

¹ Paper read at the Fifth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, at Madison, Wis., Sept. 24-27, 1913. An account of the convention is given in the preceding article.

² Including Alaska and the Federal Government.

United States: "Personal injury sustained while in the performance of duty."

It will be readily seen that in a number of cases this expression "Arising out of and in course of employment" substantially modifies the general principle that all work accidents are compensable regardless of negligence or fault on the part of the workman.

These may be conveniently enumerated under the following headings:

1. Street accidents.
2. Accidents while going to or from work.
3. Injuries due to scuffling, larking, or horseplay.
4. Accidents, as sometimes stated in legal textbooks, caused by the act of God or the country's enemies.
5. Injuries arising out of attempted robbery, fighting, assault, murder, or suicide.
6. Disabilities due to frostbite or heat stroke.
7. Accidents occurring during moments of leisure or while doing something of a personal nature or out of curiosity.
8. Camp accidents.
- 9.¹ Accidents resulting in the aggravation of a preexisting diseased condition, or extraordinary conditions amounting almost to accident, resulting in disease, as e. g., pneumonia resulting from exposure.
- 10.¹ Accidents due to disobedience of rules.
- 11.¹ Hernia, lumbago, and strain cases.

One could go on almost indefinitely classifying occurrences which seem to fall outside the commonly accepted idea of "work accident," but the above list comprises the great bulk of cases presenting problems which administering boards and commissions are constantly confronted with, and it is the purpose of this paper to discuss some of the principles underlying the decisions in cases coming under these headings.

STREET ACCIDENTS.

Prior to the decision of the House of Lords in the case of *Dennis v. White*, June 14, 1917, there was a fairly well-settled line of decisions in England in regard to street accidents, to the effect, briefly stated, that if a workman is on the public highway on his master's business and becomes injured by accident due to ordinary street hazard, such an injury is not compensable, because it could not be said that the accident arose out of his employment, or in other words, as some of the judges expressed it, it was due to a risk no greater than is run by all members of the public.

One of the leading cases in which this principle of law was expounded was the famous banana skin case, *Sheldon v. Needham*, 7 B. W. C. C.

¹ Consideration of decisions under this head is not included in this paper.

471, where an employer sent his servant to post a letter at a box a few yards along the street. While performing this duty, she slipped on a banana skin carelessly thrown on the sidewalk and broke her leg. For the reasons stated above it was ultimately held by the court of appeals that the employer was not liable.

The New York supreme court in the case of *Newman v. Newman* took the same view, and the idea seems to have been accepted in quite a number of the other States.

It was held in another English case, *Pierce v. Provident* (1911), 4 B. W. C. C. 242, that in order to make the employer liable in the case of street accidents employment in the streets must be practically continuous, as in the case of a canvasser or collector, the reason for drawing the distinction being thus expressed by the master of the rolls:

As the work requires him to spend the greater part of the day on the streets he would be, in the course of his duties, beyond all doubt more exposed to the risks of the street than ordinary members of the public.

The Scottish courts, however, held a different view. As one of the judges put it:

The risk of the road at the particular time was a risk incidental to the employment and it was none the less a risk of the employment because every pedestrian on the road at that time ran the same risk, or because the workman was facing this risk for the first or perhaps the only time.

Very early in the administration of the law in Ontario, i. e., in 1915, the board was called upon to decide this identical question. A man employed by one of the cartage agents in Toronto was sent to a harness maker's shop some few blocks away to get a horse collar which had been left there for repairs, and on the way back slipped on the sidewalk and broke his arm.

Our board, while entertaining the most profound respect for the decisions of the English courts, is not bound to follow them, and the reasons as stated in the Sheldon case in regard to these street cases did not appear to us to be sound. We finally decided to adopt the view expressed by the Scottish courts and allowed the claim.

It was, you may be sure, quite interesting to note that the House of Lords a couple of years later in the case first above referred to, *Dennis v. White*, 10 B. W. C. C. 280, discarded the theory or rule previously laid down by the English court of appeal as applying to this type of case and adopted the view expressed by the Scottish courts.

The written judgment of Lord Chancellor Finlay in this case deals very fully with all the prior decisions of importance on this subject and refers to the reasoning of these earlier decisions as unsound and antagonistic to the terms of the statute.

I have had the opportunity of reading the written opinion of the chairman of the Nova Scotia board, Mr. V. J. Patton, in the matter of the claims arising out of the Halifax disaster of December last. The reasoning in the case of *Dennis v. White* was adopted, and it was held that claims in respect to killed or injured workmen in Halifax on that occasion should be taken as coming under the provisions of the act, it being considered that the injury arose out of the employment because, by reason of the nearness of the city to the shipping in the harbor where high explosives were handled, all workmen in the city, whether engaged on the street, in the factory, or on the piers, were specially exposed to that particular danger.

ACCIDENTS WHILE GOING TO OR FROM WORK.

Somewhat closely related to the problem of compensation for injuries in street accidents is that as to accidents happening while going to or from work. It is, I think, fairly generally held that after a workman leaves the employer's premises on quitting work or before he reaches the premises on going to work, he is not in the course of his employment, and an accident happening to him on the street during these periods could not be said to arise out of his employment.

The New York commission in one case went a step farther and rejected the claim of an office employee, who on finishing her day's work took some of her employer's letters to deposit in the post office and on the way was struck by a train. The reason stated for this decision is "that she was following the same route that she would have followed if she had been going home without undertaking to mail the letters and that she was exposed to no unusual hazard due to the employment." This sounds rather like the argument formerly given effect to in England prior to the decision of the House of Lords in *Dennis v. White* above referred to. It seems to me such a case should turn on whether or not she was in the performance of her duties. If it was her duty to go to the post office on this message, then for the time being the hazard of the street was a hazard of her employment and her duties for her employer were not ended till she deposited the letters in the post office.

A number of cases have arisen where a workman is injured going to or from work by means of a conveyance provided by the employer. The question to be determined in all such cases is, Was it an express or implied term of the contract of service that the workman was to be so carried to or from his work? It seems to be well-settled law in England that if a workman is entitled either by express or implied contract to travel in a conveyance provided by the employer he is in the course of his employment, and an accident while so traveling would be held to have arisen out of the employment even though he

is not on the employer's time till the place of actual work is reached. Both California and Massachusetts have held to this effect also in cases reported from those States.

We had one case in which we allowed the claim of a workman who was injured on the steps at the entrance to the building, part of which was occupied by the employer. We held that in renting a room or suite of rooms in a building the common entrance to the building should be considered in this connection as part of the employer's premises, and the hazard of the steps was a hazard peculiar to the employer's premises.

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts held to the same effect in a case which recently came before them, *Re Sundine*, 105 N. E. 433.

The following are a few additional cases of this class which have come before the Ontario board:

Allowed—

Where the foreman of a teaming company, when quitting work in evening at sand pit, got on one of his employer's wagons to ride into town, jumped off wagon at his street intersection, and was hurt by passing auto.

Where a workman employed by a railway at terminal yards about 4 miles outside the city was killed by train which he was about to board in the city to take him to his work. Usual custom for railway to carry men to their work at this point. Board considered case arose out of employment though workman's time did not actually start till arrival at work.

Where a man going to work in a lumber yard which adjoins railway tracks was killed by passing train as he was crossing the tracks to work. Considered he had reached the ambit of his employment.

Where a man on engineer's staff going into a lumber camp from town—pay started when he left town—broke through ice and drowned.

Where a car inspector who had evidently finished his day's work three-quarters of an hour before usual quitting time came into town as per usual custom by company's train. Evidently jumped off or jerked off near station, though no one saw accident. Body found alongside track.

Where a man employed by one of the tenants of a building entered the elevator in common use by all tenants of the building, and, instead of waiting for the operator, pulled the rope himself and was killed. Considered that the elevator was part of the premises rented and constituted one of the hazards of the business.

Where a man employed by a cartage agent was out plowing on a farm near town for a customer. On way home from work horses ran away.

Not allowed—

Where a man had been told the night before to go down to get work at an elevator in the morning. While on the way to work along railway track near the place where he was to be employed, about 9.30 or 10 a. m., he was hurt by train.

Where a man going from work in the woods instead of taking the company's bush road came out on railway track and was killed by train.

Where a railway workman on bridge work had been given a ticket home for Christmas holidays and return. On returning he jumped off the train at about the place where his work would be and was injured. This would have saved him a walk back from the station of about a mile.

Where a man working for a railway as section man, after quitting work in evening, jumped on passing freight to go down the yard to where he had hung his coat when starting work and was injured.

Where a man having met with a certain injury the day before asked leave at 11 a. m. to go two or three blocks along street to an emergency hospital to get injury dressed. This took him across railway tracks. On returning, finding a train blocking the crossing, he attempted to climb through and got foot cut off.

INJURIES DUE TO SCUFFLING, LARKING, OR HORSEPLAY.

There have been a variety of opinions expressed on this type of case both in England and on this continent.

It was held in the recent case (1916) of *Parsons v. Somerset*, 9 B. W. C. C. 532, that where a railway porter in the course of his employment met with an accident due to his getting on the foot-board of a car after the train started, not for any object of his employment but purely for his own pleasure (larking with two young ladies on the train), he was not entitled to compensation.

In another case, *Wrigley v. Nasmythe*, where a workman who went for some purpose to a fellow workman in the shop, on parting tapped his friend on the back with a rule, and received a push in return from which he was injured, it was held by the court of appeal that the accident did not arise out of the employment.

Our board in Ontario has adopted the rule in these cases that if the injured workman is an active participant in the scuffling or horseplay, he is not entitled to compensation, but if while going about his duties he is the victim of another's prank, to which he is not in the least a party, we do not deny him compensation.

I note the following cases from my records coming under this heading:

Allowed—

Where a Chinaman employed in a factory was the innocent victim of horseplay—blown up by hose.

Where a man who had been teased by another workman suddenly turned in revenge and hit an innocent party.

Where a man about to punch the time clock was hit from behind by another workman. Injured man innocent of any horseplay.

Where a man in line up for the time clock was pushed out of line by another workman, and to prevent himself from falling, as well as to save his place in the line, he grabbed the workman and his hand came in contact with a sharp knife in the latter's hand.

Not allowed—

Where, when a man splashed a little water over another workman, the latter in trying to avoid the water turned suddenly and, having hose in his hand, turned it on the man who first started the horseplay.

INJURIES ARISING OUT OF AN ACT OF GOD OR THE COUNTRY'S ENEMIES.

Under this heading about the only type of case in which the question has arisen is that due to lightning, but there have been a

few cases reported during the last two or three years in England arising out of bombardments by enemy ships or airplanes.

In regard to lightning, the State boards or courts are not by any means uniform in their decisions and it can scarcely be said that there is in this country anything like a well-settled opinion.

The Supreme Court of Michigan recently held that a railway section man, who sought shelter from a storm in an adjacent barn which was struck by lightning and who was injured, was not entitled to compensation, basing this decision on the argument that the risk was not different from the risk run by other members of the community.

The Supreme Court of Wisconsin also held that where a man working on a dam was killed by lightning, it was not a case for compensation.

The Supreme Court of Minnesota, however, took an opposite view and allowed compensation to a workman who was injured by lightning while seeking shelter under a tree at the time of a storm.

In those jurisdictions where only the first of the two conditions are required—that is, injury by accident during the course of employment, omitting “arising out of, etc.”—there can of course be no question, as an injury by lightning is certainly an accident and if this injury takes place during the period of work the condition is complete. I should scarcely have thought that it could be argued, where a man goes into a building or under a tree to seek temporary shelter from a storm, that he has therefore left the employment, yet this point did arise in the supreme courts of both New York and Minnesota, and it was held that thus temporarily seeking shelter was not leaving the employment but rather incidental to it.

The decisions in England in lightning cases turn on the question of special risk. Thus, for example, a steeple jack repairing a flag pole is considered to be specially exposed to the danger of lightning; likewise, a man working on the top of a high scaffold was considered exposed to special danger and compensation was allowed. But where a roadman engaged in his ordinary occupation on the highway was struck by lightning, it was held that there was no special exposure to the danger of lightning and compensation was refused.

It amounts practically to this in England, that in all lightning cases the claimant must prove by positive evidence that the circumstances of the employment exposed the employee to a greater risk than that run by persons not so employed, or not so employed under the same conditions.

The bombardment cases in England turn on much the same point as the lightning cases, viz, the question of special risk or special exposure due to the employment.

In this connection dicta by Lord Chancellor Finlay in the *Dennis v. White* case above cited are of interest. He says:

In the case of injury by bomb thrown from hostile aircraft, the fact that workman was engaged on work on a building brilliantly lighted so as to attract the notice of enemy crews might be most material as showing that the injury by the bomb was one which arises out of the employment.

It was actually held in one case (*Allcock v. Rogers*, W. N., December, 1917, p. 353) where a servant in a hotel whose duties were, among other things, to polish the brass name or sign plate on the outside of the building was injured by the explosion of a bomb dropped in the street a short distance away, that this did not arise out of the employment, or, in other words, that the workman was not exposed to any special risk incident to his employment.

In the famous *Hartlepool* case (*Cooper v. N. E. Ry. Co.*) the decision was similar. In that case an engineer, having left his engine to seek shelter while the bombardment was on, ventured back to open the injector in order to prevent damage to the fire box and upon returning again to shelter was injured by a bomb. It was held by the court of appeal that this injury did not arise out of his employment. As the master of the rolls expressed it:

The claimant must prove that he was exposed by the nature of his employment to some special or peculiar risk beyond that of other inhabitants of Hartlepool. The whole town was within range of the guns and there was no evidence or suggestion that they were directed at any particular spot.

INJURIES DUE TO ATTEMPTED ROBBERY, FIGHTING, ASSAULT, MURDER, OR SUICIDE.

I suppose every administering board has occasion frequently to determine cases coming under this heading, and from all the reports I have been able to read it seems quite a generally accepted principle of law in every jurisdiction that where a workman in the discharge of his duty is assaulted either by another workman or by a stranger in attempted robbery of the employer's premises, compensation should be allowed.

A border-line case, however, arose in Massachusetts and compensation was denied. In this case a night watchman was shot by mistake by officers pursuing burglars who had committed robbery in the neighborhood and were being pursued. There was no suggestion that robbery of the premises claimant was guarding was feared, and he was not fired upon because of his employment, but clearly through mistake. The court held that the injury did not arise out of the employment.

The Supreme Court of New Jersey also refused compensation in the case of a delivery man and collector who was shot by an unknown

person for an unknown cause while in the performance of his duties. There was no attempt at robbery, though claimant had money on his person, and it was held that the shooting was not in any way connected with the employment.

We had a rather unusual case in Ontario about a year ago which is also close to the border line, but our board allowed the claim. A night watchman was found dead in the morning, sitting in a chair in the office of his employer, shot through the head, apparently by his own gun. There was nothing which would warrant the conclusion that it was a case of suicide, but on the contrary it seemed probable that he had been engaged in cleaning the gun, though there was no positive evidence as to this. It was a case in which the board was obliged either to infer suicide or accidental discharge of the gun while cleaning it, and the latter inference seemed the proper one.

It is equally well settled, I think, that where the assault which results in the injury arises out of a dispute or quarrel purely personal to the workman and not associated with his employment, compensation should not be allowed.

The distinction may be thus illustrated: Where a foreman is assaulted and injured while trying to compel a discharged workman to leave the place of his former employment, I think that the claim should be allowed. This was an actual case in California. On the other hand, and this is a case from our own Province, a street car conductor in resenting what he considered a personal insult directed at him by a soldier passenger abused the soldier rather badly. The latter, upon going to his camp nearby, reported the affair to his soldier companions, whereupon a number of them returned, boarded this conductor's car as it was returning and beat him up, causing severe personal injury. We held that this was a purely personal quarrel and that the injury thus sustained did not arise out of the employment.

In another case which came before us, two workmen got into a dispute over some material or tools required in connection with their work and, words finally leading to blows, one of them was quite seriously injured. This one appeared to be the least to blame of the two, yet he did actively participate in the scrap. We held that the dispute was a purely personal one between these two men, and as the interests of the employer were in no way involved or concerned the injuries could not be said to have arisen out of the employment.

We also rejected a claim in a case where a boy was found dead at his place of work with a loop of rope around his neck, as the circumstances pointed to suicide rather than accident.

INJURIES DUE TO FROSTBITE OR HEAT STROKE.

The cases coming under this heading turn upon the same consideration as the lightning and bombardment cases above noted, viz, the question of special exposure.

In the *Warner v. Couchman* case, decided by the House of Lords in England in 1911, a baker whose duty was to drive a bread delivery cart was frostbitten in the hand. The county court judge held that there was nothing in the employment which exposed him to more than the ordinary risk of cold to which every person working in the open air was exposed on that day, and consequently the injury did not arise out of the employment. The House of Lords held that the decision of the county court judge on this question of fact was final.

Important dicta by one of the appeal court judges, however, are quoted in the House of Lords with favor as expressing the point of view with which he says judges should approach cases of this kind:

Where we deal with natural causes affecting a considerable area, such as severe weather, we are bound to consider whether the accident arose out of the employment or was merely a consequence of the severity of the weather to which persons in the locality, whether so employed or not, were equally exposed. If it is the latter, it does not arise out of the employment because the man is not specially affected by the severity of the weather by reason of his employment.

In the case of *Dennis v. White*, above referred to, which reversed the old line of decisions in regard to street accidents, Lord Chancellor Finlay, in referring to frostbite and sunstroke cases as distinguished from ordinary street accidents, says:

In such cases it is material to show that the work involves special exposure to the heat or cold. Where the risk is one shared by all men, whether in or out of the employment, in order to show that the accident arose out of the employment, it must be established that special exposure to it is involved.

In regard to heat stroke, there are two English authorities in which the principles governing these cases were fully considered—one in the House of Lords in 1908 (the *Ismay v. Williamson* case) and the other in the court of appeal in 1914 (*Maskery v. Lancashire*). These were both shipping cases. In the one a stoker was overcome with heat while trimming the fires and in the other a young man not in the best of health who had shipped as an engineer on a vessel bound for Singapore, while sailing in the southern part of the Red Sea, was overcome by heat and died.

In both cases the court held that death was due to accident arising out of the employment, and it did not affect the situation to say that the man was not robust enough to stand the tropical heat. It was sufficient to find that the work in the engine room or boiler room exposed the workman to excessive heat, which was far greater than

that to which ordinary sailors whose duty does not take them into the engine room were subjected.

We had a case of frostbite in Ontario last winter which the board allowed. A railway workman was sent out with an auxiliary crew to clear a wreck—weather 30° below zero. He was put at the job of flagging and was so engaged three or four hours, with the result that his legs and feet were very badly frozen. Under these circumstances it was considered accidental injury arising out of the employment.

ACCIDENTS OCCURRING DURING MOMENTS OF LEISURE OR WHILE DOING SOMETHING OF A PERSONAL NATURE.

Cases coming under this heading are very numerous and their decision must necessarily turn on the particular circumstances in each case. In England, as well as in all the jurisdictions on this side whose reports I have had the opportunity of reading, there is quite a latitude allowed workmen in respect to moments of leisure during the course of employment. The crew of a train, for example, waiting at a switch to make a crossing; a sailor in a river boat waiting for the tide; a machine operator waiting for material which he is dependent on another workman to bring to him; a trainman having a few hours between arrival at terminal and departure on return journey—one can easily imagine a variety of cases of this type, where the workman is clearly in the course of his employment but for the time being has no duties to perform for the employer.

To quote Milton: "They also serve who only stand and wait."

The question to be asked in every such case is, Did the workman occupy those moments of leisure reasonably, having regard to all the circumstances?

If during such an interval of waiting he meets with an accident while engaged in some occupation or amusement which is unconnected with his employment, or which adds to the risk to which he would otherwise be subject, judges in the main agree that compensation should not be allowed, but what one may reasonably do, of a personal nature and which is not in conflict with specific instructions, should not be held as taking a man outside the scope of his employment for purposes of compensation in the event of accident while so occupied.

The following decisions are noted in this connection: The New Jersey Supreme Court allowed a claim where a workman was killed while crossing railway tracks near the place of his employment to the toilet in common use by workmen in the employer's service. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts held that a compositor who went out on the roof on a hot night for fresh air and was injured by making a misstep was entitled to compensation. The California commission went so far as to hold that a cook was entitled to compensation, where

he left the kitchen to smoke for a time on the adjoining porch, and on attempting to return opened the wrong door and fell downstairs.

There is one decision, however, reported from Iowa, which I think is carrying this idea of personal liberty at the expense of the employer too far. In that case a workman was allowed compensation who undertook to light his pipe while his hands were moist with gasoline, with which he had been cleaning clothing.

We have had a variety of these personal and leisure-moment cases before our board, quite a number of them arising out of accidents occurring to workmen while remaining on the employer's premises during the luncheon hour.

I note among them the following:

Allowed—

Where a woman worker boiled water for tea on a gas jet near her work and it boiled over or was knocked over causing injury.

Where a boy, 14, working in a planing mill, being desirous of fixing up a small block of wood for his own use, took it to a saw to cut it to the desired shape and got his thumb cut off.

Where a scavenger, working for city, found two electric bulbs in garbage and out of curiosity cracked them together and lost an eye.

Where a section man, who had gone into city on his speeder to get his pay check, was found dead on the track, evidently run down by train on way home.

Where a workman being dusted off by another workman, by means of air hose, gets an internal charge and dies of peritonitis.

Where a workman paid 50 cents a week extra to engage in fire drill for the employers' voluntary fire department was injured while so drilling.

Where a boy employed on a vessel having some leisure time while the vessel is tied up at a certain wharf, in chasing a rat which appears on the wharf, trips into the water and is drowned.

Where a laborer engaged in certain building work went into the shop or tool house to take shelter from a storm, and while there undertook to sharpen a fellow workman's chisel. When done, went to turn off switch, and was electrocuted.

Where a man on quitting work went to boiler for a pail of water with which to wash, slipped, and scalded himself.

Where a man in a mill having a moment of leisure went to another part of the plant to pay a small board bill to a fellow workman [and was injured].

Not allowed—

Where a man, seeing an adjoining machine idle and being curious to know how it works, attempted to operate it and got his thumb cut off.

Where a workman sleeping at noon hour on employer's premises, took a fit and rolled against a hot steam pipe.

Where a boy went out of his way to grind his jack knife on a machine where he had no business to be and was injured.

Where a man working on repairs on a ship, whose living quarters were on the ship, left his boat in the evening to spend the evening visiting his brother on another vessel alongside, owned by the same company, and was injured while leaving this other vessel late at night.

Where a workman taking a bath on employer's premises (a cordite factory) fell against hot pipes. It was alleged that it was necessary to take a bath every day in this work to keep in condition. Considered personal business.

Where a workman brought a bottle of ginger ale as part of his lunch and in opening it the stopper flew up and hit him in the eye.

Where a young man, after eating his lunch on the premises, climbed out on the roof of the building and, finding himself slipping, grabbed a wire within his reach. This sagged with his weight, and then he grabbed another, thus creating a circuit, and he was electrocuted.

CAMP ACCIDENTS.

Owing to the extensive lumbering and mining operations carried on in our Province, we are frequently called upon to deal with claims coming under this heading.

I refer especially to such as may happen to a workman after working hours. It is well understood, of course, that in most of these operations the men spend the whole of the twenty-four hours on what may be termed the employer's premises.

Practically the same principle is involved in this type of case as in the noon-hour accident cases above noted.

We allowed the claim of one man in a river driving camp who after supper went to his tent; while lying on his blanket on the floor reading, another workman came in and accidentally stepped on claimant's hand, inflicting a wound which became septic, with quite serious results. We considered that the accident, properly speaking, arose out of the employment.

We allowed another claim where a workman in walking from the dining camp to the sleeping camp slipped on the ice and broke his leg; also another claim where a workman slipped on the steps of the cook house where large building operations were going on for an aviation camp.

In a border-line case, the claim was allowed where a workman was hired to go to work on a boat next morning. He actually came on board that night and slept on the boat, but was badly hurt next morning before his duties actually began.

On the other hand, where a workman was injured by slipping on an icy path leading from the works to his own house, which was on employer's premises, claim was disallowed.

It follows, of course, that workmen injured on the employer's roads leading from the woods to the camp are considered in the course of their employment and in a few cases claims have been allowed for accidental injuries under such circumstances.

The California Commission allowed a claim where a workman was injured by falling from a log on the road while coming with others into camp from the woods, but the decision seems to have been put on the ground in that case that these men were allowed time to return to camp from their place of work.

HERNIA AS A FACTOR IN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AWARDS.

BY C. F. STODDARD.

Of all the problems connected with the administration of workmen's compensation laws perhaps none is more perplexing than that presented by hernia. Because of the peculiar character of hernia, which usually develops gradually, and because its presence may not be known to the workman himself or his employer until some unusual strain makes it evident, the difficulty encountered by accident boards and commissions in handling such claims with justice to the worker and fairness to the employer is greatly increased.

The granting of an award for hernia is determined solely upon the merits of the individual case, and depends upon whether the hernia is the result of a diseased condition or whether it is held to be an accidental injury following a strain or overexertion demanded by the employment. Some State laws require the employee to show that the hernia did not exist prior to the injury for which compensation is claimed. To provide a definite basis for speedy and just determination of claims some compensation boards and commissions, including the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, have prescribed certain rules indicating the character of the evidence required to establish a claim for hernia. These rules are intended to serve merely as a guide and are not necessarily inflexible in application.

STATUTORY PROVISIONS.

In some jurisdictions¹ the compensation laws contain specific provisions as to hernia, and consequently the question of awards presents comparatively little difficulty. The Colorado law,² which is probably more restrictive in its application than any other, requires the claimant suffering from hernia to establish (1) that the hernia is of recent origin; (2) that its appearance was accompanied by pain, (3) that it was immediately preceded by some accidental strain suffered in the course of employment; and (4) that it did not exist prior to the date of the alleged injury. The Montana³ and New Mexico⁴ laws in this respect are identical with the Colorado law.

Substantially the same requirements are set out in the law of Kentucky:⁵

In all claims for hernia resulting from injury received in the course of and resulting from the employee's employment, it must be definitely proved to the satisfaction of the board: First, that there was an injury resulting in hernia; second, that the

¹ Colorado, Kentucky, Montana, New Mexico, Oregon, and West Virginia.

² Acts of 1915, ch. 179, sec. 52.

³ Acts of 1915, ch. 96, sec. 16.

⁴ Laws of New Mexico, 1917, ch. 83, p. 226.

⁵ Acts of 1916, ch. 33, sec. 4a.

hernia appeared suddenly and immediately followed the injury; fourth,¹ that the hernia did not exist in any degree prior to the injury for which compensation is claimed.

The only element appearing in the West Virginia law,² not found in the Kentucky law above quoted, is the requirement of proof that the hernia was accompanied by pain as provided in the Colorado, Montana, and New Mexico laws.

In Oregon³ a workman, in order to be entitled to compensation for hernia, must prove—

(1) That the hernia did not exist prior to the date of the alleged accident, and (2) that it was immediately preceded by an accident arising out of and in the course of employment.

All of the States enumerated make provision in respect of operative treatment. The Kentucky law makes it obligatory upon the employer to provide competent surgical treatment by radical operation, but an employee may refuse to submit to such operation. If he consents to the operation he shall receive, in addition to the surgical benefits provided by law, compensation for 25 weeks. The West Virginia statute provides that "all hernia * * * shall be treated in a surgical manner by radical operation," but the right of the employee to refuse to submit to an operation is recognized, compensation being denied during the period of refusal. The Oregon law eliminates the idea of compulsion in this connection, contenting itself with stating that "workmen * * * when operated upon, shall be entitled to receive * * * payment for temporary disability for a period of 42 weeks." The Colorado, Montana, and New Mexico laws provide that if the right to compensation is established the employee may elect to be operated upon, and if he does, a special fee of not to exceed \$50 to be paid by the employer, the insurer, or the board, or commission, is authorized. If, however, the workmen elects not to be operated upon and the hernia becomes strangulated in the future, the results from such strangulation will not be compensated.

These specific provisions are of material assistance to the boards and commissions administering the compensation act in the States noted, for they make it possible to proceed with a considerable degree of assurance in determining awards, and they establish an element of definiteness as to rights under the law which is reassuring to the workman who has developed hernia.

RULES GOVERNING AWARDS FOR HERNIA.

Many of the States, however, as will be noted, make no statutory provision to serve as a guide in handling cases of hernia. This

¹ This is copied from the law. The third requirement was eliminated and this number was not changed.

² Acts of 1913, ch. 10, sec. 25.

³ General Laws of Oregon, 1917, ch. 288, sec. 10, subsec. (d).

situation has caused a number of the States, including California, Nevada, Ohio, Oklahoma, and Washington, and the United States Employees' Compensation Commission, to prescribe rules outlining the evidence required to establish a claim for compensation on account of alleged hernia. Other States have no definite rule, but treat each case upon its merits, as for instance, Massachusetts and New York.

The rules adopted, as already suggested, serve merely as a basis for action by the commissions and are applied not without flexibility, the extent of which is determined by the particular case at issue. While impracticable to give the rules, even if they were available, adopted by the compensation commissions of those States which have a more or less definite course of procedure, the following, promulgated by the commissions of California, Ohio, Nevada, Oklahoma, Washington, and the Federal Government, are suggestive and sufficiently comprehensive to cover practically all cases of hernia which develop in industrial activity:

*California.*¹ 1. The issue of predisposition to hernia is regarded as unimportant.

2. Any hernia, whether complete or incomplete, resulting from strain or wrench or other industrial injury, is compensable.

3. A chronic hernia, if injured or aggravated by injury, is not ordinarily compensable.

4. An incomplete hernia, that is merely incipient, subsequently completed through an independent injury, will ordinarily be compensable.

5. In hernia cases it is not necessary that the evidence must show an immediate collapse or disability on the part of the injured person. There should, however, be proof of pain or discomfort accompanying the alleged injury sufficient at least to cause pause and complaint, with corroboration, if possible.

6. A moderate permanent disability indemnity will be allowed for hernia in those cases where operation for the radical cure of the same is for any reason not advisable and the commission will be disposed to approve any reasonable compromise and settlement between the parties in such cases.

7. In all cases of hernia in which the commission shall find the injury remediable by operation, the applicant will be awarded such operation as a part of the medical, surgical and hospital treatment to which he is entitled to cure and relieve him from the effects of the injury. The expenses thereof must be paid by his employer or insurance carrier. If the operation is not offered to the applicant, he may secure it, charging the reasonable expense thereof to the employer or insurance carrier. In all such cases the applicant will be denied further compensation if he refuses to accept or secure operative relief.

*Ohio.*² Rule 1. Real traumatic hernia, namely, that produced by a force great enough, that when directly applied to the abdominal (or belly) wall, results in either puncturing or tearing the wall asunder, full disability as approved by the statute will be allowed.

Rule 2. All other hernias whenever occurring or discovered, and whatsoever the cause, except as under Rule 1, are considered to be diseases causing incapacitating

¹ Reported decisions of the Industrial Accident Commission of California, Vol. III, Bul. 4, May-June 10, 1916. Third cover page.

² Bulletin of the Industrial Commission of Ohio, October 1, 1914, vol. 1, No. 5, p. 49.

conditions, or permanent partial disability, but the permanent partial disability and the causes of such are considered to be as shown by medical facts, to have either existed from birth, to have been years in formation and duration, or both; and are not compensable except as provided under Rule 3.

Rule 3. All cases coming under Rule 2 in which it can be conclusively proven, first, that the immediate cause which calls attention to the hernia present was such as a sudden effort, severe strain or bruise. Second: That the descent of the hernia occurred immediately following the cause. Third: That the cause was accompanied or immediately followed by severe pain in the hernial region. Fourth: That the above facts were of such severity that the same were noticed and communicated immediately to one or more persons; are considered to be aggravations of previous ailments or diseases and will be compensated as such for time loss only and to a limited extent, depending on the nature of the proof submitted and the result of the local medical examination. A reasonable amount will also be allowed for a properly fitted truss.

Cases coming under Rule 2 will not be considered to be entitled to compensation from the State insurance fund for amounts to pay for permanent partial disabilities or for special medical services rendered, such as surgical operations, and hospital attention.

The rules adopted by the Nevada Industrial Commission, as set forth in its report covering the period July 1, 1913, to December 31, 1914 (p. 17), are substantially the same as those of the Ohio industrial commission. The Nevada commission, however, in Rule 1 provides that "such an injury will be compensated as a temporary total disability and as a partial permanent disability, depending upon the lessening of the injured individual's earning capacity," and in Rule 3 the Nevada commission uses the words "severe strain or blow received while in the course of employment," and makes no mention of an allowance for a "properly fitted truss." The final paragraph of the Ohio rules is omitted in the Nevada rules, but a rule is added stating that the preceding rules are adopted "as general tentative rules covering hernia cases and are subject to revision, change, amplification, or alteration with or without notice. The commission will not be bound by precedent."

*Oklahoma.*¹—We are following a rule that has generally been accepted by the industrial accident boards and commissions of the United States, which is that proof must show (1) the hernia is of recent origin; (2) it must have been accompanied by pain; (3) it must have been immediately preceded by some accidental strain in the course of hazardous employment; and (4) there must be conclusive proof that it did not exist prior to the date of the alleged injury. Upon such a showing the commission allows compensation unless the insurance carrier or the employer will agree to pay for the cost of an operation. They have always readily agreed to do this and we allow, in addition, four weeks' compensation. By following this practice the injured employee is restored to his former efficiency. All operations so far performed have been successful.

*Washington.*²— * * * The industrial insurance department hereby formulates and establishes the following rules governing compensation of claimants who have suffered hernia as a result of an accident during their employment:

¹ First annual report of the State industrial commission, Sept. 1, 1915, to Oct. 31, 1916, p. 9.

² Workmen's compensation act of the State of Washington, Ch. 74, Session Laws of 1911, as amended sessions 1913, 1915, with notes. Issued by the industrial insurance commission, Olympia, 1915, p. 6.

* Rule 1. (a) There must be an accident resulting in hernia. (b) It must appear suddenly, (c) be accompanied by pain, (d) immediately follow an accident. (e) There must be proof that the hernia did not exist prior to the accident.

Rule 2. All hernias, inguinal or femoral, which are shown to come under Rule 1, while the workman is engaged in his usual occupation and in the course of his employment, shall be treated in a surgical manner by radical operation. If death results from such operation, the death claim shall be paid and considered as a result of the accident.

On these cases, time loss only shall be paid, unless it is shown by special examination that they have a permanent partial disability resulting after the operation. If so, it will be estimated and paid. Time lost between the date of accident and the date of operation will not be allowed if longer than five days.

Rule 3. The hernia claimant whose case comes under rules 1 and 2, who persists in wearing a truss instead of being operated, puts himself in the same position as the man with the fractured leg who refuses surgical attention. The commission may order him before a competent anesthetist to determine if he can safely take an anesthetic. If so, he must be operated to receive his time loss during the recovery from operation. If, however, it is shown that he has some chronic disease that renders it unsafe for him to take an anesthetic, his disability will be estimated as a permanent partial disability and claim settled as such.

*United States Employees' Compensation Commission.*¹—1. Predisposition to hernia shall be regarded as immaterial.

2. Any new hernia, whether complete or incomplete, resulting from an injury, if causing incapacity for work, is compensable, or if not causing incapacity for work, shall entitle the injured employee to operation and compensation during the resulting incapacity, but the evidence must show with reasonable clearness that:

(a) The alleged hernia was immediately preceded by some sudden effort, severe strain, or the application of external force.

(b) The injury was accompanied or immediately followed by pain and discomfort.

(c) The claimant had no knowledge of the existence of the hernia prior to the alleged injury.

3. Any existing hernia which has not incapacitated for work, if materially aggravated as result of an injury, is compensable if causing incapacity for work, or if not causing incapacity for work, shall entitle the injured employee to operation and compensation during the resulting incapacity, but the evidence must show with reasonable clearness that:

(a) The alleged hernia was immediately preceded by some sudden effort, severe strain, or the application of external force.

(b) The injury was accompanied or immediately followed by pain and discomfort.

(c) There was a material aggravation of the condition of the hernia existing prior to the alleged injury.

4. In all cases of hernia which the commission shall find remediable by operation, the claimant shall be awarded such operation as a proper and necessary part of medical, surgical, and hospital treatment. If he refuses either to accept or to secure operative treatment, he shall be denied further compensation and treatment, unless there are particular circumstances warranting the waiving of this rule.

According to a statement made by the secretary of the Massachusetts Industrial Accident Board to this bureau, no definite rules or standards for the awarding of compensation in cases of hernia have been laid down. Each case is considered on its individual

¹ It is announced that these rules are intended to serve as a guide and can not be considered as binding in all hernia cases. The rules were adopted Feb. 7, 1918.

merits when the insurance company refuses to pay benefits. The general principle adopted is this: If it can be shown reasonably that the occupation of the employee probably aggravated his condition or directly brought on a new condition, then compensation shall be paid during such time as the employee is undergoing a process of readjustment. In cases of dispute, reliance is placed upon reports of impartial physicians.

The New York Industrial Commission, in its annual report for the year ending June 30, 1917 (pages 128, 129) states that—

The commission has adopted the theory supported by the most learned of the medical profession that ordinary hernias are congenital in their origin, and that the injuries for which compensation is claimed are but increased manifestations of pre-existing conditions caused by strains, by lifting or other similar slight causes, albeit they may reveal to the claimants for the first time that they have hernias. The practice of the commission has been to pay compensation after the first two weeks until the claimant is able to be operated upon and six weeks more, beginning when the claimant enters the hospital, for the operation for single hernias, and ten to twelve weeks more for double hernias. Since the amendment providing for compensation for the first two weeks for disabilities lasting longer than 49 days, the commission has added two weeks to the compensable period. In addition to these cash benefits, the employers or insurance carriers have been required to pay the cost of operation including hospital charges, an average of \$50 to \$100.

DECISIONS BY COURTS AND COMMISSIONS.

In decisions rendered by courts and commissions considerable weight has been attached to the point whether hernia is a disease or an accidental injury. Upon this determination may rest the payment or nonpayment of compensation. Many, if not most, of the decisions seem to be based on a purely legal view of the matter—the fact of an existing traumatism resulting from an unusual strain in the course of employment—rather than on a possible medical or scientific aspect involving existence of a diseased condition as the ultimate cause of the hernia. Some decisions incline to the medico-legal side of the controversy, granting compensation on the basis of accidental injury, although the evidence may have established that the parts were weakened by disease. Physicians appear to agree that real traumatic hernia is rarely met with, and that most of the so-called ruptures attributed to accidents during employment are not the result of such employment but coincident with it.

The Industrial Accident Board of Michigan has quite fully discussed the subject, taking the position that hernia is the result of accident. In approving the award of a committee having under consideration a case of hernia, the board said: ¹

We do not overlook the medical evidence introduced on the hearing to the effect that hernia should be classed as an accident only in a few rare cases. We think the weight of authority in workmen's compensation cases is clearly against such theory

¹ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bul. 203, p. 197.

and that the general rule established in the adjudicated cases and the textbooks is otherwise.

That this is the conclusion of the supreme court of the State appears from its decision in a case¹ in which an award of the board was affirmed, even though there was evidence that there had been structural weakness prior to the event to which the injury was traced; the court saying that this would not "preclude a recovery if the injury itself is distinct and the result of a particular strain causing a sudden protrusion of the intestine." This case was decided largely on the authority of an earlier case² in which the view that hernia is a disease was discussed. It was said by the court that it would be assumed from the evidence that the strain to which the condition of the claimant was traced was the occasion of the first protrusion of the sac through the abdominal wall, and if it was also assumed that there was a certain lack of physical integrity of the parts, still compensation might be allowed for the injury, and that not on the basis of disease but of accidental injury.

In a Michigan case³ where the claimant had suffered a hernia while replacing a derailed mine car, the court decided that the hernia was the result of extraordinary exertion and therefore should be classed as an accident within the meaning of the act. The court said:

That before the workman is entitled to compensation in case of hernia, it must be shown to have the essentials of an accidental injury, and it must arise out of the work as from strain or some other occurrence. Hernia occurring without any strain and without the elements that are necessary to constitute an accident would not come within the meaning of the law.

Taking the same position, the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, in dismissing a case before it, said:⁴

This is another case where a man who suddenly discovers that he has hernia concludes that it must have resulted from some fall or strain, and immediately recalls to his mind some recent incident which not only seems to him to constitute a sufficient cause, but which he honestly brings himself to believe did cause it. At best, such an incident constitutes nothing more than a mere possible cause. Except such incident was particularly violent or was followed immediately by severe pain, it can not, with any degree of certainty, be said to be a probable cause. In this case, a hernia on each side, an insignificant accident or strain given as the cause does not argue much.

Similar was the position of the Massachusetts board in a case in which the claimant testified to injury by heavy lifting, the impartial physician testifying: "The hernia could have been caused by his work. But every hernia is related to and is caused by strain, and if the board authorizes compensation for this hernia, it must require

¹ *Bell v. Hayes-Ionia Co.*, 158 N. W., 179.

² *Robbins v. Oriental Gas Engine Co.*, 157 N. W., 437.

³ *Archibald Scott v. What Cheer Coal Co.*, cited in *Workmen's Compensation Cases Determined by the Industrial Accident Board and the Supreme Court*, Lansing, 1916, p. 1.

⁴ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bul. 203, p. 197.

some employer hereafter to pay for every hernia that arises in any employee. Hernia, to be caused by some specific accident, can only follow a physical effort of tremendous and unusual violence." The finding of the board was adverse to the claimant.¹

A case of hernia rejected by the Washington commission came to the supreme court of the State where the claim was allowed,² the court holding the injury complained of to be the result of a "fortuitous event" within the meaning of the law, saying that "to hold with the commission that if a machine breaks, any resulting injury is within the act, but if a man breaks, any resulting injury is not within the act, is too refined to come within the policy of the act as announced by the legislature. * * * It must admit that the tearing of the muscles or the rupture of the fibers, or whatever it is that causes hernia, while exercising unusual effort, is likewise covered by the act."³

It is apparent that the matter of "tearing of the muscles or the rupture of the fibers" was vaguely assumed by the court as the explanation of the condition made the ground for a claim; while a compensation commissioner of the State of Connecticut, in an extensive memorandum quotes medical authorities in accord with the statements of the Ohio commission, one of them saying that "Local trauma, which has long been accorded by the laity an important place in the etiology of hernia, practically very rarely is the cause." The commissioner, however, awarded compensation in a limited form to the claimant in the case in hand, requiring him to submit within four weeks to proper surgical treatment.⁴

The Supreme Court of West Virginia takes the view of the Washington Supreme Court, and also of the Michigan board, and specifically rejects the position of the Washington commission, reversing also the public-service commission of its own State, allowing a claim attributed to heavy lifting and holding hernia to be an accident within the meaning of the law of the State.⁵ The Minnesota Department of Labor and Industries took a similar position, offering as a typical decision and award the case of *Rakovich v. Agnew Bros.* (St. Louis County, Nov. 9, 1915), decided by a county court, in which a rupture was held compensable as an accidental injury under the act, with an award also for medical and hospital expenses covering the costs of an operation.

In another case,⁶ where a workman who was slightly ruptured when he began employment had to subject himself to unusual but

¹ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bul. 203, p. 197.

² U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bul. 203, p. 196.

³ *Zappala v. Industrial Insurance Commission*, 144 Pac., 54.

⁴ Connecticut Workmen's Compensation Commission digest, Jan. 1, 1914, to May 31, 1916, pp. 145-154.

⁵ *Poccardi v. Public Service Commission*, 84 S. E., 242

⁶ *Fulford v. Northfleet Coal & Ballast Co.* (1907), 1 B. W. C. C., 222, cited in the report of the operation of the Nebraska workmen's compensation law for the year ending Nov. 30, 1915, pp. 119, 120.

not unique strain, resulting in increasing the rupture and incapacitating him for his regular employment, the court inclined to the position that hernia is the result of an accident, declaring in ruling in the case at bar that though from a purely medical or surgical view the injury could not be said to be an untoward or unexpected event, it was nevertheless an accident within the meaning of the act.

In Illinois allowance was made for temporary total disability due to hernia where the condition was held to be one of aggravation of a state that had existed for some time, the employer offering the testimony of physicians that the injury could not have been the result of an accident.¹

That the New York State Industrial Commission is not inclined to refuse an award in cases where it is established that hernia is the result of a diseased condition, if the evidence seems to show the right to an award, is indicated by its decision in a claim for compensation where the claimant's husband had died from pneumonia developing after an operation for hernia which was alleged to have been brought on by his work at "treeing" shoes. One of the commissioners in ruling on this case said:²

From the evidence in the case it must be found that Mr. Coons either had an incipient hernia prior to January, 1910 (date of his alleged injury), or at least had such congenital defect that he was easily subject to this sort of injury, but I think the fact of his having a final strain sufficient to cause him intense pain must be held to have caused the intestine to protrude through the abdominal ring. I do not see, therefore, that the case is particularly different from other cases decided by the commission in which a man predisposed to disease or even suffering from it, is perhaps in ignorance of the disease or at all events finds his disease not disabling until an accident accelerates it and causes disability. I, therefore, advise that an award be made.

This opinion accords with the announced policy of the commission as noted on page 232.

In another case,³ however, where death occurred as the result of an operation for indirect inguinal hernia "which could have been caused by an accident sustained during the course of his employment," the board recognized the possibility of traumatic hernia. The evidence showed that no hernia was discovered by the physician who had examined the injured man four days previous to the alleged accident and an award was made on the ground that death resulted from accidental injury. The appellate division of the Court

¹ *Jim Mike v. Sullivan-Daly Construction Co.*, Industrial Board of Illinois, Bul. No. 1. Opinions in cases arising under the workmen's compensation act, decided by the Industrial Board of Illinois from the date of its organization, July 1, 1913, to July 1, 1915, pp. 31, 32. Also MONTHLY REVIEW of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics for February, 1916, p. 58.

² *Lottie Coons v. Endicott, Johnson & Co.*, cited in Bulletin of the New York State Industrial Commission, vol. 2, No. 10, July, 1917, p. 203. The award was affirmed by the appellate division of the Court of Appeals.

³ *Fleming v. Gair Co.*, 176 App. Div. 23, Dec. 28, 1916; cited in court decisions on workmen's compensation laws, August, 1916, to May, 1918, Part I, p. 241.

of Appeals affirmed the award, stating: "An accident seems to be the only suggestion which tends to account for the hernia."

Practically the opposite view to that expressed in the Coons case was taken by the Industrial Accident Commission of California, which announced in its reports of decisions for the year 1915 (vol. 2, p. 221), that "where there is a conflict of testimony as to whether a hernia as shown to have been sustained by an employee was in fact an old condition or recently caused by accident, and the testimony of the applicant shows sufficient pain and disability at the time of the accident to ordinarily establish an accidental hernia, but the physician operating for the cure testifies that the operative findings showed the hernia to be an old one, preference will be given to the testimony of the operating physician, and no compensation will be allowed. The policy of the commission in nearly all cases is to accept as conclusive the findings of the operating surgeon, if definite."

In a Kentucky case¹ the workmen's compensation board, in awarding compensation for 26 weeks to a workman claiming hernia as the result of an injury, appears to have taken the position that real traumatic hernia is a possibility. In its memorandum on the case in question the board says:

From the testimony of plaintiff and McKune, it is well established that the accident and injury occurred. From their testimony, the nature of the accident, the subsequent symptoms, the testimony of Drs. Farmer and Hancock, it is well established that the injury resulted in hernia. The board therefore finds that plaintiff in proving his case has met the requirements of section 4a, which are as follows, to wit: First, That there was an injury resulting in hernia; second, that the hernia appeared suddenly and immediately followed the injury; third, that the hernia did not exist in any degree prior to the injury for which compensation is claimed.

A point of distinction made by some commissions in considering an award for hernia is whether or not the claimant, immediately upon feeling the pain following a strain, notified another person of his condition. The award by the New York State Industrial Commission, noted on page 235, was made on the ground that the evidence showed that the deceased had immediately spoken of his injury to a fellow worker, that he was suffering pain and that he ceased work and later told his wife of his injury and pain.

Another case² before the New York State Industrial Commission involved an award on the ground that, according to the evidence, the injured man did not notify another person of his injury or give evidence of pain by an outcry of any kind. The Wisconsin Industrial Commission took the same position in a case³ where the evi-

¹ O. H. Griffin v. George H. Rommel Co. Workmen's Compensation Board, Commonwealth of Kentucky. Report of leading decisions, Aug. 1, 1916, to Nov. 1, 1917, p. 85.

² Maria Bellafaire v. Roman Bronze Works. Bulletin of the New York State Industrial Commission, vol. 2, No. 10, July, 1917, p. 213.

³ Louis Dahl v. Wisconsin Construction Co., cited in Sixth Annual Report, Wisconsin Industrial Commission, July 1, 1916 to June 30, 1917, pp. 57, 58.

dence showed that the injured man did not speak of any pain at the time of his injury and did not cease work.

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF HERNIA IN COMPENSATION AWARDS.

A careful examination of all recent available State reports on the operation of workmen's compensation laws was made in an effort to determine, if possible, the relative importance of hernia as a disabling injury when measured by time loss, and also to ascertain the proportionate number of cases of hernia as compared with all non-fatal injuries extending beyond two weeks. The result of this search was unsatisfactory. Some of the States having workmen's compensation laws do not make separate classification of cases of hernia. In other States the number of cases of hernia may be noted, but no record is given as to the time loss or compensation paid. The following table represents the only data that could be found:

RELATIVE IMPORTANCE OF HERNIA IN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION CASES IN SPECIFIED STATES.

State.	Year ending—	Accidents causing disability extending beyond two weeks.			
		Number.	Hernia cases reported.		
			Number.	Per cent of total.	Average days lost per case.
California.....	Dec. 31, 1916.....	18,003	752	4.18	29.5
Illinois.....	do.....	1 8,061	220	2.73
Maryland.....	Oct. 31, 1917.....	2 4,974	274	5.51
Minnesota.....	June 30, 1916.....	3 4,963	129	2.59	74.9
Montana.....	June 30, 1917 ⁴	5 14,684	51	.35
Nevada.....	June 30, 1916 ⁵	7 1,776	41	2.31
Oregon.....	June 30, 1915.....	8 1,227	11	.90	41.6
Washington.....	Sept. 30, 1917.....	9 11,368	160	1.41	58.0
West Virginia.....	June 30, 1914.....	10 10,787	33	.31	39.0
Wisconsin.....	1917 ⁶	26,451	486	1.83	41.0

¹ Represents the number of reported accidents on which final compensation was paid. If the number of disabilities extending beyond the first week, which is the waiting period in Illinois, is counted the figure would be 11,769 giving a percentage of 1.57.

² Claims for compensation, not including fatal cases.

³ Closed cases only. Based on the total number of nonfatal accidents subject to the act (12,778) the percentage of hernia cases is approximately 1.

⁴ Two years ending this date.

⁵ All accidents reported. The report does not show in how many of these cases the disability extended beyond two weeks.

⁶ Three years ending this date.

⁷ The waiting period was two weeks until Mar. 22, 1915, when it was reduced to 1 week.

⁸ Accidents reported and definitely passed upon and for which compensation was paid. No waiting period. All accidents under the Oregon act are compensable.

⁹ The waiting period was increased from 1½ days to 1 week on July 1, 1917.

¹⁰ All accidents reported. The report does not show in how many of these cases the disability extend beyond 1 week, which is the waiting period in West Virginia.

The number of hernia accidents in a given State should vary roughly with the industrial population under the compensation act. It will be noted that there is a great relative divergence in the several States. For example, the number of hernia cases in Illinois was 220; in California, 752. And yet the industrial population of Illinois

is approximately twice that of California. This disparity may be explained in two ways, either of which is sufficient in itself. In California all employers are required to report accidents¹ to the industrial accident commission, while in Illinois only such employers as are subject to the compensation act are required to report accidents to the industrial board. Again, greater accuracy or completeness in reporting may account for the relatively large number of hernia cases in California. Also, the Illinois report states that the returns for the year indicated were received from only 5,670 employers, which is "only about 20 per cent of the number of employers who have filed with this board certificates of insurance." For the reasons given the data for the various States are not comparable and it is not the purpose of the table to show the relative importance of hernia in one State as compared with another. What the table does show is the importance of hernia in relation to the total number of serious accidents in each State, and it suggests the desirability of the States adopting more generally the practice of requiring the reporting of all hernia cases and the amount of time lost on account of this disablement.

The table reveals a wide divergence as between States in the average number of days lost in each case of hernia—varying from 29.5 days in California to 74.9 days in Minnesota. In view of the absence of definite information concerning the history of the cases cited, from which information certain reasons for the variation in time loss might be deduced, it is perhaps idle to attempt an explanation of the matter. We do not know, for example, whether the workman in a particular instance was allowed a period of days in which to decide upon the matter of submitting to an operation, thus prolonging the period of disability, or whether, upon the first indication of a diseased condition, revealed either by physical examination or by unusual strain in the course of employment, the workman was required by the employer to submit at once to an operation in order to shorten as much as possible the duration of disablement. Furthermore, it does not appear whether the workman, upon being confined to a hospital for treatment, was held, or of his own volition remained, there longer than absolutely necessary to effect a cure. It is perhaps safe to assume that because of avoidable delay somewhere in the course of treatment many cases of hernia are prolonged for a greater period than is really required by the nature of the injury.

Dr. James Burry, chief surgeon of the Illinois Steel Co., Chicago, in an address before the fifth annual congress of the National Safety

¹ This also applies to Maryland, Montana, Nevada, Washington, and West Virginia. In Wisconsin only employers having four or more employees are required to report accidents, while the Minnesota law has no provision for accident reporting.

Council, at Detroit, in October, 1916, stated that in his experience, based on 1,000 operated cases, "our average in returning these cases to manual labor is three weeks."¹ He also called attention to the fact that Bassini, the great Italian specialist whose method of operation is followed by most surgeons, made it a rule to dismiss his patients from the hospital in eight days. The average duration of disability on account of hernia, as given by Dr. Burry, namely, 21 days, is an interesting contrast with the figures given in the table and suggests the introduction, as respects the cases there cited, of the element of malingering on the part of the injured workman, or of lack of attention by the employer to the physical condition of his workers in order to discover existing hernia and require prompt surgical treatment to effect a cure.

MEDICAL EXAMINATION OF APPLICANTS FOR WORK.

Of considerable importance to employers and employees in States having workmen's compensation laws is the policy of medical examination of applicants for work to determine whether hernia is liable to develop and to enable an employer either to reject such applicant or to give him work that will not require heavy lifting or unusual strain of any kind. Especially is this true, perhaps, in those States where the body administering the compensation law has shown an inclination to grant awards in cases where the evidence has disclosed that the claimant had a congenital hernia. It is maintained by employers that if such medical examination discloses the presence of a diseased condition which might develop into hernia, it does not necessarily preclude employment. It merely offers the employer an opportunity to reject the applicant, if thought advisable, or to require the prospective employee to fortify himself as completely as possible against injury by the wearing of a properly fitted truss, or to give him work which, notwithstanding his condition, he is physically able to perform. Moreover, they hold that it acquaints the applicant with his true physical condition so that he may have the trouble removed by operation, or, if this is not immediately advisable, so that he may conserve his efforts while at his daily work in order to avoid unusual strain which might result in an aggravated condition. The periodical examination of employees is thought by many to be advisable as a protection to the worker as well as to the employer. It is probably safe to assume, from the data which follow, that practically all applicants with hernia revealed by medical examination are rejected by employers, or at least are required to submit to operation before employment begins. In fact, some companies announce that they make it a practice to reject applicants whose parts are so weak-

¹ Proceedings of the National Safety Council, Fifth Annual Safety Congress, Detroit, Oct. 17, 18, 19, and 20, 1916, p. 714.

ened as to render them liable to hernia or those having more than a certain degree hernia. Such are the Norton Co. and the Norton Grinding Co. (Worcester, Mass.). The record of their experience shows that from May, 1911, to May, 1916, following the examination of 2,618 applicants, 100 were rejected, of which 32 per cent were denied employment on account of hernia.¹ The last 1,000 consecutive cases examined in a group of 1,379 prospective employees revealed 50 cases (5 per cent) of hernia. In five years' experience the physical examination of employees in these factories, employing about 2,800 workers, brought out among others the following fact:

The average workman does not object to physical examination, and the majority of them are pleased to have such an examination made on account of the information it gives them, and because it throws them in intimate contact with the doctor to whom they are going to apply afterwards in case of sickness or accident.

The report including the results of physical examination of wage earners in Ohio in 1914² issued by the Industrial Commission, shows a similar condition. Of 23,118 applicants for work examined in 25 establishments keeping records of causes of rejection, 1,040 were rejected because of physical incapacity, and of this number 230 were found to have inguinal hernia, 30 had hernia with complications, and 7 had relaxed rings—a total of 267, or 25.7 per cent. Of 8,054 employees examined in six establishments keeping records of such examinations, 791 were reported unfitted for the work in which engaged at the time of the examination. Of this number, 218 were found to have inguinal hernia, 46 hernia with complications, and 8 relaxed rings—a total of 372, or 34.4 per cent.

LACK OF UNIFORMITY IN COMPENSATION LEGISLATION.

BY LINDLEY D. CLARK.

INTRODUCTION.

The road to the present position of the compensation system is marked by wreckage and débris, and the end is not yet in sight. The wreckage is due in part to the inability of the courts to accept the new principle of protection against occupation risk in lieu of the old theory of individual liability for negligence, and in part to the blunders of legislation in a new field; while the débris may be charged to the laying aside of inadequate provisions or the recasting of entire laws, in the effort to remedy tentative enactments or to advance

¹ Reported in a paper entitled "Medical supervision of factory employees," read before the section on preventive medicine and public health at the 67th annual session of the American Medical Association at Detroit, in June, 1916. See MONTHLY REVIEW, March, 1917, p. 442.

² "Physical examination of wage earners in Ohio in 1914" in Bulletin of the Industrial Commission of Ohio, Oct. 7, 1915, p. 12. Columbus.

beyond the standards adopted by poorly informed or reluctant legislatures.

Doubtless the idea of a guaranteed relief without suits at law or proof of negligence was imported from across the Atlantic; but it was apparently not agreeable to legislators on this side of the water to accept forms along with ideas, so that the first enactments in the field were not only not based on any pattern derived from experience but were likewise drawn up without the study and investigation that have preceded the real establishment of the compensation system in this country; for although legislative committees were appointed to investigate the subject as early as 1903 (Massachusetts), 1905 (Illinois), and 1907 (Connecticut and Massachusetts), none of these States was the pioneer in legislation, nor indeed were any of these committees directly influential in securing the enactment of a law.

The credit for initiating in this country legislation providing for accident relief without a suit belongs to Maryland, with its acts of 1902, providing systems of cooperative insurance for designated groups of employees. The Federal Congress (1908) and another State (Montana, 1909) enacted compensation laws before the true period of investigation commissions, of which three were appointed in 1909, eight in 1910, and twelve in 1911. Of all these statutes it is not too much to say that they were inadequate in scope, benefits, and system, and afforded sufficient proof, if any was needed, of the necessity for careful preliminary study of the subject as a condition precedent to the enactment of laws, the sporadic efforts of individuals and insufficiently informed groups being evidently incapable of meeting the requirements of the situation.¹ However, without detracting from the importance and value of the work done by the commissions created to make investigations and to draft bills for laws, it cannot be overlooked that there is still manifest a disposition to disregard precedent and to establish local and divergent standards.

Local conditions are stressed and influential industrial groups are favored without legal or economic justification,² and that the commissions were encouraged rather than discouraged in such diversifications appears from the wording of the resolution adopted by the Legislature of Virginia as late as 1916, authorizing a commission to

¹ For a fuller account of the matters here noted reference may be had to Bulletin 203, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

² A striking illustration of this influence appears in the original compensation law of Texas, excluding laborers "working for a cotton gin" (included in 1917), and in that of Maine in its exclusion of one of its greatest and most hazardous industries—"cutting, hauling, rafting or driving logs." The same exception appears in the employers' liability law of the State, enacted in 1909; and when the constitutionality of that act was contested on the ground of an improper classification, the Supreme Court of the State sustained the law saying that the appliances and power used in logging are well known and their dangers are obvious, many of its features being familiar to employees before engaging in the employment. It was therefore held proper to distinguish it from manufacturing employments. (*Dirken v. Great Northern Paper Co.* (1913) 86 Atl. 320.) The practically universal exclusion of farm labor is a direct reflex of the relative political and economic influence of the parties in interest.

recommend "such legislation as having regard to the peculiar conditions of Virginia will do justice to both employers and employees." Stock insurance companies have combatted with varying degrees of success the movement to establish State insurance funds of exclusive operation; while the relative strength of employers' and employees' associations is reflected in laws of greater or less liberality.

Viewing the country as a whole, it appears that of the 48 States, 38 have accepted the principle of compensation as a substitute for the rule of liability for negligence; so that the most glaring lack of uniformity is that shown by the 10 States¹ which still hold to what must be regarded as an inadequate and obsolete system. That the disadvantage resulting from this lack is not merely a local matter of no general concern is evidenced from the effect that it has had in the handling of the problem of accident relief in the undertakings of contractors in the various States of this group doing war work for the Government. Various suggestions, such as contract provisions, voluntary relief, insurance covering a wider field than that of the present employers' liability, etc., have been considered, but the matter is obviously one in which the State should act, whether or not the special and temporary needs can be otherwise met.

As to existing laws the fundamental differences may be said to consist in types of laws and methods of administration. Opinions may differ as to the degree of importance attaching to the matters of elective versus compulsory compensation, optional versus required insurance, and commission versus court administration; but certainly these three factors are of prime importance, while with them must be taken the essential and basic matters of the amount of compensation and the scope of the acts. Other points entitled to consideration are the question of an exclusive State system as against private or mixed insurance, and a great variety of more or less important factors, as medical attendance, waiting time, details of procedure, provisions for lump-sum settlement, attitude toward nonresident alien beneficiaries, etc.

Assuming that local industrial conditions afford grounds for certain variations of detail, and possibly in matters of major importance, i. e., as where a certain western State insisted that its industrial development was not sufficiently advanced to warrant the creation of an administrative commission, there still remains the inquiry: Is there not an actual superiority attaching to one principle or method that warrants its general adoption to the exclusion of alternatives? Are not the unity and solidarity of interests of industry, both from the standpoint of the employer and from that of the employee, so extensive and real as to overrun State boundaries

¹ Alabama, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, North Dakota, South Carolina, and Tennessee.

and demand a practical uniformity in the conditions of production and employment? Has the test of adequacy of amounts and modes of relief been sufficiently considered and applied in the various jurisdictions?

Without carrying the investigation into the details developed in the bulletins of the bureau that have made practically complete presentations of current conditions,¹ some of the more important divergencies in type and practices are here summarized, with the hope that such presentation may give a new impetus to efforts—not yet sufficiently definite or insistent—for greater adequacy and uniformity in at least the fundamental provisions of the compensation system.

COMPULSION OR ELECTION.

The accompanying map shows the extent of existing legislation and the nature of the laws, i. e., elective or compulsory, and whether or not insurance is required; also the States having a State insurance fund, and its type. Of the 38 States having compensation laws, 11 are classified as compulsory and 27 as elective. Of the former group, all but one require insurance, while of the latter all but three make such requirement. It may be noted that all the six States enacting compensation laws in 1917-18 incorporated this principle of safeguarding the payments due the injured worker. Fifteen States maintain State insurance systems, the Virginia statute also mentioning such a system, but making no provision therefor; of these, nine are in open competition with other systems of insurance, while four are absolutely and two others practically exclusive.

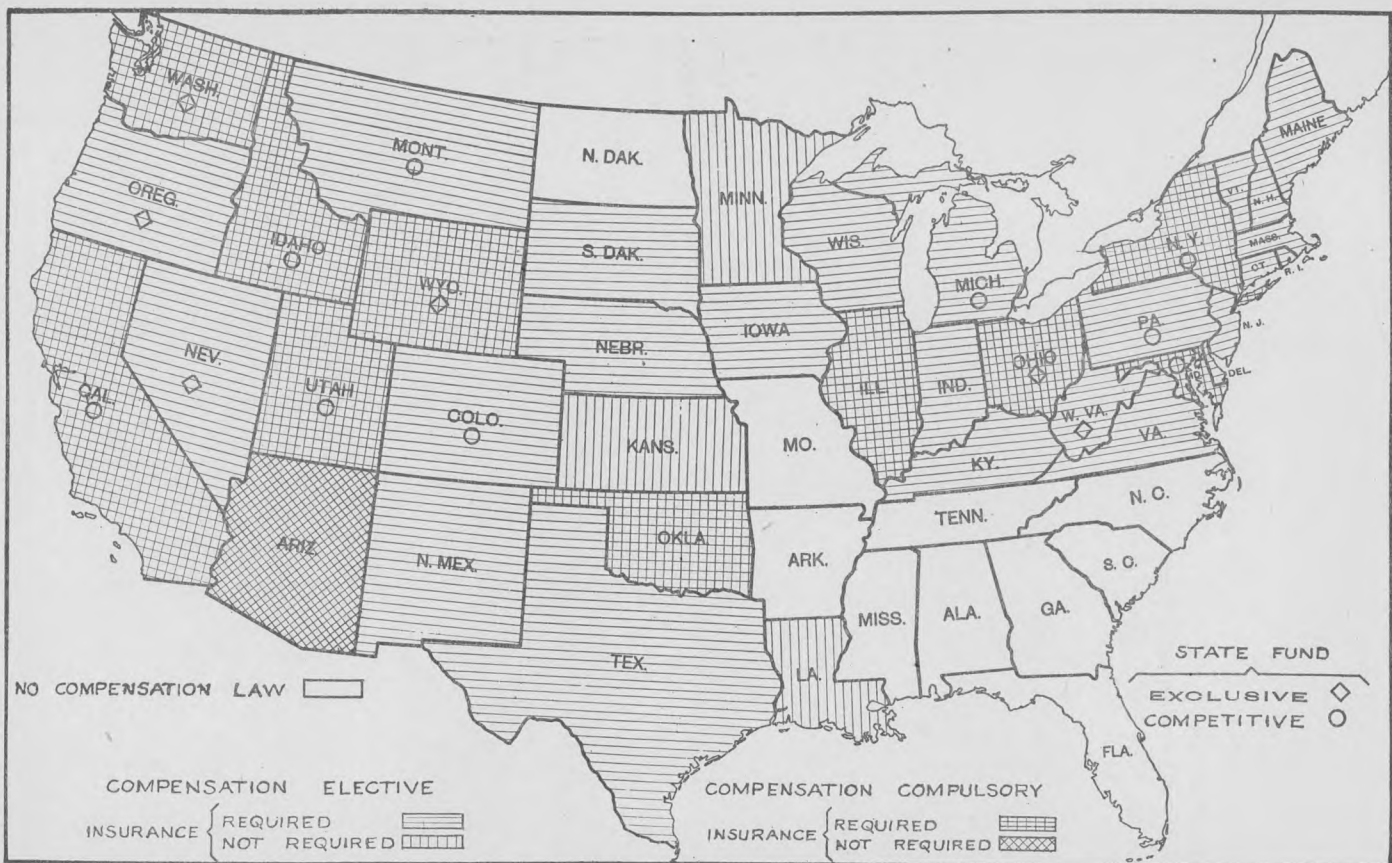
Where the elective system exists, the law is in a number of instances compulsory in its application to public employees; this on the ground, no doubt, of the power of the State to determine the conditions on which it will conduct its transactions, the same as any other party to a contract. The constitutional objection to a compulsory statute of general application, which is sometimes offered as a bar to the enactment of such laws, has been met in several States² by the adoption of an amendment to the constitution authorizing the legislature to enact a compulsory law. Not all these States have compulsory laws, while on the other hand a number of States have such laws without the amendment. In the absence of such authorization the courts of last resort of New York³ and Kentucky⁴ held the laws of their respective States unconstitutional as depriving persons of their rights without due process of law. The supreme courts of the State

¹ No. 126 (to end of 1913), No. 203 (to end of 1916), No. 240 (to end of 1917), and No. 243 (to July, 1918).

² Arizona, California, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Vermont, and Wyoming.

³ *Ives v. South Buffalo R. Co.* (1911), 201 N. Y. 271, 94 N. E. 431.

⁴ *Kentucky State Journal Co. v. Workmen's Compensation Board* (1914), 170 S. W. 1166. The act was not in form compulsory, but contained a provision making employees subject to the act where the employer accepted, which was held to violate the constitutional rights of the employee.



and the United States, however, without such an amendment, upheld the compulsory statute of Washington,¹ against contentions that it violated the "due process of law" and "equal protection" clauses of the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution and correlative provisions of the State constitution. The United States Supreme Court stated that it had just upheld the power of the Legislature of the State of New York to substitute for the doctrine of liability for damages one of obligation to provide a definite scale of compensation for loss of earning power, irrespective of the question of negligence.² And while the law of Washington goes beyond that of New York in its compulsory State insurance system, the Supreme Court found in this no violation of the provisions of the fourteenth amendment. The Supreme Court of Washington, as noted above, had already sustained the compulsory law of that State without the aid of any special constitutional provision, directly rejecting the doctrines of the New York court in this regard. The affirmance of this position by the Supreme Court of the United States, together with its decision sustaining the New York law on grounds not requiring reference to the State constitution (which had, of course, been finally adjudicated by the State courts), leads to the conclusion that the hesitation to enact a compulsory law for fear of coming into conflict with constitutional principles has been without actual warrant. Since "no person has a vested interest in any rule of law, entitling him to insist that it shall remain unchanged for his benefit" (White case), the crucial question to be met is whether the act "clearly appears to be not a fair and reasonable exertion of governmental power, but so extravagant and arbitrary as to constitute an abuse of power" (Mountain Timber Co. v. Washington). Failing such showing, the law will stand as a proper exercise of the police power of the State, in the absence of specific and peculiar inhibitory provisions of the State constitution.

As to the desirability of a compulsory law there can hardly be a question. The condemnation of the liability system is all but universal; and the unreasonableness of formulating a system of superior merit, clearly in the public interest, and leaving its acceptance or rejection to the whim or supposed self-interest of individuals, would seem to be self-evident were it not that this condition is found to exist in such a large number of States. While of the six laws of latest enactment but two are compulsory, it is of interest to note that the important industrial State of Illinois, after five years of experience under an elective system, in 1917 amended its act so as to make it

¹ *State v. Clausen* (1911), 65 Wash. 165, 117 Pac. 1101; *Mountain Timber Co. v. Washington* (1917), 243 U. S. 219, 37 Sup. 260. Other compulsory statutes that have been upheld by the State courts of last resort without a constitutional amendment are those of Maryland and Oklahoma.

² *New York C. R. Co. v. White* (1917), 243 U. S. 188, 37 Sup. 247.

compulsory, the States of California and Ohio having taken similar action in 1913, after two years under elective laws; also a commission was appointed in Oregon in 1917 to study the question of making the compensation law of that State compulsory; and while the number of States having compulsory laws is still less than one-half the number having elective systems, this must be regarded as a defect to be cured by the adoption of the present minority idea rather than by any surrender to the existing majority; for it is no more desirable that uniformity be gained by retrogression in this matter than that the first two or three years of legislation should have been rescinded because a majority of the States were still outside the compensation fold.

INSURANCE.

As already indicated, by far the larger number of laws require some form of insurance to guarantee the payment of awards. The propriety, not to say necessity, of such a provision is apparently conceded, since but four ¹ of the existing laws omit such a requirement, four States ² having amended their laws on this point in 1917. However, the divergencies as to method would seem to represent every possible variation, partly due no doubt to the difficulties inherent in formulating a new system, partly to the representations of the casualty companies already in the field as writers of employers' liability insurance, and partly to the difficulty in deciding upon the preferred method.³

In 15 States ⁴ a State fund to carry insurance under the act is provided for, such fund being made exclusive in four jurisdictions,⁵ while in two others ⁶ the result is practically the same. Besides these, Kentucky and Texas have copied a provision of the law of Massachusetts in arranging for the establishment of an employees' insurance association as a quasi-official State organization on a mutual basis; but though the original intention of the proponents of the plan in Massachusetts was to give this institution full control of insurance under the act, it was amended before final passage so as to allow stock companies to compete; which is the state of affairs in Kentucky and Texas also. The Louisiana Legislature at its recent session provided for the appointment of a committee to investigate

¹Arizona, Kansas, Louisiana, and Minnesota.

²California, Illinois, Nebraska, and New Jersey.

³Thus the Michigan statute provides for four systems: Insurance in stock companies, in mutual associations, in a State fund, and self-insurance, the commission drafting the law announcing its purpose thus to enable "the State to determine as the result of actual experience which of these methods is in fact best adapted to the needs of the employers and employees in this State." A commission provided for in 1917 is charged with the duty of reviewing the operations of the act during its (now) six years of existence, and recommending such amendments as their investigations seem to warrant. Of course, it can not be surmised whether or not they will announce a conclusion on this subject.

⁴The law of one other State (Virginia) mentions a State fund, but makes no provision for its creation.

⁵Nevada, Oregon, Washington, and Wyoming.

⁶Ohio and West Virginia.

and report on the subject of a state system of insurance for employees under the compensation act; the subject is also receiving special attention at the hands of persons interested in prospective legislation for the State of Missouri.

Despite the vigorous, not to say bitter, controversy on the subject of the State fund, the fact seems incontrovertible that such funds are effectively administered in a number of States, that they have received the high commendation of approval and adoption after thorough investigation by Canadian commissions, that they effect important savings in the way of premiums, and that the entire administrative system is simplified and reinforced by placing this essential factor of the scheme of compensation exclusively in the hands of the administrative commission. No State having once adopted such a system has abandoned it, and from the point of view of the carrying out of a public policy to establish a compensation system, it would seem hardly less logical to permit the collection and disbursement of public taxes by a private agency than to remit the duty of collecting and disbursing compensation benefits to such agencies. It is noteworthy also that in a majority of the States in which private insurance is permitted there is a measure of State control relating to the subject of premium rates, provisions of policies, and other details.

ADMINISTRATION.

Of the 38 States of the Union having compensation laws but eight¹ leave their administration to the courts. Five out of the six new laws of 1917-18 provide for commissions, while one of the oldest laws (that of New Jersey) was supplemented in 1918 by the creation of a workmen's compensation bureau, charged with the determination of awards and the power to review all agreements between employers and employees. This enactment is the outcome of investigations showing the unsatisfactory results following upon an unsupervised operation of the law under a system of court administration, extending over a period of approximately seven years. That the difference between a scheme on paper and a working system depends on administration was sufficiently demonstrated in the earlier days of factory legislation in which rules were devised but no inspectors provided for their enforcement; and the great and growing preponderance of commissions as against court administration gives ground for hope that the benefits of a commission administered compensation law soon may be provided in all jurisdictions.

SCOPE.

While the statement that more than three-fourths of the States of the Union have compensation laws would naturally carry the infer-

¹ Arizona, Kansas, Louisiana, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Mexico, Rhode Island, and Wyoming.

ence that the workers of that many States are given the protection of such laws, this is far from the truth. Under the elective system any number of employers or employees may reject and nullify the act entirely in so far as it provides compensation. Many of the laws carry with them modifications of the liability of the employer, and this feature can not be waived. There is thus a more stringent liability statute, but compensation principles do not apply. While accurate data are lacking, it appears that in some instances the actual coverage under the elective plan runs as low as 25 per cent, or even less, of the workers of the State potentially covered, so that it seems almost a misnomer to speak of such jurisdictions as having a compensation law.

Direct exclusions and exemptions, either actual or potential, also give rise to considerable reductions in the scope of the acts. Thus to classify certain industries as hazardous, as is done in 13 States, excluding those not so defined or classified, is to discriminate against workers in the excluded classes on grounds that are hard to defend. Indeed, the most important industrial State of the Union, after annual attempts to rectify indefensible situations that were presented to its legislature, practically abandoned the classification by declaring all employments hazardous in which four or more workmen or operatives are regularly employed, and which are not otherwise covered by the act.¹

This form of limitation, in effect, brings this State into the group, 17 in number, already basing their laws on this principle of fellow service as a hazard, the assumption being that fewness of numbers reduces hazards, while their increase multiplies them; though in some States the limitations of hazard and of numbers exist side by side. The transformation of fellow service from a defense of the employer to a ground for his obligation to provide for compensation is a distinct advance; but the infrequency of the injury does not mitigate its consequences any more in the case of the employee of a small employer than that of a worker in a so-called nonhazardous industry. Vermont and Virginia carry this exclusion so far as to make their laws apply only where there are as many as 11 workers, other minimums being, 3, 4, 5, and 6.

The foregoing limitations would of themselves exclude the majority of agricultural and domestic workers, but specific exclusions apply to them in practically every State. The casual worker is likewise an outlaw in most jurisdictions, and is a frequent cause of dispute before the commissions and in the courts, while several States put workers for employers and institutions not seeking gain or profit likewise outside the act. In every such case it is obvious that the

¹ New York: Chapter 634, Acts of 1918.

interests of the employee are utterly disregarded, as well as those of the community as a whole, which must ultimately afford the injured worker some sort of relief in the extreme need that may result from such defect in the compensation system. Admitting recognized difficulties in the way of administration, the needs of the worker of each class remain, and the casual employee, the domestic servant, and the agricultural laborer furnish an additional argument for the establishment of a simple, exclusive, and complete system of State insurance with local conveniences made easily available for the purchase of just such insurance as each condition requires. But whatever be the solution, it can not yet be said that the system of compensation is in effect when it is possible to estimate that the exclusions contained in the laws eliminate almost one-third of all employees in the compensation States, regardless of the question of election.¹

AMOUNT OF BENEFITS.

Perhaps the first question raised in the beginning of the movement for compensation was as to the benefits to the worker and the cost to the employer. Based mainly on percentages of wages, the amounts vary from 50 to 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of such wages, the minimum being found in 22 States and the maximum in but 4. Other percentages used are 55, 60, and 65. Some tendency to increase benefits has been manifested, both by way of enlarging the percentage basis and of raising the weekly maximum which most laws establish. This maximum ranges from \$8 in Colorado to \$20.83 in California, 5 having a limit of \$15, 2 of \$14, etc. The amount most commonly adopted is \$10, found in 13 States. Making allowance for some differences in cost of living, it still remains true that the differences in degrees of adequacy found in the laws are excessive. The burden of industrial injuries, supposed to be lifted from the shoulders of the less able partner in industry, rests too heavily upon the worker when he contributes by his own self-denial and that of his family one-half the cost, besides the entire suffering and inconvenience. Limitations that bar awards adequate for current needs are economically indefensible.²

This point is particularly emphasized by the rapid advance in the cost of living in the past few years. Though this has been in large measure accompanied by increases in the wage rate, the relative compensation benefits derivable from this latter fact are restricted where there is an absolute limitation on the weekly amounts payable, so that a workman who by the percentage basis would be entitled to

¹ Bulletin 240, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, pp. 26-34.

² Interesting data on adequacy may be found in Bul. 217 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Effect of Workmen's Compensation Laws in Diminishing the Necessity of Industrial Employment of Women and Children.*

compensation in an amount as high as \$30 or \$40 per week is limited to \$10 or \$15. This is so far below his current income as a workman as to cause great dissatisfaction; furthermore, money is so greatly reduced in purchase power as to emphasize more sharply still the hardship of the arbitrary measure established with the apparent idea that economic conditions were fixed beyond the possibility of a change from what they were at the time that the law was passed. Another complaint comes from the employer whose premiums are a percentage of the wages paid, and who finds his payments increased according to the increase in his pay roll, but sees also the returns to his injured workmen scaled by the fixed maximum, now entirely out of relation to trade and labor conditions, the difference remaining in the hands of the insurance companies.¹

What is true of rates and weekly maximums applies as well to a third limitation—the period of payments. While 18 States continue payments for total disability throughout its term, others limit them to fixed periods, usually 400 or 500 weeks. But 5 States continue death benefits for the lifetime of the widow, others paying for periods varying in length from 260 to 500 weeks. Finally, an absolute limitation is set in about one-half of the States, an amount being named which may not be exceeded in any event. This ranges in case of disability from \$3,000 to \$5,000, and in case of death from \$2,500 to \$5,000. States which pay disability benefits during the life of the disabled workman may of course exceed these amounts; and the same is true when death benefits are paid until the death or remarriage of a dependent widow or widower, and to children until the age of 18 is reached. A higher maximum than any fixed by law may be reached also in a few cases where only weekly maximums and total periods of payment are fixed; as in Kansas, \$15 per week for total disability, for not over 400 weeks, permitting a payment of \$6,000. Under the law of Louisiana (\$16 for 400 weeks) \$6,400 is the possible maximum.

On the other hand, several States which fix weekly amounts and periods establish a maximum total that does not coordinate with the two factors; as in Indiana, where the maximum for disability is \$13.20 per week for 500 weeks, but a limit of \$5,000 is set instead of the \$6,600 which would result from the factors; for death, \$12 weekly for 300 weeks, with the same limit instead of the \$3,600 which could actually be paid out; Massachusetts, for disability, \$14 for 500 weeks, with a limit of \$4,000 instead of the \$7,000 obtained by multiplication; for death, \$10 for 500 weeks, with the same limit, again reducing the potential benefits. Earlier laws of the two States fixed the maximum amounts recoverable by employees in suits for

¹ An investigation into the question of a proper adjustment of premiums is now being made by the National Reference Committee on Workmen's Insurance.

damages at \$10,000 and \$5,000, respectively. Granting the propriety of lower maximums for automatic and certain benefits than for possible recoveries in damages, largely reduced in practice by court costs and attorneys' fees, the question of discrepancy between the products of the factors and the fixed totals is not answered; and whatever the merits or demerits of fixing the weekly maximum at a rate that would exhaust the total allowance before the expiration of the period fixed, no justification appears for naming a total allowance greater than the amount that could be paid out at the weekly rate and within the period fixed, that presenting too much the aspect of making a promise of liberality, and then setting a bar to its fulfillment.

Whether death benefits are for limited terms or are payable during the lifetime of the widow, they usually terminate on her remarriage. In a few cases a lump sum is given, perhaps as an encouragement to matrimony, and to the relief of the funds, as one-half the unpaid balance (Colorado and Minnesota), two years' benefits (Nevada and New York), 10 months' (Oregon), etc. In this provision there is a degree of absolute right recognized, which goes so far in some States as to provide for the devolution or redistribution of benefits in case of the death or other event terminating compensation payments to the recipients named in the award; in other cases the payments cease, no vested right therein being recognized. Here are diametrically opposed positions, one view being that surviving dependents are entitled to such consideration as would have been theirs if the intervening claimant had not been in existence at the time of the injury, the other being that a settlement based on contemporary equities should not be altered. One position finds its expression in the statement of the Supreme Court of Massachusetts¹ that it is no part of the compensation system to provide an estate for beneficiaries dying before they have received the stipulated compensation; while the Supreme Court of Ohio,² taking the position that "the right to be compensated for an injury has no element of charity or bounty in it," declares for a full payment of the allotted award as a vested right, it being "equally immaterial whether the dependent subsequently dies or becomes independent."

The points above noted are not of equal value, nor is there equal desirability of uniformity as regards them all; but it seems not too much to hope that with actual experience under the various provisions of the different laws and the testing out of their adaptation and sufficiency, a better adjustment can be arrived at and given general approval. A counterpart of the early investigative commissions that preceded the enactment of the existing legislation is to

¹ In *re* Murphy (1916), 113 N. E. 283.

² *State ex rel. Munding v. Industrial Commission* (1915), 111 N. E. 299.

be found in commissions appointed in 1917 in two States¹ to study the working of their laws and recommend changes found desirable. If the range of the investigation could be enlarged to the extent of comparing the laws of these States with those elsewhere in operation, it seems at least possible that added benefits might flow from the activities of such commissions, leading in time to the narrowing of the differences between the laws. Thus far, however, it must be confessed that there appears to be more of a tendency to uphold and commend State peculiarities than to seek to remove them in an effort toward standardization. Perhaps it is too soon to look for an end of experimentation, but it is suggested that both administrative commissions and such special bodies as are provided for temporarily in Michigan and Oregon can serve the general welfare by encouraging amendments tending to establish fair and equal benefits in all jurisdictions.

SUMMARY.

Ten States and the District of Columbia still provide only the uncertain and discredited remedy of an action at law for damages in case of industrial accidents. The same is true as to provisions for employees in interstate commerce, for whom Congress must legislate.

Of the 38 States of the Union having compensation laws, but 11 have statutes of binding effect, acceptance in the other jurisdictions being optional, subject of course to persuasive provisions of more drastic liabilities if compensation is rejected, but not amounting to a fixed obligation.

Constitutional objections to compulsory laws, sustained in one or two States, have been overruled by the highest authorities elsewhere, and notably by the Supreme Court of the United States, and the enactment of such laws is apparently within the police power of the States generally.

Insurance of the employee's benefits is required in all but four States, but there is the greatest possible diversity as to the form and method of such insurance. State funds exist in 15 States, but private competition is allowed in all but five or six.

The laws of eight States are left to the courts for administration, though the importance of an administrative board or commission seems to be generally recognized.

Options under election and absolute or practically absolute exclusions debar large groups of workers from the benefits of compensation laws, varying widely as to numbers under the different laws, but in every instance rendering the law just so far inadequate as a form of public benefit, perpetuating inequalities and continuing the hardships of the liability system.

¹ Michigan and Oregon.

Very considerable differences in amounts of benefits persist in the different States, some showing marked inadequacy and the need of a determination of proper amounts according to a standard capable of general adoption.

The question as to whether the right to compensation benefits is vested and absolute within the boundaries fixed by the statutes, or whether it is subject to defeat by the happening of subsequent events, receives conflicting answers in different jurisdictions.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAW OF WYOMING HELD CONSTITUTIONAL.

A workman injured in a mine in Wyoming sought to secure damages in an action at law notwithstanding the defendant company's contention that its obligations were fixed by the compensation law of the State. The employee raised questions of constitutionality in the lower court, and from an adverse ruling carried the case to the supreme court of the State, but with the same result.¹ Oddly enough, as it would seem to a layman, the attorney for the plaintiff offered as a brief in behalf of his client's contentions the brief in the case, *Mountain Timber Co. v. State of Washington*, 243 U. S. 227, 37 Sup. Ct. 260, in which the constitutionality of the Washington statute was contested, the supreme court deciding in favor of the law and therefore rejecting the very points presented against the Wyoming statute. The Wyoming court did not, as it might, satisfy itself by a mere reference to the supreme court decision, but went over the objections point by point, answering them, however, by quotations from the opinion of the supreme court. These were that the law did not observe the requirements of the preservation of a republican form of government, did not maintain the right of trial by jury, and did not meet the provisions of the fourteenth amendment as to due process of law. Apt citations from the opinion of the supreme court were made, the judge in the present case adding that:

The right to pass workmen's compensation acts, even without the aid of constitutional amendments, is generally upheld under the police power of the State, and thereunder to regulate any industry that in its operation affects any considerable number of the people of the State or that is a matter of public concern as distinguished from mere private interest.

Other contentions as to the unreasonableness of classification and the taking of the property of careful employers to maintain an insurance fund to compensate the workmen of careless employers were met by upholding the power of the legislature to make such classifications as appeared in the law; while as to the taking of the property of the careful employer, it was pointed out that the law makes provision for merit ratings, giving each employer the benefit of his own conduct in

¹ *Zancanelli v. Central Coal & Coke Co.*, 173 Pac. 981.

this regard. As to the contention that the awards provided are unduly small, the court pointed out that it is not intended to give compensation as damages, but more in the nature of accident insurance, and that it is in accord with the spirit of the act to give certain benefits, even if smaller, rather than an uncertain recovery, a large part of which would probably be expended in the effort to procure it.

Attention was called to the fact that the law was enacted only after an amendment to the State constitution authorizing it had been adopted "after an active and strenuous campaign by and on behalf of the workmen of the State and their organizations," and that the act was the result of the concurrent efforts of employers and workmen, so the question of its adequacy or policy had been passed upon by those most directly concerned. Every objection to the law was therefore overruled, and the plaintiff was held not entitled to sue for damages, all such suits being in terms abolished by the act.

REPORTS OF WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION COMMISSIONS.

MICHIGAN.

The statistical report of the Michigan Industrial Accident Board for the year 1916¹ states that during 1916 the percentage of increase over 1915 in the number of employers and employees accepting the provisions of the workmen's compensation law and in the number of accidents reported to the board was greater than that in the preceding year. The increase in the number of employers coming under the provisions of the act was 3,568, in the number of employees 234,471, and in the number of accidents reported 6,721. It shows also that of the 46,502 accidents reported in 1916 27,439 were noncompensable; that is, cases where the disability did not exceed two weeks and for which the employer was liable for medical and hospital expenses only.

The work handled by the board in 1915 and 1916 is shown in detail in the following table:

EMPLOYERS, EMPLOYEES, ACCIDENTS REPORTED, ETC., UNDER MICHIGAN WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION LAW, FOR THE YEARS 1915 AND 1916.

Item.	1915	1916
Number of employers under act by election ²	15, 106	18, 674
Number of employees under act by election ²	505, 025	739, 496
Accidents reported.....	39, 781	46, 502
Fatal.....	332	389
Causing permanent partial disability.....	972	1, 713
Causing temporary total disability.....	12, 188	16, 961
Total number of compensable.....	13, 492	19, 063
Completed cases.....	11, 881	15, 745
Agreements executed and approved.....	12, 539	17, 563
Compensation paid in current and completed cases.....	\$1, 213, 103. 32	\$1, 723, 617. 73
Compensation paid in completed cases only.....	\$907, 424. 14	\$1, 131, 675. 85
Medical and hospital service ²	\$148, 615. 20	\$189, 456. 12

¹Michigan Industrial Accident Board. Statistical report for the year 1916. Lansing, 1917. 27 pp.

²Municipalities, counties, etc., are subject to law without election.

³The medical and hospital expense paid by employers under State accident fund is not reported.

WEST VIRGINIA.

The report of the commissioner of compensation of the State of West Virginia covers the fourth year of the operation of the law.¹ Besides the financial report of the State insurance fund, there are certain recommendations of amendments, and reproductions of rulings, briefs of attorneys, and decisions of the supreme court of appeals of the State on various features of the compensation law. Significant among the recommendations for amendments are those urging the placing of the entire cost of compensation on the industry through the employer instead of partly on the employee as at present; that the limit for medical and surgical treatment be advanced from \$300 (of which \$150 is to be used only for secondary treatment in exceptional cases) to \$450, in order to allow extended treatment in case of need, the desirability of such allowance being shown by experience, to enable the commissioner "to relieve and make useful citizens of employees who would otherwise be possible cripples for life and placed upon the pension rolls of the department." Provision for the purchase of artificial appliances is also recommended. Death sometimes results from an injury after the limitation fixed by the act (26 weeks), and an extension of this limit to one year is recommended. Other suggestions of change are made, but special attention is called by the commissioner to his proposal to repeal the amendment of 1915 that gave the employer the right to carry his own risk and to protect himself by insurance in a private company, contributing, however, to the expense fund of the State insurance system. The commissioner urges the reestablishment of the State fund as the exclusive method of providing insurance.

Summarizing the operations of the fund for the year, the report states that during the year ending June 30, 1917, 2,644 employers, with about 175,000 employees, full-time basis, paid into this fund the sum of \$1,762,237.60 in premiums on total wages of \$125,220,219.52, the average premium rate having been \$1.41 per hundred dollars of wages. There were reported 22,632 personal injuries, of which 469 were fatal, 15 permanent total, 372 permanent partial, and 21,776 temporary disabilities. The awards, present value basis, aggregated \$1,319,143.84, being \$1.05 per hundred dollars of wages and 75 per cent of the premium income. These were distributed as follows: Medical expense, \$117,170.29; funeral expense, \$22,948.50, temporary disabilities, \$246,552; permanent partial injuries, \$225,473.05; permanent total injuries, \$39,200; beneficiaries in fatal injuries, \$667,800.

The net administrative expense, after deducting payments into the fund of \$5,777.30 by 25 employers, with nearly 11,000 employees,

¹ West Virginia. Annual report of the State Compensation Commissioner, June 30, 1917. Charleston, 1918. 239 pp.

who carried their own risk, was \$74,955.11, or 4.25 per cent of the premium income. The 25 employers who carried their own risk reported 759 personal injuries, of which 19 were fatal, 1 permanent total, 11 permanent partial, and 728 temporary disabilities. The awards in these cases, present value basis, were \$40,881.46, being for medical expense \$1,742.50, funeral expense \$547.42, temporary disabilities \$8,708.05, permanent partial injuries \$6,809.55, permanent total injuries \$8,233.89, and beneficiaries in fatal injuries \$14,840.05.

During the four years ending June 30, 1917, pensions were awarded in permanent and fatal injuries to 3,807 persons, of which 676 have been paid in full or retired from the pension roll by death, marriage, or suspension of benefits, leaving at the close of the year 3,131 pensioners.

The report calls attention to the fact that for the first time in its history the fund is able to show "a surplus over liabilities, in addition to the catastrophe reserve provided for in the amendments to the act, 1915, the surplus being \$149,907.91, the reserve for catastrophes \$164,676.10, and reserve for losses \$2,324,589.75, and a reserve for future administrative expense of \$25,123.31." Attention should be called to the fact that severe catastrophe losses were incurred during the first and second years of the life of the fund, affecting Class A-1 (coal mining), a deficit of \$601,149.68 in this fund at the beginning of the fiscal year being reduced to \$361,383.77 during the year. The average premium rate paid by employers during the year was \$1.96 per \$100 of wages, the losses for the year being at the rate of \$1.41 per \$100 of wages, or 72 per cent of the premium income. A system of merit rating was in force, and rates ranged from one dollar to four dollars, according to the experience of the employer, for the 12 months ended March 31, 1916.

The average cost of administration for the four years covered by the summary shows the cost to have been 5.05 per cent of the earned premium and 5.33 per cent of the losses.

The average loss ratio for the four years was \$1.17 per \$100 of wages in all establishments insured in the State fund, distributed as follows: For medical expenses, 9 cents; funeral, 3 cents; temporary disability, 22 cents; permanent partial disability, 13 cents; permanent total disability, 4 cents; fatal injuries, 66 cents.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

MOVEMENT FOR A PAN AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR.¹

A movement for a better understanding and closer cooperation among organized labor bodies of the countries of America has been under way for some time. In November, 1916, at the convention of the American Federation of Labor, held in Baltimore, resolutions were passed authorizing the establishment of the Pan American Federation of Labor Conference Committee to further a conference of "bona fide labor representatives from all Pan American countries," with a view to establishing a Pan American Federation of Labor. The committee, as appointed, consisted of representatives of the American Federation of Labor and of organized labor of Yucatan, Cuba, Porto Rico, and Chile.

In May, 1918, the American Federation of Labor sent to Mexico a commission of three members to interest Mexican organized labor in a proposed labor conference at Laredo, Tex., between representatives of the organized labor movement of Mexico and representatives of the American Federation of Labor. The commission consisted of John Lord, president of the mining department of the American Federation of Labor; Santiago Iglesias, president of the Free Federation of Labor of Porto Rico; and John Murray, member of the International Typographical Union, and secretary of the Pan American Federation of Labor Conference Committee. This commission was appointed for the following purposes:

1. To bring about a better understanding between the workers of Mexico and of the United States.
2. To bring about a more reciprocal and cooperative course between the working people of the United States and Mexico.
3. To lay the basis for the mutual acceptance of the union cards of the bona fide unions of both countries, subject to the approval of the particular unions involved.
4. To help secure the economic, political, and social improvement of the conditions of the workers of both countries through—
 - (a) Economic action.
 - (b) Sympathetic and cooperative legislation.
 - (c) Sympathetic and cooperative administration.
5. To establish the permanency of the Pan American Federation of Labor between the workers of Mexico and of the United States and help secure the extension of the Pan American Federation of Labor to the labor movements of all the Latin American countries.
6. To endeavor to have a representative labor man or two to visit the convention of the American Federation of Labor, St. Paul, Minn., beginning June 10, 1918.

¹ Information for this article was compiled from numbers of the Pan American Labor Press (San Antonio, Tex.) of Aug. 28 and Sept. 4, 11, and 18, 1918.

7. To endeavor by every honorable means and within the limits of the powers of private voluntary associated effort to secure the cooperation of the Governments of the United States and Mexico in firmly establishing the principles of protection of the peoples and the Governments of all American countries against sinister influences or power from any other country or group of countries in the war.

8. To safeguard as far as it is possible the principles of autonomous independence and democratic Pan American countries from open or insidious attempts of autocratic forms of Government.

In a word, to bring about mutual good will, cooperation, and confidence among the workers, the peoples, and the Governments of Pan America.

The visit of the commission was particularly timely, since it occurred just after the close of a Mexican labor convention held at Saltillo, Coahuila, for the purpose of establishing a Mexican federation of labor; and the members of the commission found much interest manifested in the object of their visit.

The commission, in making its report at the St. Paul convention of June 10-20, 1918, stated that—

There are probably half a million workers organized in Mexico, in the syndicates and federations of syndicates. The only industries that approach nationalism, as far as we could learn, are the miners, textile workers, and railroad workers. There are approximately fifty thousand miners in the State of Coahuila alone, and the miners at Coahuila, Torreon, and Durango are getting together in some kind of a national federation. There are unions through all the mining fields of Mexico. It is hard to get authentic figures from the different districts, owing to the long distances and lack of national and district unity. But these local organizations are active and operating in their own way, each syndicate making demands, settlements, or striking, independently, which we are inclined to believe often has a demoralizing effect on both operations and workers. * * *

The feeling that has animated the local labor movements is now ripe for being molded into a national and international direction.

Mexican labor unions were invited to send delegates to the St. Paul convention, but since the delegates arrived too late to participate, a formal meeting of the Pan American Federation of Labor Conference Committee was held for their benefit at Washington, D. C. In a letter to these delegates, President Gompers stated, concerning the proposed convention at Laredo, Tex.:

We deem it of fundamental importance that everything shall be done to promote free intercourse between the masses of our countries and to establish agencies whereby the desire and the ideals of the common people shall be given an opportunity for expression. It was in furtherance of these purposes that the American Federation of Labor proposed a Pan American Federation of Labor and has sought conferences with the working people of Mexico. * * *

We realize that the lives of nations are now so closely interrelated that no one country can maintain the rights and protect the welfare of its men and women without the cooperation of other nations. So closely identified are the interests and welfare of the working people of Mexico and the United States, and so slight a barrier does our boundary line interpose to economic and commercial organization, that it is indispensable to maintain friendly relations and a constructive program and agencies for mutual self-protection and advancement of the working people of our two countries.

The date of the international labor conference has been fixed for November 13-16, 1918. The governors of Texas, Arizona, and of the Northern District of Lower California have signified their intention to be present. All the organizations of labor in Mexico have been invited to send delegates, and many have accepted the invitation. In their letter of acceptance, the workers of the Mexican Federal district propose that the Confederación Regional Obrera Mexicana appoint one or two delegates resident in the United States to organize Mexican workers in the United States and watch their interests, in cooperation with the American Federation of Labor, and that both the federation and the confederation name permanent representatives in the cities near the border and embarkation points to care for the interests of workers going from one country to the other; that Mexican workers be enabled to join the labor organizations in the United States, without curtailment of the support and privileges which such organizations allow to their own members; that the confederation send its own delegates to Central and South America, in view of the fact that the American Federation of Labor is already in correspondence with the workers in those countries relative to the projects for unification and the holding of the conference; and that an agreement be reached as to the best way of finding honorable means to exert influence, so that justice and protection be afforded to those workingmen who, for various reasons, are deprived of their liberty through being in the jails of the United States.

TRADES-UNION CONGRESS, GREAT BRITAIN.

The Fiftieth Annual Trades-Union Congress was held at Derby during the week beginning September 2, 1918. This meeting was of peculiar interest because of the many important questions arising from the war which confront labor, and also because of the fact that this meeting marked the jubilee year of trade-unionism in England.

The convention was attended by 876 delegates, representing more than four and one-half million members, and the president, Mr. J. W. Ogden (Weavers' Amalgamation), in his opening address commented on the fact that the trade-union movement was numerically stronger than at any previous period in spite of the difficult and disheartening industrial and economic conditions. He expressed gratification at the steps taken by the parliamentary committee to build up closer relationship between the British trade-unions and the unions of other countries, voiced the hope that a solid international organization would be effected, and said that he fully indorsed the view that internationalism had not failed since it had not been really tried. He forestalled, in a measure, the question of the formation

of a new party composed entirely of trade-unionists, which, in interest to the convention, was second only to the resolution on war aims, in an appeal for cooperation and reform inside the ranks rather than for attempts to start more organizations which would bring division in their forces at a time when there was greater need than ever before to consolidate and strengthen labor. In regard to the growth of complaints of societies overlapping in their membership and activities, he suggested that the solution of the problem lay in the establishment of one trade-union only, which should embrace all classes of workers. The remainder of his speech dealt with the furtherance of peace efforts, and he stated that he believed that "an international labor and socialist conference would be of the greatest service, and is a necessary preliminary to a lasting and democratic peace."

THE WAR AIMS RESOLUTION.

In order to understand the many conflicting ideas and interests found in the ranks of labor in England and to understand the extremely controversial character of such meetings as the annual congress it may be well to sketch very briefly the origin and growth of the trade-union movement. In the beginning of this movement trade-unionism was confined almost entirely to skilled crafts, the workers in which assumed that workers in unskilled occupations lacked the intelligence and ability to form effective unions. Later, however, as the skilled workers showed no intention of admitting the unskilled into their membership and following the great dock strikes of London, Liverpool, and other centers in 1889, unions of unskilled workers were formed which, as they were not permeated with the conservatism of the older unions, were ready to embrace the socialistic theories and ideas which were at that time becoming popular. While these unions were gradually recognized and the new ideas by degrees made headway, still the distinction between the skilled and unskilled workers remained. The growth of these general labor unions has been very rapid since the beginning of the war and they are now united in a strong and aggressive federation. Thus it will be seen that trade-unionism is not a single organization of the working classes, but a complex organization of more than a thousand separate trade-unions which overlap and compete, although they are coordinated and federated in many different ways. The Labor Party, likewise, is composed of these elements with a strong socialist and pacifist element comprehended in the Independent Labor Party and the Fabian Society.

The predominating note in the last two labor congresses has probably been the desire for unity which is evidenced by the compromise effected in the resolution on war aims which was passed by the congress.

The following resolution, which was drawn up at a meeting of representatives of the National Union of Railwaymen, the General Workers' Union, and other sections which had offered conflicting resolutions on the subject of war and peace, was placed before the conference:

This congress reaffirms the Blackpool Congress resolution and calls for the war aims of the Labor and Socialist parties of the Central Powers in answer to the war aims of the Interallied Conference held in London, which asks for the destruction of every arbitrary power anywhere that can separately, secretly, and of its single choice disturb the peace of the world, or if it can not be presently destroyed, at the least its reduction to virtual impotence; and further demands that when peace is being discussed adequate labor representation be afforded at the peace conference.

The Congress urges the Government to establish peace negotiations immediately the enemy either voluntarily or by compulsion evacuates France and Belgium, and reaffirms its belief in the principle of the Internationale,¹ as the safest guaranty of the world's peace.

In presenting the resolution Mr. J. H. Thomas, M. P. (Railwaymen), said that in spite of the divergent views of the Socialist and Labor parties of the allied countries a unanimous report had been framed which was the one concrete and definite effort to place in writing terms which would secure the peace of the world. While the replies of the Austrians and Bulgarians had proved satisfactory, as much could not be said for the reply of the German Majority Socialists. To those, however, who criticize and condemn their efforts he would say that, "just as there would be a grave responsibility on any statesman who would prolong the war for an hour more than was necessary, so it is the duty of all, and above all of labor, to explore every avenue that will provide the means of a lasting peace." He appealed for renewed faith in the Internationale and for a unanimous vote for the resolution in order that their own soldiers and sailors, their allies, and the enemy as well might know that "labor would not sacrifice one life to add a yard to British territory or one penny to add to the power of kings and emperors." The majority of the speeches which followed reflected these sentiments.

The only speech outspokenly against the resolution was that of Mr. Havelock Wilson (Sailors and Firemen), who asked if, in stating that they were prepared to say to Germany that the moment she cleared out of France and Belgium they were ready to negotiate with her, they had forgotten "a country called Russia." He asked the congress if "you labor statesmen overlooked the fact that Germany could afford to declare to-morrow that she would give back Belgium

¹ The Internationale or International Socialist Bureau was formed at an International Socialist Congress held at Paris in 1889. The headquarters of the bureau are at Brussels, and arrangements are made there for the holding of congresses usually every three years or when international crises arise. It is formed of socialists and trade-unionists and stands for "socialization of the means of production and distribution, international union and action of the workers, and conquest of the public powers by the proletariat organized as a class party."

and Northern France, and make good the damage there in exchange for a free hand in Russia and that on such terms Germany would have secured a great victory?" He compared the labor statesmen to the Prussians in their methods and said that in sending this out as labor's war aims they were acting without the indorsement of the rank and file of the party. He further said that "the best friends of Germany are those who are out to defeat Germany absolutely, to give her orders what she shall do, and see that they are carried out. Those are the men who will give the workmen of Germany an opportunity of developing as free men. You who talk of negotiations, compromises, no indemnities, and no annexations, you are the worst enemies of German democracy. I hope the congress will turn the resolution down. I know what the block vote means, but that does not deter me as an old trade-unionist from saying that this resolution is not worth our consideration." An explanation of the "block vote," a term which has puzzled the reading public, is as follows: A trade-union branch of, for instance, 1,500 unassertive members who do not take the trouble to attend branch meetings regularly and vote frequently falls under the control of a small number of more active members who get themselves appointed as delegates. On the eve of a general trade-union congress the delegates of separate trade-unions meet, discuss the agenda, and decide how they will vote at the congress. Many of these delegates may themselves have been elected by a bare majority, but when they record their vote at the general congress it is counted as the solid vote of all the members of their union.

Mr. G. H. Roberts, M. P., minister of labor, speaking as a delegate from the Typographical Association, while indorsing the resolution mainly on the ground that it committed the congress to continue the fight at least until the German armies are driven out of France and Belgium, said that "all this talk of international congresses and peace negotiations encouraged the enemy and discouraged our fighting forces. * * * You want the war to end in the establishment of a league of nations. Take your own labor war aims declaration and you will recognize that a league of nations must have behind it the sanction of force. We talk about democracy. Don't let us delude ourselves. A labor party conference or a trade-union congress is not democracy in itself. Democracy consists of the whole of the peoples of the nations, and a democratic peace will be a peace negotiated by the representative Governments of democratic countries."

On a show of hands the resolution was carried by an overwhelming majority. Only half a dozen hands were raised against it.

THE SEAMEN'S BOYCOTT RESOLUTION.

Mr. J. Henson, for the Sailors' and Firemen's Union, offered a resolution recording its condemnation of the brutal murders and robberies of British and neutral seamen on the high seas by the commanders and crews of U-boats and stated that since such piracy had been justified by leading trade-unionists of Germany, there could be no peace by negotiation and no intercourse for five years after the war with the German nation unless the people take full parliamentary control over the Kaiser and Government and make full reparation for the crimes. An amendment was offered, calling, in place of the five years' boycott, for trial and punishment for those responsible. After speeches for and against the resolution the matter was finally shelved by calling for the previous question, the feeling being that a vote for the resolution would have the effect of contradicting the previous day's approval of the program for peace by negotiation.

TRADE UNION LABOR PARTY.

The resolution for a new trade-union labor party was presented by Mr. W. J. Davis (Brassworkers' Society) in the following terms:

This congress declares in favor of a distinct political labor party for the trade-union movement based on the representation of and controlled by congress, and instructs the parliamentary committee to take the steps necessary to establish a trade-union labor party.

This resolution was backed by Mr. Havelock Wilson, one of the leaders of the party of trade-unionists, who launched the movement directly after the Labor Party conference in June ¹ and was supported by several unions, including the Sailors and Firemen, Dock Laborers, Gas Workers, and Amalgamated Musicians. An amendment was moved against the proposal deprecating any movement designed to secure separate political representation and declaring in favor of loyal cooperation with the Labor Party. The argument which apparently had the most weight with the congress was that of Mr. Tom Shaw (Weavers), who stated that while he was not in sympathy with that wing of the Labor Party which constantly worked against the decisions of the party and that he had no love for the men who were coming into the party, many of them disgruntled politicians, still he thought it was the fault of the trade-unionists themselves; that they could change it if they liked, and that it would be fatal to start a new party every time they disagreed. Mr. Wilson advised the supporters of the resolution to be content with a protest, but many refused to do this and when the amendment was put to the vote it was carried by a large majority.

¹ See Annual Conference of the British Labor Party, in MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for September, 1918, pp. 319-327.

OTHER RESOLUTIONS.

The congress passed a resolution condemning the policy of the Government in refusing passports for attendance at labor conferences to properly elected representatives of organized labor. They also adopted a resolution introduced by the Agricultural Laborers' Union declaring "that the Government should resume the control of the nation's agricultural land and take in hand the production, distribution, and control of all agricultural produce so as to secure the best possible results in the interests of the community as a whole."

A number of resolutions bearing on the question of hours of labor were considered. The motion calling for a bill to be introduced in the House of Commons by the parliamentary committee with a view to making the eight-hour day the law of the country was passed, and an amendment introduced by the Boilermakers' Union calling for a maximum 44-hour week for manual labor was voted down.

Mr. J. R. Clynes, minister of food, spoke against the resolution in favor of a meat subsidy. This resolution also called for the extension of national kitchens because of the scarcity of fuel, the difficulty of buying for households, and the widespread profiteering in certain foodstuffs. He said the second part of the resolution they could all support, but that there was great danger of prejudicing wage claims and the industrial position of the workers by voting for the subsidy, and that most of the subsidy would not go to relieve the poor but would go to benefit the millions of people who have sufficient means to buy the more costly food. On a card vote the demand for a meat subsidy was carried by a small majority. The demand for the extension of national kitchens was adopted unanimously.

An attempt to combine the conflicting ideas of industrial and craft unionism was made in a resolution moved by the National Union of Clerks and the Iron and Steel Trade Confederation. Miss Mary MacArthur (Women Workers' Federation) characterized it as the first statesmanlike effort to put into practice the ideal of one union for all workers put forward in the president's address. Critical opposition came from several of the general labor unions, but the motion was carried by a small majority. By this decision the organization of an industrial union now allows for the maintenance within it of each distinct craft combination.

In addition to these resolutions around which the greatest interest and discussions centered, the agenda presented resolutions for various industrial and State reforms, many of them in line with the reconstruction program of the Labor Party which was presented to the party conference in June.

FRATERNAL DELEGATES.

The fraternal delegates to the congress were Mr. Samuel Gompers and Mr. W. J. Bowen, American Federation of Labor; Mr. John H. Kennedy, Canadian Trades and Labor Congress; M. Louis Jonhaux, Confédération Générale du Travail; Right Hon. A. Henderson, M. P., Labor Party, and Mr. W. J. Douse, Cooperative Union. One session was given up to the reception and speeches of the fraternal delegates.

Mr. Gompers' speech dealt mainly with questions relating to the war and the part America is taking in the struggle. Mr. Henderson spoke of the relation of British labor to the war and defended their international policy. He said they did not want to negotiate a patched-up peace and that they were out to crush militarism, but that in general their policy was one of conciliation and that it was their desire to leave no bitterness or sense of wrong on either side.

LABOR LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

REGULATIONS BY UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR FOR ADMISSION OF MEXICAN LABORERS.

On June 12, 1918, the Secretary of Labor issued a department order, effective June 20, 1918, governing the temporary admission of Mexican laborers to perform work in agricultural pursuits, in the maintenance of way on railroads, and in certain lignite coal mining enterprises, the purpose of the regulations contained in this order being to guard the interests and welfare of all such laborers who come to the United States to work. Approximately one month later, on July 10, an amendatory order was issued, effective July 25, extending the provisions of the preceding order to include laborers coming from Mexico "to engage in mining of any and all kinds or to be employed in the performance of common labor in connection with construction work being done by or for the Government in the erection of buildings in the State of Texas and also in the jurisdiction of the immigration district No. 23 adjacent to the Mexican border within the States of New Mexico, Arizona, and California."

The original order emphasizes the fact that it provides only for temporary admission of aliens and that those who violate the conditions are to be immediately deported. It is also provided (Sec. VIII) that a portion of the wages of each laborer shall be deducted and repaid to him when he leaves the country. This practice, however, has been discontinued upon authority of the Secretary of Labor.

While applying only to Mexican laborers, the order has been modified, where necessary, to apply to the admission of Negro laborers from Nassau (Bahama Islands) who have been imported to work in the shipbuilding yards at Charleston, S. C., and to Jamaica Negroes at Panama who have been imported for Government work at New Orleans.

TEXT OF REGULATIONS FOR ADMISSION OF MEXICAN LABORERS.

Apparently some misunderstanding has arisen as to the exact provisions of the regulations governing the admission of Mexican laborers, and it is therefore deemed advisable to publish the full text:

Whereas the ninth proviso to section 3 of the Immigration Act of February 5, 1917, provides "That the Commissioner General of Immigration, with the approval of the Secretary of Labor, shall issue rules and prescribe conditions, including exaction of such bonds as may be necessary, to control and regulate the admission and return of otherwise inadmissible aliens applying for temporary admission;" and,

Whereas in agricultural pursuits, in the maintenance of way on railroads and in certain lignite coal mining enterprises in which Mexican laborers have heretofore been customarily employed, an emergent condition, caused by the war, now exists in the United States, and, while obviously said special exception to general provision of law should be construed strictly and should not be resorted to except with the object of meeting extraordinary situations or conditions, it can be and should be availed of whenever an emergent condition arises:

Therefore, the following circular providing for the temporary admission of certain alien laborers from Mexico is hereby promulgated by the department to supersede department circular of April 12, 1918, and Regulations of the Bureau of Immigration issued thereunder on the same date, as amended May 10, 1918:

Section I. Notwithstanding the provisions of section 3 of the Immigration Act excluding aliens who being over 16 years of age and physically capable of reading "can not read the English language, or some other language or dialect," (the "illiteracy test"), or aliens "who have been induced, assisted, encouraged or solicited to migrate to this country by offers or promises of employment * * * or in consequence of agreements, oral, written, or printed, express or implied, to perform labor in this country of any kind, skilled or unskilled" (the "contract-labor clause"), and notwithstanding the provisions of section 2 of said act assessing a head tax on account of aliens entering permanently, aliens residing in Mexico who in all other than the respects above mentioned are admissible under the laws of the United States and who are shown to be coming from Mexico to the United States for the purpose of accepting employment may be temporarily admitted without exacting head tax, upon the conditions hereinafter specified, for periods in no instance exceeding the duration of the war.

Sec. II. (a) As to be admissible under the terms of this circular the alien must be coming "for the purpose of accepting employment" (for which reason the "contract-labor" as well as the "illiteracy test" provisions are mentioned above), those who desire to avail themselves of this opportunity, afforded to meet emergent conditions in the United States, may come to or be represented at the boundary to confer with any alien, and such alien must not be temporarily admitted until arrangements for his employment have been perfected.

(b) A prospective employer may initiate an application for permission to import laborers under the provisions hereof by filing such application with either a United States immigration or a United States employment official, setting forth the number of laborers desired, class of work, wages offered, and place of proposed employment, and stating that he will comply with all provisions of this circular with respect to any alien admitted to him. Upon the approval in writing of any such application by a United States employment officer detailed to a Mexican border port in accordance with Section X hereof or by the United States employment officer stationed in the vicinity of the place of proposed employment, the immigration officer in charge at such port shall proceed to admit the alien involved in accordance with the provisions hereof.

Sec. III. Emphasis is placed upon the fact that this circular provides for the temporary admission, under the circumstances stated and conditions prescribed, of an alien who in *all other respects* would be admissible under the laws of the United States if he were entering for permanent purposes. The indulgence extends only to the illiteracy, contract-labor, and head tax features of the Immigration Act, and then only if the other conditions are satisfactorily established.

Sec. IV. As admission is to be temporary only and as it is provided that an alien who violates the conditions exacted shall be immediately deported, of course none should be admitted who can not be returned immediately that necessity arises.

Sec. V. (a) Two unmounted photographs of each applicant for admission under the provisions hereof shall be furnished. A complete personal description of such applicant, and of accompanying members of his family over 16 years of age, if any, shall be taken. These shall be used in preparing, in duplicate, an identification card corresponding in general to that prescribed by subdivision 9 of rule 12 of the immigration regulations for the use of an alien who habitually crosses and recrosses the land boundaries.

(b) The blank form of said card (Form 687) may be adapted to this purpose until a more suitable card is devised and printed, an appropriate notation being placed thereon to show that the holder is temporarily admitted to the United States under the terms of this circular, to engage in labor of one of the three kinds herein specified. The original of the card shall be delivered to the admitted alien; the duplicate, on which a record will be kept of changes of employment, of employers, or of address, as hereinafter provided, shall be properly filed and indexed. When any alien admitted hereunder is deported or departs the card shall be taken up.

(c) All members of families 16 years of age and over shall be given such cards; those under 16 shall be recorded, giving name, age, and description.

(d) On the departure or deportation of an alien accompanied by members of his family when admitted, such accompanying members must also depart or be deported, as the case may be.

Sec. VI. (a) An alien admitted under the provisions hereof is allowed to enter temporarily upon the understanding that he has secured employment in the United States, and that he will work only in agricultural pursuits, maintenance of way on railroads, or lignite coal mining as herein described. Therefore, if alien fails, after admission, to accept such agreed employment, or, after acceptance and entry thereon, abandons same to accept employment of any other nature, or to accept any employment with an employer who has not complied with the conditions of this circular, or discontinues laboring and remains idle for as long as two weeks unless by reason of illness of himself or of a member of his family or other disability, such alien shall be immediately arrested and deported under the regular warrant procedure.

(b) An employer of such an alien other than the importing employer must on hiring any such alien comply with the terms of this circular in the same manner substantially and with the same effect as an importing employer. Not later than ten (10) days after the date of such employment he must notify the inspector in charge of the Immigration Service at the place where alien entered of the fact of such employment, giving name, place of intended employment, and name and post-office address of himself and of his employee.

(c) An employer who, having hired any such alien, desires to relinquish his services, shall notify the inspector in charge of the Immigration Service at the place of entry of such intention; such notice shall specify the name of the alien, probable date of cessation of work, and post-office address of employer and of such alien.

(d) An alien admitted under the provisions of this circular, or whose admission under the circulars superseded hereby is renewed under this circular, must follow none but laboring pursuits of the nature prescribed herein. When any such alien is without employment, unless he immediately returns to Mexico through the port of entry, he shall apply to the inspector in charge of the Immigration Service at the place where he was admitted or to the nearest United States immigration or United States employment officer, advising him that he no longer has work, and asking for employment and for the privilege of remaining in the United States for an additional period. Thereupon, if the application is to the immigration officer, the said officer shall communicate with the appropriate director of the United States Employment Service, and ascertain whether or not work can be secured for such alien; if to an employment officer, such officer shall forward the application to the nearest immigration officer

for decision. If work is secured, in either manner indicated, an extension of time may be granted the alien on condition that he accept the reemployment. If the alien fails or refuses to accept reemployment under these conditions, deportation shall immediately be effected.

(e) Failure on the part of the employer or alien to give any notice required by this section shall subject such alien to deportation.

Sec. VII. A prospective employer shall be required, as a condition precedent to the temporary admission hereunder of any alien, fully to disclose to the immigration officer in charge at the port of entry his plans with respect to the employment of such alien, including the wages, how often paid (giving dates), housing conditions, duration of employment, also to give his written promise and stipulation to the following effect viz:

(a) That the employer will abide by and comply with all the terms of this circular.

(b) That the employer will pay the current rate of wages for similar labor in the community in which the admitted alien is to be employed.

(c) That with respect to housing and sanitation the laws and rules of the State in which the laborer is to be employed will be observed by the employer. If employed in a State that has no law on said subject, such conditions must be satisfactory to the Secretary of Labor.

(d) That the employer will keep the officer in charge at the port of entry advised promptly of any change made in his plans as originally disclosed with respect to the place, duration, or character of the employment of the alien by him, and wages and times of payment thereof.

(e) That the employer will notify such officer immediately upon learning that any alien admitted to him purposes to leave his employ, and furnish such information as he can secure with respect to the place to which the alien is going and the name of the party for whom such alien is to work.

(f) That the employer will promptly notify such officer whenever any alien admitted to him has left his employ (without his previous knowledge of the alien's intent to do so) and will furnish all possible information to assist immigration officers in ascertaining whether or not the alien has entered other employment, or whether or not the conditions of this circular are being observed.

(g) That fifteen (15) days before the expiration of the period for which the alien is admitted to him the employer will advise the inspector in charge at the port of entry whether or not it is his and the alien's desire that the latter shall remain with the former for an additional period of employment.

(h) That if it becomes necessary to deport any alien (or any alien family) admitted in pursuance of this circular because of a violation of, or failure to observe, the conditions specified herein, the expense of removal of the alien from the place where apprehended to the boundary shall be borne by the importer; provided that when the cause of deportation arises while alien is employed by a person other than the importer without the consent of the latter, then such expense shall be borne by such subsequent employer.

(i) That the employer shall retain from the admitted alien's wages the sums named in Section VIII hereof and transmit same for deposit in the postal savings bank in the manner therein specified.

Sec. VIII. As additional means of insuring that an alien admitted under the provisions of this circular will eventually leave the United States, the following conditions shall be observed:

(a) Each such alien shall at the time of admission (with the assistance of United States immigration or United States employment officers) apply for permission to open an account in the postal savings bank at the port of entry, on which deposits to such alien's credit will later be made in the manner hereinafter provided.

(b) The employer shall withhold from the alien's wages twenty-five (25) cents for each day's service such alien renders while he continues in the employ of such employer until the money so withheld aggregates one hundred (100) dollars. If the alien changes employers in accordance with the provisions of this circular before the money so retained aggregates one hundred (100) dollars, those employing him subsequently to the original importer shall continue withholding twenty-five (25) cents per day from his wages until the amount withheld, added to that withheld by previous employer or employers, aggregates one hundred (100) dollars. The same arrangement shall apply in cases in which the original admission was for a period not sufficient to produce the one hundred (100) dollars and in which a renewal of the period of admission is granted by the immigration officers.

(c) On each pay day the employer shall transmit to the inspector in charge of the immigration service at the place of the alien enemy's entry the money withheld from alien's wages in pursuance of the preceding paragraph. Postal money orders payable to such officer, purchased at the employer's cost, shall be used in making these remittances. Said officer shall deposit the money order in the local postal savings bank to the credit of the alien from whose wages the sum represented has been withheld, retaining in his possession the receipt for such deposit. The funds so deposited will remain in the postal savings bank until the alien leaves the United States, whereupon said officer shall arrange for the delivery to the alien of the money so saved and the interest, if any, accrued thereon. If the alien leaves the United States before he has worked a sufficient period for the amounts retained to aggregate one hundred (100) dollars, the total amount so retained, with accrued interest, if any, shall be returned to him in like manner.

(d) After the sums withheld, transmitted, and deposited in accordance with the preceding two paragraphs have aggregated one hundred (100) dollars, the sum of one (1) dollar per month shall be withheld from the laborer's wages, transmitted to the inspector in charge at the port of entry, and deposited, in similar manner; the withholding of this amount monthly to continue so long as the alien remains in the United States, and the funds so accumulated to be withdrawn from the postal savings bank and returned to alien at the time of his departure, under the supervision of the inspector in charge at port of entry. This provision shall be applied to both original and subsequent employers.

(e) If the emergent conditions mentioned herein still exist at the end of any period of admission under the terms of this circular, then, upon the joint application of any such alien and his employer showing the necessity for alien's service for a further term, the immigration office at the port of admission is authorized to extend the temporary admission of such alien for a period not exceeding the duration of the war. If the sums withheld have not aggregated one hundred (100) dollars, the withholding thereof shall continue until such amount has accumulated to alien's credit. The withholding of one (1) dollar per month as provided in paragraph (c) above will thereafter be commenced or continued as circumstances require.

(f) If such emergent conditions still exist at the end of any such period of admission under the circulars superseded hereby, then, upon the joint application of any such alien and his employer showing the necessity for alien's service for a further term, the immigration office at the port of admission is authorized to extend the temporary admission of such alien for a period not exceeding the duration of the war; provided the alien (with the assistance of his employer, or, if he is simultaneously changing his place of employment, of the nearest United States immigration or United States employment officer) shall apply to the local postmaster for permission to open an account in the postal savings bank at the border port through which he entered the United States, and both the alien and his employer shall agree to comply then and

thereafter with all applicable provisions of this circular, it being intended that such cases shall, to the fullest extent practicable, be placed upon the same basis as those arising under this circular. Failure or refusal to observe this requirement will result in alien's deportation.

(g) All information reaching the border ports of entry, as the result of the making of deposits or otherwise, with respect to changes in the location or employment of any laborer admitted hereunder shall be noted on the duplicate of such laborer's identification card.

Sec. IX. The supervising inspector at El Paso shall designate such officers as may be necessary at each station to give attention to the details of keeping in touch with aliens temporarily admitted under the provisions of this circular or of those superseded hereby; and it shall be the especial duty of the officers so designated to see that the temporarily admitted aliens do not remain permanently in the United States and do not violate the terms of this circular by engaging in other than the specified laboring pursuits, or otherwise. Officers will be designated to follow up aliens admitted hereunder, and employers to whom such aliens have been admitted, or for whom they may be laboring, will be expected and called upon to assist such officers in enforcing this circular, including arrest and deportation of aliens in proper cases. Officers of the United States Employment Service shall cooperate with officers of the Immigration Service in the enforcement of this section; also in supplying information to the inspector in charge at port of entry regarding changes in location or employment of aliens admitted hereunder.

Sec. X. At each of the principal Mexican border ports of entry officers of the United States Employment Service shall be detailed to assist the immigration officers in the administration of this circular. In the event that the employer is represented by an agent, or by an association through its agent, or by an officer detailed as hereinafter provided, in securing laborers, the authority of the agent or association to act for such employer should be fully established in writing, and in every instance the employer shall be required to execute and forward as soon as possible to the officer in charge at the port of entry the agreement specified in section VII of this circular. It shall be competent for the officers of the Immigration Service to act with any officer detailed by the National Council of Defense, the United States Food Administration, the United States Employment Service, or any State organization of either, or any other organization, public or private, authoritatively representing the industries herein specified.

Sec. XI. The Commissioner General of Immigration is hereby directed to enforce and administer the provisions of this circular, which shall become effective on and after June 20, 1918.

HOUSING.

PUBLIC UTILITY SOCIETIES, ENGLAND.

The following report on Public Utility Societies was given out by the Housing Committee of the Federation of British Industries in April, 1918:

1. The committee observe that the circular issued by the local government board to councils of metropolitan boroughs, town councils, and district councils of the 1st March, 1918, makes no mention of public utility societies.

2. The committee consider that public utility societies can play a very useful part in helping to provide the housing accommodation which will be required during the reconstruction period, and they submit that the Government should at an early date make known the lines upon which it is proposed that the State should assist public utility societies for this purpose.

3. The longer the war continues, the more difficult it will be for the State or local authorities to undertake the whole responsibility for the provision of the necessary housing accommodation. It, therefore, becomes of great importance to encourage private owners of capital to contribute to the solution of the problem.

4. The committee have given careful consideration to the question whether the building trades can be expected to undertake any large part of the burden without assistance from the State in the form of subsidy or otherwise. They have come to the conclusion that conditions after the war will be such as to make it impossible to rely upon this form of private enterprise for any effective cooperation in the matter, unless the State is willing to assist the trades by way of subsidy or otherwise.

5. Further, the committee feel unable to recommend that the Government should be asked to grant the private builder assistance in the way of subsidy or loans on special terms.

They recognize that private enterprise has played a very important and useful part in contributing to the provision of the necessary accommodation in the past but the proposal to give the individual builder State assistance raises difficulties which the committee consider insuperable. The private builder will, of course, in any case play his part in the solution of the problem by contracting for and carrying out the schemes undertaken by local authorities and other bodies.

6. The same objections do not, however, apply to the State assistance of public utility societies. By a public utility society is meant a society registered under Industrial and Provident Societies Acts for the purpose of providing houses for the working classes and others on a social basis, which includes the distribution of any profits earned after meeting all obligations, for the benefit of the members of the society, i. e. of the estate. Such a society is exempt from the payment of income tax under schedules C and D but it must under the present law limit its dividends and the interest paid on its loan capital, and no member may hold more than £200 of shares, the bulk of the society's capital being provided by loan stock. The affairs of the society are generally managed by a board of management appointed by the society in general meeting, the voting power of the society being distributed among the holders of loan stock, the shareholders, and (if thought desirable) tenant investment stockholders. Tenants can be given a financial interest in the society by allowing or requiring them to take up tenants' investment stock, to which voting power can, subject to the necessary safeguards, be attached.

The rules of a society usually contain provision giving the board of management power to pay off the shares of tenants' investment stock of a member or tenant who ceases to be a tenant, and enabling the tenant to transfer his shares or stock to any other member of the society, with the approval of the committee, if they are not willing to pay off in this way. Such provision is essential, in order to give the requisite freedom of movement to tenants.

With regard to repairs, a repairs fund can be established for each tenant member, the amount of his dividend or a proportion thereof being credited to this fund until the total credit standing to his name amounts to say half his rental. A further part of the profits can be allocated to the establishment of a common fund for social, educational, and recreational purposes, and it is generally found desirable that this fund should be under the management of a special tenants committee.

7. It is thought that this form of society is peculiarly well suited for the provision of the housing accommodation which will be required in different industrial districts after the war, for the following reasons:

(a) It will enable employers to contribute, by means of loan stock, toward the provision of accommodation for their work people without involving the disadvantages of the "tied house system" under which employees are housed in houses owned by their employers. The following are some of the practical disadvantages of that system—

- (I) The employee feels that even outside working hours he is living under his employer's eye, and this is often resented.
- (II) The employee is apt to regard his house as part of the works, and consequently its upkeep and repair as matters which solely concern his employer.
- (III) In districts where housing accommodation is scarce, great difficulties may arise in the case of an employee tenant who is dismissed from or leaves his employment.

The housing of employees by the public utility societies avoids these difficulties very largely, since the houses do not belong to the employer, but to the society of which the tenants are members. Moreover, it becomes possible to take the control and management of the houses out of the hands of the employer and vest it in a joint committee on which the tenants can be represented, thus relieving the employer of the onus.

(b) It will enable several employers in a district to join together for the above purpose and so take effective action where no single employer, when acting independently, would be in a financial position to do so.

(c) Such a society gives those who have advanced it money a much better security than is possessed by the owner of an ordinary small building estate. The society has a lien on the investments and funds of the members, and this enables arrears of rent and the occurrence of dilapidations to be prevented. Moreover, the tenant is responsible for inside repairs and the amount of these is charged against his repairs fund, so that it is to his advantage to look after the property.

(d) By giving the tenants a share in management and an interest in the society many of the difficulties usually attaching to the management of small-house properties are avoided, since arrangements can be made for the management to be carried out by a committee, nominated in part at least by the tenants themselves. Moreover, the society provides an opportunity for securing real social advantages to the tenants, and forms an admirable medium for establishing better relations between the employer and his workpeople.

(e) The committee believe that public utility societies formed by business men on these lines could carry out housing schemes at least as economically as local authorities, and possibly more so.

(f) The advantages mentioned in paragraph (d) make it possible for the State to contribute substantially toward the assistance of these societies, and thus make operations on a large scale possible without any of the objections which would attach to the State assistance of purely private enterprise.

8. For the above reasons we consider it of very great importance that as much use as possible should be made of public utility societies for the purpose of providing housing accommodation in the period immediately following the war, and if a satisfactory assurance is received as to the assistance which the State is ready to afford such societies we recommend that the federation should take steps to urge upon its members in the different industrial districts of the country where housing accommodation may be insufficient, the desirability of establishing such societies in conjunction with their workpeople.

* * * * *

It may be regarded as certain that there will be a great shortage of capital in this country after the war. Many manufacturers who have been engaged in munition work will require to lay out large sums for the conversion of their works or for the undertaking of new industries, and they will have very little capital available for such purposes as housing schemes. It is possible that some employers, as for example mine owners, who may require houses in districts far removed from urban areas, may practically be compelled to build their own houses, even without adequate State assistance, but this factor will only operate in a few cases, and can not be expected to lead to good housing or to any substantial contribution toward the solution of the housing problem. To expect industry to supply itself with such housing accommodation as it may require at an uneconomic rate will be to treat it as agriculture has been treated in the past, and the committee consider that the results of this must be exceedingly injurious, since they regard the fact that landowners have been left to provide the necessary houses for their laborers at uneconomic rents as one of the principal reasons for the decay of agriculture in this country.

The committee are strongly of opinion that capital will not after the war be attracted to the provision of housing accommodation even by means of public utility societies, unless the owners of capital can be assured of a reasonable prospect of securing an economic return on their money, and the committee do not recommend that the federation should take any steps to induce its members to interest themselves in the formation of public utility societies unless the Government is prepared to give such assistance as will put the matter on an economic basis.

Applying these considerations to the proposals in the local government board circular of the 18th March, the committee would call attention to the following points:

(a) The private owner of capital will not be likely to invest in a society of this kind under the conditions which must exist after the war without definite information as to the amount and nature of the assistance which the State is prepared to afford to the society. It will not be sufficient for him to be told that at the end of a period of seven years the State will be prepared to make a grant on the basis of some percentage of an estimated loss.

(b) If the assistance of the State is to be confined to a percentage of the loss which must arise out of war conditions, the balance of the loss must fall upon the society, i. e., upon those who have invested their own capital in the society. If the analogy of the local government board's proposals in the circular of the 18th of March is to be followed, this will involve a loss of 2 per cent of any interest for a period of seven years, and a loss of 25 per cent on the capital invested at the end of that time. Private owners of capital can not be expected to invest money under these conditions, unless the society is to be allowed to charge a rent sufficiently high to make good the loss, which would be impracticable.

We consider that in order to enable public utility societies to operate successfully after the war the following conditions should be complied with:

I. The Government should state clearly the exact amount of the assistance which it is prepared to grant by way of subsidy.

Generally speaking the contribution of the State should be such as to insure that any private capital invested will be able to secure an economic return, and the money must be provided at the outset of the scheme.

II. The amounts the public works loan board, or other Government department, may advance to a public utility society should be increased from two-thirds of the value of the property to 80 per cent of such value, and the terms of repayment increased from 30 to 40 years to 60 years. The value of the estate should be the actual cost of the scheme when completed. The advance should be made by installments during building.

III. Societies should be empowered to pay an economic rate of interest on their loan and share capital.

IV. The public utility societies should be allowed any advantages, e. g., in regard to the purchase of building material, etc., which may be allowed by the State to local authorities undertaking housing schemes.

V. Rents if fixed should be based on proper financial calculations to cover the net outlay, including rates, taxes, sinking fund, interest, repairs, insurance, etc., after making due allowance for the State subsidy.

VI. The constitution of the society would include provisions for securing that ultimate control which follows financial interest. At the same time, subject to the above safeguard, tenants should undertake a large part of the management of the society, and should have almost complete control over the expenditure of the part of the profits allocated to improvements, recreation, etc.

VII. Arrangements should be made where possible to let sites for commercial purposes, e. g., shops or hotels, at commercial rents, and also for the provision of houses for members of the staff, foremen, etc., at a higher rent than that fixed for the ordinary houses on the estate. In this connection it should be observed that the money advanced by the Government can only be used for the building of working-class houses.

VIII. Any housing schemes carried out by public utility societies would, of course, have to comply with the requirements of the State or local authority in regard to layout, sanitation, etc.

BILLETING OF CIVILIAN WAR WORKERS IN ENGLAND.

In view of the housing difficulties being experienced in various places in the United States the British Billeting of Civilians Act,¹ which went into effect May 24, 1917, is of interest.

This act provides that civilians engaged on war work of national importance may, at the request of any Government department, be billeted with householders in the locality in which the shortage of lodging accommodation occurs. The act is administered by the Central Billeting Board, "constituted by order of the Minister of Munitions." When it is proposed to billet workers in any locality, the board is directed to establish in that locality a local committee whose duty it shall be:

(a) To ascertain the accommodation available in the locality for billets and the occupiers of premises within the locality who are willing to provide accommodation and the amount of accommodation they are willing to provide; and

¹ 17 and 8 Geo. 5. ch. 20. Billeting of civilians act, 1917.

(b) To allocate the persons to be billeted amongst the various persons liable to provide billets; and

(c) To prescribe the nature of the lodging, attendance, and meals or food to be provided and the scales of payment (within such limits as may be fixed by rules made by the board) to be made therefor; and

(d) To supervise billets; and

(e) To hear and settle complaints by persons liable to provide billets or by whom billets have been provided, and by persons billeted.

The act provides, however, that in assigning billets the local committee shall have regard to the convenience of the occupiers of the premises, and shall not billet workers with any householder who is unwilling to provide rooms nor in excess of the number he is willing to accommodate without first giving him the opportunity to submit his objections to the committee. Certain premises can not be billeted without the consent of the occupiers. Men can not be billeted in houses where women, with or without children, live alone; nor in houses of absent members of the forces; nor on premises of any female religious community.

There are analogous provisions where it is proposed to billet women.

The rights of the householder are safeguarded by the provision:

Any occupier of any such premises who feels himself aggrieved by a proposal to billet persons on him or by the number of persons to be billeted on him, or by the conduct or habits of persons billeted on him, may complain to the local committee, and the local committee shall take such complaint into consideration, and if satisfied of the justice of the complaint shall remedy the grievance; and if the occupier is dissatisfied with the decision of the local committee he may appeal to the board, and the board shall take the matter into consideration and, after giving the local committee an opportunity of being heard, may make such order as in the circumstances may appear to the board to be proper.

It should also be noted that the act provides for the regulation of room rents, as follows:

Every person on whom any worker is billeted shall be entitled to receive weekly payment in respect thereof in accordance with such scale applicable to the case as may be prescribed by regulations of the local committee, and to receive reasonable compensation for damage done to his premises and the contents thereof, fair wear and tear excepted.

The duties of both householder and lodger under the act are defined. The former must furnish information with respect to his premises and must provide the required rooms and furnish to the roomer such attendance and meals as may "reasonably be prescribed by regulations of the local committee." The latter must so conduct himself as to cause as little inconvenience to his landlord as possible, must give the landlord one week's notice, or payment in lieu of notice, before leaving the billet, and must pay all rent due before departure. He is liable to fine for (1) failure to leave his billet if ordered to do so by the local committee or (2) violence, drunkenness, or indecency of such character as to require his immediate removal from the billet.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

EMPLOYMENT IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN SEPTEMBER, 1918.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in September, 1918, from representative establishments in thirteen manufacturing industries. Comparing the figures of September of this year with those of identical establishments for September, 1917, it appears that in seven industries there was an increase in the number of people employed, and in six a decrease. Car building and repairing shows an increase of 23.7 per cent, while silk shows a decrease of 11.8 per cent.

All of the thirteen industries show an increase in the total amount of pay roll for September, 1918, as compared with September, 1917. The most important increase (104.8 per cent) is shown in car building and repairing, which is largely due to the application of the wage increases granted by the Director General of the Railroads. Percentage increases of 41.6, 38.7, and 38.2 are shown in cotton manufacturing, iron and steel, and hosiery and underwear, respectively.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN SEPTEMBER, 1917, AND SEPTEMBER, 1918.

Industry.	Estab- lish- ments report- ing for Sep- tember both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in Septem- ber—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).	Amount of pay roll in September—		Per cent of in- crease (+) or de- crease (-).
			1917	1918		1917	1918	
Automobile manufacturing.....	48	1 week..	113,889	117,290	+ 3.0	\$2,614,888	\$3,215,836	+ 23.0
Boots and shoes.....	70	..do.....	50,036	52,131	+ 4.2	715,729	980,828	+ 37.0
Car building and repairing.....	35	½ month.	39,798	49,248	+23.7	1,489,856	3,051,904	+104.8
Cigar manufacturing.....	57	1 week..	18,393	18,326	- .4	224,559	269,453	+ 20.0
Men's ready-made clothing.....	39	..do.....	22,941	21,568	- 6.0	357,572	416,878	+ 16.6
Cotton finishing.....	16	..do.....	10,970	10,334	- 5.8	162,001	204,386	+ 26.2
Cotton manufacturing.....	54	..do.....	52,525	50,506	- 3.8	596,853	845,032	+ 41.6
Hosiery and underwear.....	55	..do.....	28,412	28,507	+ .3	315,388	435,765	+ 38.2
Iron and steel.....	95	½ month.	157,524	158,361	+ .5	7,170,020	9,948,291	+ 38.7
Leather manufacturing.....	34	1 week..	14,583	14,741	+ 1.1	234,643	312,722	+ 33.3
Paper making.....	56	..do.....	26,513	27,200	+ 2.6	426,906	585,328	+ 37.1
Silk.....	43	2 weeks..	14,877	13,127	-11.8	349,014	423,788	+ 21.4
Woolen.....	50	1 week..	43,974	43,330	- 1.5	654,370	852,985	+ 30.4

The table below shows the number of persons actually working on the last full day of the reported pay period in September, 1917, and September, 1918. The number of establishments reporting on this question is small, and this fact should be taken into consideration when studying these figures.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON LAST FULL DAY'S OPERATION IN SEPTEMBER, 1917, AND SEPTEMBER, 1918.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for September both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of reported pay period in September—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			1917	1918	
Automobile manufacturing.....	30	1 week.....	82,768	81,441	- 1.6
Boots and shoes.....	16	do.....	6,161	7,432	+20.6
Car building and repairing.....	35	½ month.....	34,489	43,636	+26.5
Cigar manufacturing.....	19	1 week.....	4,511	4,014	-11.0
Men's ready-made clothing.....	10	do.....	10,174	8,840	-13.1
Cotton finishing.....	13	do.....	9,209	8,719	- 5.3
Cotton manufacturing.....	35	do.....	27,235	26,205	- 3.8
Hosiery and underwear.....	16	do.....	10,187	9,668	- 5.1
Iron and steel.....	73	½ month.....	121,346	121,509	+ .1
Leather manufacturing.....	17	1 week.....	8,823	9,739	+10.4
Paper making.....	20	do.....	8,110	8,779	+ 8.2
Silk.....	25	2 weeks.....	10,246	9,175	-10.5
Woolen.....	41	1 week.....	36,147	35,546	- 1.7

Comparative data for September, 1918, and August, 1918, appear in the following table. The figures show that in 3 industries there was an increase in the number of persons on the pay roll in September as compared with August and in 10 industries, a decrease. An increase of 2.7 per cent appears in car building and repairing, while the largest decreases—5.3 per cent and 4.2 per cent—are shown in silk and men's ready-made clothing, respectively.

In comparing September of this year with August, 9 industries show an increase in the amount of money paid to employees and 4 show a decrease. The greatest increase is 11.8 per cent in cigar manufacturing and the largest decrease, 5.4 per cent, in men's ready-made clothing.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN AUGUST, 1918, AND SEPTEMBER, 1918.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for August and September.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	Amount of pay roll in—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			August, 1918.	September, 1918.		August, 1918.	September, 1918.	
Automobile manufacturing.....	43	1 week.....	103,931	105,673	+1.7	\$2,856,530	\$2,924,456	+ 2.4
Boots and shoes.....	70	do.....	52,779	51,856	-1.7	925,508	978,921	+ 5.8
Car building and repairing.....	39	½ month.....	51,559	52,951	+2.7	3,295,832	3,332,413	+ 1.1
Cigar manufacturing.....	57	1 week.....	18,303	18,422	+ .7	241,856	270,389	+11.8
Men's ready-made clothing.....	35	do.....	22,639	21,699	-4.2	441,818	417,754	- 5.4
Cotton finishing.....	14	do.....	7,609	7,406	-2.7	139,275	142,057	+ 2.0
Cotton manufacturing.....	54	do.....	50,172	49,255	-1.8	801,151	817,497	+ 2.0
Hosiery and underwear.....	53	do.....	27,309	26,742	-2.1	400,288	408,928	+ 2.2
Iron and steel.....	95	½ month.....	157,592	156,854	- .5	9,654,582	9,831,694	+ 1.8
Leather manufacturing.....	35	1 week.....	15,674	15,273	-2.6	333,147	322,345	- 3.2
Paper making.....	54	do.....	25,654	25,474	- .7	551,158	547,867	- .6
Silk.....	42	2 weeks.....	13,865	13,127	-5.3	397,648	412,306	+ 3.7
Woolen.....	48	1 week.....	43,099	42,836	- .6	878,567	841,237	- 4.2

A comparatively small number of establishments reported as to the number of persons working on the last full day of the reported pay periods. The following table gives the figures for August and September, 1918:

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON LAST FULL DAY'S OPERATION IN AUGUST, 1918, AND SEPTEMBER, 1918.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for August and September.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of reported pay period in—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			August, 1918.	September, 1918.	
Automobile manufacturing.....	26	1 week....	70,372	72,324	+ 2.8
Boots and shoes.....	19	...do.....	10,341	9,926	- 4.0
Car building and repairing.....	38	$\frac{1}{2}$ month....	45,107	45,653	+ 1.1
Cigar manufacturing.....	16	1 week....	3,264	3,241	- .7
Men's ready-made clothing.....	10	...do.....	10,019	8,402	-15.1
Cotton finishing.....	11	...do.....	5,633	5,486	- 2.6
Cotton manufacturing.....	35	...do.....	25,356	25,243	- .4
Hosiery and underwear.....	15	...do.....	9,025	8,907	- 1.3
Iron and steel.....	84	$\frac{1}{2}$ month....	124,154	124,331	+ .1
Leather manufacturing.....	19	1 week....	11,275	11,119	- 1.4
Paper making.....	23	...do.....	10,059	9,883	- 1.8
Silk.....	26	2 weeks....	9,351	8,944	- 4.4
Woolen.....	40	1 week....	35,731	35,419	- .9

CHANGES IN WAGE RATES.

In 12 of the 13 industries there were certain establishments reporting wage-rate increases and in one—automobile manufacturing—a decrease during the period August 15 to September 15, 1918. No change was reported in the woolen industry. A number of firms did not answer the inquiry relating to wage-rate changes, but in such cases it is probably safe to assume that none were made.

Automobile manufacturing.—An average increase of 15 per cent, affecting 30 per cent of the force, was granted by one plant. The shop employees in one factory, and approximately 10 per cent of the force in another, received a 10 per cent increase. One establishment gave 50 per cent of the force a 5 per cent increase, while another establishment reported an increase of about 5 per cent, affecting about 21 per cent of the employees. One-third of the force in one plant and the entire force in another plant received increases, but no data was given as to the amount of the increase. The productive average hourly rate in one establishment was reduced approximately one-half a cent.

Boots and shoes.—Five plants granted increases of 10 per cent, which affected the entire force in two plants, about 48 per cent in one plant, about 5 per cent in the fourth, and the fifth plant applied the increase on all piece work. Two establishments granted a 10 per cent bonus, which was paid in war-savings stamps. The entire force in four factories were given percentage increases of 7, 6, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 2;

and two other concerns reported increases of 5 per cent to all of the employees. About 93 per cent of the force in one establishment and approximately 67 per cent in another plant were given increases of \$2 a week. An increase was reported by one factory, but no further information was given.

Car building and repairing.—Further increases were granted by railroads in accordance with Supplement No. 7 to General Order No. 27, effective September 1, 1918.

Cigar manufacturing.—One plant granted an increase of 26 per cent to 5 per cent of the employees and 11 per cent to another group of 5 per cent; and one factory gave an increase of 11 per cent to about 89 per cent of the employees. A 20 per cent increase to all of the employees was reported by one establishment. The entire force in one factory received a 15 per cent increase, and 65 per cent of the force in another factory were given an advance of 10 per cent. A general increase of 7 per cent was reported by one firm. One establishment granted an increase of 2 cents a hundred on rolling and 1 cent a hundred on bunchmaking. One plant reported an increase, but failed to give any further particulars.

Men's ready-made clothing.—An increase of 12½ per cent was given to 50 per cent of the force in one shop, and a 10 per cent increase to the cutters and trimmers was reported by another shop. One-third of the employees in one plant received an increase of about 5 per cent. Two establishments reported increases, which affected 80 per cent of the force in one shop, but no other data were given.

Cotton finishing.—An increase of 15 per cent was reported by one plant, but no statement was made as to the number receiving the increase.

Cotton manufacturing.—Increases of 25 per cent and about 20 per cent to all of the employees were reported by two establishments. One plant reported an increase of 15 per cent, but did not state the number receiving the increase. All the inside mill employees in one factory received an average increase of 10 per cent; about 7 per cent of the force in one mill were given a 10 per cent increase; and two mills granted increases of about 10 per cent, but both failed to give the number affected. One factory gave an increase of \$1 a week throughout the mill.

Hosiery and underwear.—One plant gave 25 per cent of the employees an increase of 20 per cent, while another plant granted an increase of about 20 per cent to 90 per cent of the force. An increase of 15 per cent was given to 75 per cent of the force in one mill. Three firms reported increases of 10 per cent, affecting the entire force in one, all of the full-time workers in another, and 50 per cent of the employees in the third plant. An increase of about

5 per cent to 80 per cent of the force was reported by one factory. Increases, which equaled approximately 5 per cent in the piece-work rates throughout the mill, were reported by one plant.

Iron and steel.—In one establishment the 55 per cent bonus was increased to 65 per cent, affecting all of the employees not already receiving it, and all of the base rates were also increased about 20 per cent. Five plants reported increases of 10 per cent, which affected approximately the entire force in one factory, all but the hot mill tonnage workers in another, 50 per cent of the employees in two plants, and about 20 per cent in the fifth plant; the entire force in one establishment and about 18 per cent of the employees in another received increases of approximately 10 per cent. An average increase of 8 per cent was reported by one plant, which failed to give the number affected. The machinists and toolmakers in one factory were increased $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $11\frac{1}{2}$ cents an hour, according to the class of work. Increases of 5 and 3 per cent were granted in two establishments to 50 and 55 per cent of the force, respectively. One mill reported an increase, but gave no further data. Five plants granted increases ranging from 1 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, affecting 60 per cent of the force in one, 41 per cent in one, about 50 per cent in one, those working on a tonnage basis only in another, and 30 per cent of the force in the fifth plant.

Leather manufacturing.—Five per cent of the men in two establishments received increases of 20 per cent in one plant and about 15 per cent in the second. An increase of 10 per cent to about 13 per cent of the force was reported by one company, while increases of approximately 10 per cent were given to about 20 per cent and 10 per cent of the employees in two factories. The entire force in one plant were given an increase of from 5 to 8 per cent, and practically the whole force in another plant were granted an increase of about 7 per cent. One firm made an increase of 5 per cent, but no statement was given as to the number affected. An advance of \$1 to \$2 a week to one-third of the employees was reported by one concern, and a general increase of 25 cents a day was made by one plant. One establishment reported an increase, but failed to give any further particulars.

Paper making.—Four establishments reported increases of 13, 10.4, 10, and about 10 per cent, affecting 3 per cent, 16 per cent, 25 per cent, and practically the entire force, respectively. One company advanced all of the factory workers 3 cents an hour. Some increases were granted by one concern, but no information was given as to the amount or number affected.

Silk.—A 25 per cent increase to 50 per cent of the force was reported by one mill. Two establishments granted increases of 20 per cent,

affecting about 34 per cent of the force in one mill, and the weavers in the other; all of the other help in the second establishment received an increase of 10 per cent. The entire force in one mill received an increase of about 20 per cent, and practically all of the employees in another mill were increased 17 per cent. An increase of 10 to 15 per cent was reported by one concern and 10 per cent by another, which affected practically the entire force in each; and an increase of about 10 per cent was reported by one plant, but no data was given in reference to the number receiving the increase. Increases of 9 per cent and $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent were given in two mills to 20 per cent of the force and about 34 per cent of the employees, respectively. In one factory 90 per cent of the employees were given an increase, but no report was made as to the per cent of increase.

PLACEMENT OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

In an effort to bring about the more equitable distribution of reserves of woman power in order to overcome the labor deficit wherever it may embarrass production of war material, the United States Employment Service has authorized each community labor board¹ to add to its membership two women, one representing the woman worker and the other the management. Upon all questions concerned in the utilization of women in industry the two woman members have full voting power, but are *ex officio* and nonvoting members of the board in respect to other matters. It is the function of each board in this connection to ascertain all the facts possible relative to the proposed work for women where requests for female workers are made by employers engaged in war work, and also to determine what nonwar industries should substitute women for men with a view to effecting the release of all men possible for work on war production exclusively. The instructions issued by the Employment Service concerning the jurisdiction of local boards in supplying woman labor contain the following provisions:

A. *War work.*—Whenever an employer, engaged in war work of a kind which heretofore has not been customarily performed by women, shall ask the United States Employment Service for assistance in securing women employees the application will be referred to the community labor board for the district where the work is to be done. The community labor board shall determine:

First. Whether the kind of work is one which it is proper for women to perform.

Second. Whether the conditions surrounding the particular job are such that it is proper for women to be employed at that particular place and under existing conditions.

Third. What, if any, modification in conditions must be made in order that the employment of women may be sanctioned.

¹An account of the organization of these boards appeared in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1918, pp. 64, 65.

Fourth. What, if any, limitations are necessary as to the ages of the women to be employed or otherwise.

The Employment Service will not assist in placing women in any war work except under the decisions of the local community labor board.

B. Nonwar work.—One of the first duties of each community labor board in securing the quota of male workers required from that community for war work is to determine what nonwar industries should substitute women for men, and in what positions in such industries such substitutions should be made.

In making this determination the question of the propriety of having women do such work, in all of its aspects, should be considered by the community labor board.

After deciding the industries and positions in which men should be replaced by women the community labor board should exercise all of its influence to induce employers to make such substitution. The Employment Service will give all possible assistance to employers in securing women for such positions.

The community labor boards are to base all their decisions relative to the use of women in industries upon the standards for the employment of women adopted by the War Labor Policies Board.¹

EQUAL PAY FOR EQUAL WORK.

The general employment of women in war work emphasized the desirability of an announcement by the Government of its attitude on the subject of paying women the same wages as men receive where the work performed and the degree of efficiency are the same. Accordingly the National War Labor Board, upon its organization,² stated one of its principles to be:

If it shall become necessary to employ women on work ordinarily performed by men, they must be allowed equal pay for equal work and must not be allotted tasks disproportionate to their strength.

Secretary Wilson of the Department of Labor has indorsed this view, and the War Department has gone on record as favoring equal pay for equal work done by women filling the places of men in war industry. In announcing this as the policy of the Ordnance Department, the following statement was made:³

Women are entering munitions establishments, replacing men who are pouring into the National Army cantonments. They are being assigned to work on drill presses, the making and marking of fuses, the loading of shells, the gauging of machinery and shells, the assembling of artillery, to inspection, to drafting, electrical, and carpentry work. It has been found, according to manufacturers, that women are proving more accurate than men in the timing of fuses and in inspection where particularly keen eyesight is required. They are proving better than men in assembling, because of the nimbleness of their fingers. Steps will be taken to enforce the policy of equal pay for equal work by women.

The Women in Industry Service of the Department of Labor and the War Labor Policies Board, in consultation with other Federal agencies, have worked out a program whereby the Government,

¹ The standards were printed in full in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, pp. 67, 68.

² See MONTHLY REVIEW for May, 1918, pp. 54-58, for an account of the organization of this board.

³ Official U. S. Bulletin for June 12, 1918, p. 14.

under its war powers, will stipulate in war contracts that no women shall be employed on night work in any industry in the United States except where the War Department shall declare an emergency in particular plants and where for a limited period a permit may be issued by the Secretary of Labor after full investigation by the Women in Industry Service and conference with the Council of National Defense.

ROLE OF THE EMPLOYMENT DEPARTMENT IN SECURING AND RETAINING EMPLOYEES.

Under the title "Hiring and firing" the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. has published, for the benefit of employers insured in the group insurance department of the company, suggestions on employment based on an analysis of the problems involved in securing, selecting, and retaining an adequate number of employees.¹

The fundamental problems, from the employers' standpoint, are stated to be the following: (1) To mobilize the sources of labor supply; (2) to analyze the requirements of the specific jobs of the plant; (3) to select the most suitable applicant; (4) to induct and "follow-up" the new employee; (5) to retain and develop all employees.

These problems are studied in the light of figures and data taken from the experience of various firms and used as a basis for the suggestions set forth in this study. Concerning the employment machinery, the following statement is made:

"The economy of installing employment departments is already apparent. The Dennison Manufacturing Co. found that during the first two years of their employment department a reduced turnover had netted them a saving of \$25,000, charging \$50 to the cost of replacing each experienced hand. The Curtis Publishing Co. estimated that in one year after the introduction of a centralized employment bureau there had been a saving of \$90 per person "landed on the books" because the applicant accepted was almost sure to "make good." In 1914 the Ford Motor Co. introduced the centralized employment bureau. The policy of the bureau is to transfer a man as many as six or eight times until a place is found where he can do the work and earn his \$5 a day. This policy reduced the discharges from 8,390 in 1913 to 27 in 1915.

"The Hayes Manufacturing Co., of Detroit, cut their turnover in two in the first year of the operation of an employment bureau and in the next four months the turnover was more than cut in two again. More significant even is the fact that this reduction was accompanied by a 30 per cent increase in output per man. The

¹ Hiring and firing. Suggestions for employers. Industrial service bureau Bulletin No. 1. Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York, 1918. 48 pp.

Solvay Co., of Detroit, in 1916 had an employment bureau in one of its two plants, the Semet-Solvay (Coke) Co., but not in the Solvay Process Co., which adjoined it. The latter company was having labor difficulties and to remedy them the employment manager of the Semet-Solvay Co. took over the hiring and firing in both plants, beginning May, 1916. In May the combined average turnover was 10 per cent; in June the turnover dropped to 8.3 per cent; in July it was 8 per cent; in August, 4.1 per cent; in September, 3.3 per cent; in October, 3 per cent; in November, 2.6 per cent; in December, 2.4 per cent; and during these same months the average labor turnover in Detroit "was jumping up by leaps and bounds." Such results give complete evidence of the value of centralized employment management."

Several methods for obtaining applicants are suggested as being open to the employment manager. Vacancies may be filled from among those (1) applying for work at the plant or by mail; (2) recommended by present employers or by a third person; (3) reached by advertising in newspapers, circulars, etc., or by scouting; (4) graduating or leaving schools; (5) registered by employment agencies; and (6) those recommended for promotion and transfer within the plant. Each method is discussed at length.

A rather detailed description is given of the methods for analyzing jobs and of selecting employees according to their fitness for particular work. The importance of giving attention to these matters is emphasized. Equally important are the methods pursued by the employment manager in so introducing the new employee to his work as to make the first impression a favorable one, and in developing a "follow up" system so that all causes of dissatisfaction may be removed and the employee assisted in "making good" and promoted as rapidly as his ability warrants.

The reduction of labor turnover is one of the greatest problems confronting the employment department. In this connection the report says:

"Comparatively few employers have realized that for every man on their pay roll they were probably hiring at least one new man every year. This 100 per cent turnover was very general even before the war, and is a sufficient argument to cause any employer to study the reason for his plant turnover.

"A recent examination of 100,000 causes of leaving employment in several representative plants of the country revealed the following facts:¹ 74.6 per cent quit of their own accord; 12.2 per cent were laid off; and 13.2 per cent were discharged.

¹ Standardization of the causes of leaving jobs, by J. D. Hackett. Industrial Management, The Engineering Magazine Co., publishers, 6 East Thirty-ninth Street, New York. March, 1918, p. 233.

"The large percentage of those quitting is probably abnormal and due to the unusual industrial conditions of war time. Obviously, however, the study of reasons for leaving is of vital importance in reducing turnover. A rubber company employing 12,000 men found in the analysis of their turnover of one year that a large percentage of the men left in spite of high wages because of the monotony of the work. Such a condition as this might perhaps have been remedied by routing the worker, shortening hours, or providing frequent intervals of rest, and still be less costly than allowing the turnover to continue. The Dennison Manufacturing Co. in 1915 reduced the number of employees leaving because of dissatisfaction with either pay or work to 17.5 per cent of the number of those leaving, dissatisfied, in 1913. This was due to the work of the employment department installed in 1914.

"The Youngstown Sheet & Tube Co., employing some 20,000 men, found 30 per cent of those who left them in 1917 (66 per cent reported reasons for leaving) doing so because of 'working conditions.'"

The reasons for leaving this company during the same year were as follows: Not enough money, 9 per cent; never started, 6; working conditions, 20;¹ discharged, 5; laid off, 1; dissatisfied, 2; better job, 12; needed at home, 8; living conditions, 2; failed to report, 28; personal reasons, 7.

Transfers and promotions within the plant, when practicable, are recommended as being effective in reducing turnover, and the report presents the following table to illustrate the effect which the establishment of an employment bureau has on provisions made for transfer and promotion:

PROVISION MADE FOR TRANSFER AND PROMOTION OF EMPLOYEES BY 18 FIRMS WITH AND 12 FIRMS WITHOUT SEPARATE EMPLOYMENT DEPARTMENTS.

Provision made by firms for transfer and promotion of employees.	Firms with separate employment departments, having specified provisions.		Firms without separate employment departments, having specified provisions.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Total number of firms.....	18	100.0	12	100.0
Definite plans for promotion.....	7	38.8	1	8.3
Information given employees as to opportunities for advance....	13	72.2	2	16.6
Written job specifications.....	14	77.7	1	8.3
Provision for transfers and try-outs in other departments.....	14	77.7	5	41.6
Full power of discharge given foreman.....	7	38.8	5	41.6
Investigation of cases of discharge.....	15	83.3	4	33.3
Investigation of majority of cases of "quitting".....	13	72.2	4	33.3

¹ Given as 30 per cent in the preceding paragraph. This is probably based upon the 66 per cent who reported reasons for leaving.

EXTENT OF UNEMPLOYMENT AMONG DISCHARGED SOLDIERS.

In view of the important aspect of the problem of finding employment for the discharged soldier, the solution of which will become more urgent as the war progresses and the men begin to return from the battle line, it may be profitable to note the situation as revealed by interviews with 22,283 men discharged from the British Army during the months of April, May, and June, 1918. In the August issue of the *Month's Work* (p. 32), a magazine published by the British Ministry of Labor, a table is given which shows the proportion of soldiers for whom employment had to be found and thus gives a fair index of the probable extent of unemployment to be expected among men in our own Expeditionary Force. It will be noted from the table that approximately 37 per cent of the men interviewed were seeking employment, while only 3.5 per cent stated that they did not require employment.

CONDITION OF SOLDIERS DISCHARGED FROM BRITISH ARMY IN SPECIFIED PERIODS AS TO REEMPLOYMENT.

Period.	Per cent of total number interviewed who stated they were—				
	Seeking employment.	Returning to definite employment, with previous employer or otherwise.	Returning to own business.	Not requiring employment.	Not fit for work at present.
April.....	44.3	40.6	5.1	3.1	6.9
May.....	36.1	43.0	4.7	3.6	12.6
June.....	33.0	48.7	5.7	3.9	8.7
April, May, and June.....	37.4	43.9	5.1	3.5	9.7

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

PROVISION TO PREVENT STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN MINNESOTA DURING THE WAR.

The annual report (unpublished) of the Minnesota State Board of Arbitration to the Governor on the work of the board during its first year ending June 1, 1918, states that prior to March 30 last, the board had had but few disputes brought before it, due to the fact that such matters could only be settled by mutual consent of the contending parties. To meet this obstacle the Governor, on March 30, 1918, issued a proclamation calling upon employees and employers to cooperate with the board in effecting a plan to promote industrial peace during the present emergency.

In consequence a declaration of basic principles to govern all disputes during the War was approved by representatives of employees and later by representatives of employers, and on April 16, at the request of the board of arbitration, the Commission of Public Safety issued its Order Number 30 embodying these principles and declaring that there shall be no strike or lockout for the duration of the War. The text of this order is as follows:

Whereas pursuant to the governor's proclamation of March 30, 1918, the members of the State Board of Arbitration have conferred with representatives of employers and employees for the purpose of adjusting all industrial disputes and thereby prevent strikes or lockouts during the War; and

Whereas as a result of said conference the executive council of the Minnesota State Federation of Labor, the Minnesota Employers' Association, and others have petitioned said board, through petitions of which the following is a copy:

To the Board of Arbitration of the State of Minnesota:

GENTLEMEN: Realizing that the full activity and energy of every citizen in some form or another must be effectively used for the successful prosecution and termination of the War, and that personal and selfish aims and ambitions must, at this time, be entirely set aside for the welfare of the country, and believing that loyalty is not confined to any one class or groups:

We propose that employer and employee, organized and unorganized, shall use every effort to prevent strikes and lockouts, to deal rationally and unselfishly with serious wage disputes, and for the period of the War not compel, or attempt to compel, discriminations in employment by strikes, threats of strikes, or lockouts.

To this end the undersigned suggest the adoption of the following basic conditions to cover both employer and employee, organized or unorganized, during the period of the War:

1. That employer and employee must recognize that now, and for the period of the War, continuous, efficient production can alone equip and sustain our military forces; that every dispute, whatever its motive, which interrupts production, furthers the ends and operates to the advantage of the public enemy.
2. That employees shall not ask for recognition of a union which had not been recognized before the War.

3. That employers, by a lockout or by other means, shall not try to break up a union which had been recognized before the War.

4. That employers and employees agree in good faith to maintain the existing status, in every phase of employment, of a union, nonunion, or open shop.

5. That employers and employees agree that differences with respect to wages or hours of labor shall be referred to the State Board of Arbitration for adjudication under the provisions of chapter 23, section 3941, of the Laws of Minnesota.

6. That during the period of the War, there shall be neither strike nor lockout under any circumstances.

In the event of an arbitration, pending the decision of the board, work shall be continued uninterrupted by either party; and

Whereas the State Board of Arbitration recommends to the Commission of Public Safety that the recommendations contained in said petition be given the force and effect of an order of said commission;

It is hereby ordered, That the aforesaid paragraphs, numbered 2 to 6, inclusive, be and the same are hereby given the force and effect of orders of this Commission during the War, and that the members of the State Board of Arbitration be given full power and authority to summon witnesses, and examine the same under oath, as provided in chapter 26, section 3, paragraph 4, and that the decision of said board shall be binding on the parties to said disputes. And pending the decision of the board "work shall be continued uninterrupted by either party" as in said petition requested.

In testimony whereof, I have hereunto set my hand and seal at the Capitol in the city of Saint Paul, this 16th day of April, 1918.

J. A. A. BURNQUIST,

*Governor and Ex-Officio Chairman of the Minnesota
Commission of Public Safety.*

H. W. LIBBY,
Secretary.

The effect of this order is demonstrated in a supplementary report prepared for this bureau by the board of arbitration. According to this, under the order and the existing law, since the issuance of the order on April 16, and down to September 13, the board of arbitration has had applications for the mediation or arbitration of difficulties in 39 cases, involving approximately 6,500 men and about 500 firms. Eleven of the applications for arbitration were from employers, 22 from employees, and 6 were referred from other sources. Six cases were settled by arbitration, and 33 by mediation and conciliation.

RECENT STRIKES IN GREAT BRITAIN.

MUNITIONS WORKERS.

According to reports in the British press, the munitions strike which ended July 29, 1918, pending adjustment of differences by a committee of inquiry, had for its direct cause the so-called "embargo" scheme of labor distribution adopted by the Ministry of Munitions.

Under this scheme certain controlled firms were prohibited from engaging "skilled labor of all types"—workmen entitled to the full district rate for the work on which they were employed. This order

did not, however, apply to the employment of a skilled discharged sailor or soldier. A notice of the embargo was first issued to foremen by a firm in Coventry, July 3, 1918. A stoppage of work ensued July 23, 1918, which spread to Birmingham and showed signs of extending to other munitions centers.

The reasons for this action on the part of the Government, as given in a statement by the Ministry of Munitions, are as follows:¹

Owing to the scarcity of skilled labor in the country created by the needs of the army and the grave emergency of the war it became necessary some time ago to make sure that the skilled labor available was fairly shared among munition firms, and in some cases to place a limit on the number of skilled workers which particular employers and firms were entitled to engage.

If this had not been done employers, instead of making reasonable efforts to economize skilled labor so that what we have might be used to the best public advantage, would have been led to strive against each other for skilled men regardless of the national interest. One firm would have been overcrowded with skilled men; another doing equally important work would have been stopped for want of them.

The Ministry of Munitions, after a full explanation had been given to the responsible trade-union leaders, issued instructions under their legal powers limiting for the present the right of employers in about 100 firms to add to the number of men on their staffs.

This action of the Government is absolutely necessary if we are to continue a proper supply of munitions to the armies in the field. It affects the employer to a far greater extent than it does an individual workman. The workman's right to leave his employment and to obtain work of national importance still remains.

There is no question of re-imposing the leaving certificate. Indeed, this prohibition in certain cases of employers engaging additional workmen out of proportion to what the country can now afford was one of the safeguards announced to Parliament in August last by the Minister of Munitions as a definite part of the policy of abolishing the leaving certificate.

It would seem from the statement quoted that the whole matter centered upon the questions of making the best use of the available supply of labor for munitions work and of preventing what is known as "labor poaching." Estimates for the Munitions Department in April showed that 100,000 men had been released for the army and that for some time men would probably be released at the rate of 1,000 per day. As a result of this "comb out," 50,000 or 60,000 places were vacant in the munition plants at the time of the strike. Side by side with this heavy demand on the man power available for munitions production has gone the increasing demand for output in the munition factories. With due consideration of the prevailing shortage of skilled labor the ministry deemed it necessary to restrict firms already supplied with as large a proportion of skilled workmen as their munitions contracts warranted from employing additional men of this class.

¹Manchester (England) Guardian, July 23, 1918, p. 8.

The workmen contended that the direct causes dated back to early in June when the Ministry of Munitions issued an "advanced draft of an enlarged war munitions volunteer scheme," whereby men refusing to volunteer were threatened with the withdrawal of their protection from military service. The Trade-Union Advisory Committee to the Ministry of Munitions refused to approve the scheme and it was tacitly abandoned. The workmen claimed that when this plan failed secret restriction of the employment of skilled labor was resorted to under the Defense of the Realm Act, section 8a, the object of which, the workmen believed, was to prevent skilled men giving up their jobs rather than to secure a more even distribution of such labor, the basis for this opinion being that exception was made of skilled men discharged from the army and the navy, whose skill could have been used in the undersupplied establishments.

In the view of labor, this action was an indirect form of industrial conscription, would reimpose the leaving certificates abolished a year ago, and not only would furnish the employer a means of ridding himself of active trade-unionists by forcing them out of their jobs into the army, but would strengthen the bad employer's position when industrial grievances arose. Trade-unionists also claimed that as the embargo was placed upon firms paying the best wages and furnishing the best working conditions, it would lower wages, and that, while it was now limited to 100 firms, there was nothing to limit its extension indefinitely.

The strikers demanded that the embargo be withdrawn. To this demand the Ministry of Munitions replied that, owing to the urgent necessity of sending greater supplies to the troops, it could not see its way clear to do so. Suggestions were then made by several of the labor organizations affected that local committees composed of an equal number of employers and employees be appointed to deal with the question.

On July 25, 1918, a conference between the Ministry of Munitions and the Trade-Union Advisory Committee was held in London and some misunderstandings which existed concerning the notices in regard to the embargo issued at Coventry were cleared up. The trade-union representatives asked that these instructions be canceled and agreed to advise the men affected to return to work, the Government to set up a committee of inquiry into the cause of the dispute, which committee should be composed of representatives of the Government, the employers, and the trade-unions concerned.

While the terms of settlement were pending, the Prime Minister issued a statement, July 27, 1918, directing that all men who, in disregard of the advice of their leaders, had ceased work in an attempt to force a change of national policy necessary to the adequate support

of the men facing death for their country, "will, if willfully absent from their work on or after Monday, the 29th of July, be deemed to have placed themselves voluntarily outside the area of munitions industries. Their protection certificates will cease to have effect from that date, and they will become liable to the provision of the Military Service Acts."¹

The strike ended July 29, 1918, "when twelve to fifteen thousand members of the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, the Amalgamated Toolmakers' Association, and the Steam Engine Makers' Society passed a resolution agreeing to accept the committee of inquiry as a means of settling the present dispute, and resume work forthwith on the understanding that the committee will be set up immediately, and will include local representatives of the men's societies, and also that the Government will withhold its threatened action in regard to calling up notices and that no victimization of individuals takes place."² Work was resumed on July 30, 1918.

The men denied that their decision was affected by the threatened enforcement in their case of the Military Service Acts. They were most influenced by the urgent needs of the army, as emphasized by the Trade-Union Advisory Committee and the acceptance by the Ministry of Munitions of the foregoing resolution. They believe that the embargo will be either suspended or withdrawn, or that it will be administered by a joint committee representing the Government, the employers, and representatives of the trade-unions.

According to the Ministry of Munitions, the committee of inquiry will consist of a representative of the Ministry of Munitions, Admiralty, and Ministry of Labor, and three representatives each of employers and labor to be appointed respectively by the Employers' Advisory Committee and the Trade-Union Advisory Committee to the Minister of Munitions.³

INTERIM REPORT ON LABOR EMBARGOES.

Since the foregoing account of the munitions strike was written, the committee of inquiry, known as Mr. Justice McCardie's Committee of Inquiry and appointed in accordance with the terms of the agreement, has submitted an interim report on labor embargoes.⁴

The committee finds that no witness expressed a doubt as to the existing labor shortage; that the immediate call for the production of special munitions upon which only skilled men can be used, the release of ever increasing numbers of skilled men for repair work in the Army, and the difficulty of extending the principle of dilution in the more

¹ Manchester (England) Guardian, July 27, 1918, p. 5.

² Manchester (England) Guardian, July 30, 1918, p. 5.

³ Manchester (England) Guardian, July 29, 1918, p. 5.

⁴ Great Britain. Ministry of Munitions. Mr. Justice McCardie's Committee of Inquiry. Interim report on labour embargoes. London, 1918. 12 pp.

highly skilled operations all "indicate the urgent need of economy in the use of skilled labor and the necessity of utilizing skilled men in the most effective and productive manner."

It is, therefore, "of opinion that the action of the Government in establishing the scheme was justified."

An unfortunate phase of the situation, however, developed in the misunderstanding on the part of the men of the wording of the notice of the embargo. The embargo provided that licenses for the employment of skilled labor might be secured from the chief dilution officer. As no mention was made of this fact in the notice which was issued merely as a guide to the foremen, the men, not having seen the embargo itself, fell into the error of thinking that the embargoed firms were absolutely prohibited from hiring skilled workmen.

The men were "also alarmed at the definition of 'skilled man' contained in that instruction, as they thought that it incorporated into the ranks of skilled men dilutees in receipt of the district rate of wages, and that it might, therefore, tend to undermine seriously the definition of 'skilled man' for the purpose of the Munitions of War Acts and the Treasury Agreements of March, 1915, and thus affect the restoration of the position of skilled men upon the cessation of the war. It was not understood that the definition was employed for the sole purpose of indicating to the employer the scope of the embargo letter."

The committee feels that since the dilution scheme expressed in the Treasury Agreements of March 19 and March 25, 1915, had been patriotically accepted by a large number of trade-unions of skilled workmen "it is essential that the workmen who assented to these agreements should be satisfied that the conditions of their acceptance will be fulfilled." And furthermore, it is of the opinion that all of the misapprehension occasioned by the embargo indicates "the necessity for full publicity and explanation to workmen and employers alike of Government policy from time to time with respect to labor matters."

The inquiry also reveals the fact that although the embargo was the immediate cause of the stoppage of work at Coventry and Birmingham, it was not the "only or indeed the substantial cause thereof." Other underlying causes of the stoppage of work which witnesses considered important will be discussed in a later report. For the present the committee makes the following recommendations:

(a) That means should be devised to provide that changes or developments in Government policy with respect to labor matters (so far as they concern munitions work) should be immediately and effectively communicated to the workmen and employers concerned, both centrally and locally, in order to secure their confidence and cooperation.

(b) That a joint committee of a consultative and advisory nature be established forthwith.

(c) That its constitution should be as follows:

A chairman to be appointed by the Government.

Three trade-union representatives to be appointed by the engineering group of the Trade-Union Advisory Committee to the Minister of Munitions.

Two trade-union representatives to be appointed by the trade-union representatives on the National Joint Committee of the Shipbuilders and Shipyard Trade-Unions.

One trade-union representative to be appointed by the less skilled trades group of the Trade-Union Advisory Committee to the Minister of Munitions.

One trade-union representative to be appointed by the Women's Trade-Union Advisory Committee to the Minister of Munitions.

Five employers to be appointed by the Engineering Employers' Advisory Committee to the Minister of Munitions.

Two employers to be appointed by the employers' representatives on the National Joint Committee of the Shipbuilders' Federation and Shipyard Trade-Unions.

(d) The following terms of reference are proposed:

"To consult with and advise the Admiralty and the Minister of Munitions on such questions relating to labor as the Admiralty and the Ministry of Munitions may submit for their consideration."

(e) The members of the committee, other than the chairman, should be subject to reappointment every three months.

(f) The committee should meet weekly in order to maintain close and constant touch with the problems which may arise.

(g) The meetings of the committee should be attended by the heads of the Labor Departments of the Admiralty and the Ministry of Munitions or by responsible officers of those departments.

LONDON POLICE.

On August 29, 1918, the members of the Metropolitan Police Force, variously estimated at 11,000 or 12,000 men, left duty, and on the following day the other branches of the National Union of Police and Prison Officers joined them. They were supported in this action by organized labor.

The men demanded:

(a) That the present war bonus of 12 s. (\$2.92) weekly be immediately increased to £1 (\$4.87) per week to all ranks of the London Metropolitan Police Force, and to be forthwith converted into permanent wages and to be made pensionable. Further, that a war bonus, calculated on a basis of 12½ per cent on all wages and allowances, be granted in addition to above demand.

(b) That Ex-Police Constable T. Thiel, provincial organizer of the National Union of Police and Prison Officers, and delegate to the London Trades Council, who was dismissed from the London Metropolitan Police Force for "grave breach of discipline in taking part in the management and being a member of an unauthorized association known as the National Union of Police and Prison Officers," be immediately reinstated without loss of pay or service.

(c) Complete "official" recognition of the National Union of Police and Prison Officers and its duly authorized officials.¹

Negotiations were at once opened between the men, the Prime Minister, and the Home Office which on August 31, 1918, resulted in the following concessions:

Wages increase of 13 s. (\$3.16) per week, pensionable war bonus 12 s. (\$2.92) per week, and allowances for each child of 2 s. 6 d. (61 cents) per week to remain; non-

¹ Local Government Journal and Officials' Gazette, Aug. 31, 1918, v:47:414.

contributory pension of 10 s. (\$2.43) per week for policemen's widows, widow's pension payable in case of service men at the front. The result is minimum wages pensionable £2. 3 s. (\$10.46) per week, war bonus 12 s. (\$2.92), making a total minimum of £2 15 s. (\$13.38), with children's allowances in addition.¹

The Prime Minister refused to recognize a police union in war time, citing as his reason the conditions which had arisen in Russia from the existence of a union or a committee among the soldiers. As the police are a semimilitary force, he felt that the same conditions applied to them as to the soldiers. He favored, however, some organization by which members of the police force could bring their grievances before the proper authorities, and promised that means for presenting communications of this kind would be discussed with the men at an early date. The ex-police constable, T. Thiel, was reinstated.

LONDON MOTOR-OMNIBUS AND TRAMWAY WORKERS.²

The principle of "Equal pay for equal work" underlying the recent strike of the London motor-omnibus, tramway, and underground workers is one of special interest in the adjustment of wage difficulties. The problem of women's work and women's pay has again been raised, and must be settled with fairness and justice if the present and future interests of the community are to be promoted.

The strike originated among the women conductors whose grievance was that they had not been included in the 5 s. (\$1.22) weekly war bonus granted to the male employees by an award of the Committee on Production, July 9, 1918.

The application for advance in wages July 9, 1918, "was for an increase of 12½ per cent upon the present total earnings or for a standard increase equivalent thereto, and for such a revision of the award of March 8, 1918, as would provide for equal payment for women as for men, both as regards war wages and basic rates."

In dealing with this claim the Committee on Production increased the war wages already paid to men 21 years of age and over from 20 s. to 25 s. (\$4.87 to \$6.08) a week, this standard increase to be in lieu of the 12½ per cent bonus demanded. In the case of women's wages, however, the committee found that their claim to a bonus of 12½ per cent had not been established, and arrived at a like conclusion regarding the application for the revision of the award of March 8, basing their attitude in this matter upon the fact that up to July 9, 1918, the original grant of the 12½ per cent bonus by the Minister of Munitions and all subsequent extensions of it had been confined to male employees 21 years of age and over.

¹ Manchester (England) Guardian, Sept. 2, 1918, p. 5.

² Summarized from The Times (London), Aug. 30, 1918.

To this award the women protested and on August 17, 1918, a strike was called. The men employees in general supported the women. While the men had nothing to gain from the settlement of this particular strike they felt that if they would avoid a double standard of wages in the future, it would be to their best interests to help the women in their fight for wage equality. Those who opposed the women's action did so on the ground that many of the women were the wives of soldiers, and were, therefore, receiving separation allowances, whereas the men had families to support.

The claim submitted by the workers was as follows:

(a) Interpretation of Committee on Production Awards, viz, whether under clause 14 of the award of July 9, 1918, the committee intended to nullify any agreements or undertakings, and in particular any such undertaking as is alluded to in clause 4 of the award of March 8, 1918.

(b) That equal total payments be made to women as to men for equal work in the tramway and omnibus undertakings, parties to the awards of March 8 and July 9, 1918.

(c) That any present change of payment should date from the beginning of the first full pay day following July 9, 1918.

(d) That any future changes of payments should take place conjointly with those of the men.

Negotiations which followed between the Ministry of Labor and the employees resulted in a resumption of work on the part of the workers, and in the referring of the claim to the Committee on Production for settlement. Representatives of the employees were heard August 26 and 29, 1918, and the decision was rendered August 30, 1918, granting the 5 s. (\$1.22) increase. In making this award the committee stated that since the award of July 9, 1918, the Minister of Munitions had granted women munition workers an advance of 5 s. (\$1.22) per week and from a consideration of that award it had concluded that the women transport workers were entitled to the advance they sought.

TERMS OF THE AWARD.

With regard to item (b) of the claim so far as it relates to an application for an increase of wages, the decision of the committee is as follows:

1. To those grades of women aged 18 and over whose terms of employment include an undertaking that they shall be paid the same rates as the grades of men whose places they have filled, there shall be paid such advances as shall give 25 s. (\$6.08) per week over the prewar rates of the grades concerned, payment to be made on the basis of a week of six days or six shifts.

2. In the case of women aged 18 and over not covered by clause 10 (1) the advances now being paid shall be increased by 5 s. (\$1.22) a week, subject to a maximum of 25 s. (\$6.08) a week over the prewar rates of the grades concerned, payment to be made on the basis of a week of six days or six shifts.

3. The increases hereby awarded shall take effect as from the beginning of the first full pay following July 9, 1918. They are to be regarded as war wages and recognized as due to and dependent on the existence of the abnormal conditions now prevailing in consequence of the war.

In regard to the other two items in the claim the committee stated that the award of July 9, 1918, did not nullify any agreements then existing between any of the parties to the award relating to the wages of women; that it approved the principle of considering changes in the payment of women conjointly with those in the payment of men and advised the formulation of an agreement whereby a periodical review of wages in the industry concerned might be made.

The committee also recommended that a special inquiry, in which women should take part, be made into the whole question of women's wages in relation to men's, with a view to adopting a general guiding principle for dealing with this subject. The Government has decided to appoint this committee.

In the settlement of the omnibus strike two principles were established; namely, that women have the right to the same rates of pay as men for work of equal quality, and that separation allowances shall not constitute a reason for a rebate in the settlement of these rates.

THE YORKSHIRE MINERS.

In 1914, 400,000 British miners voluntarily enlisted for service at the front, and it has been only by commendable effort on the part of the remaining workers and by the introduction of labor-saving machinery that the output necessary for Government use and for export to the Allies has not been diminished to a greater extent than it has.

Since that time recruiting among the coal miners has reduced the output of coal in Great Britain by millions of tons per annum. Recently the situation became so critical that the Government took steps to reman the pits by releasing from military service men of low medical categories at the rate of nearly 100 per day, and measures have even been taken to get men from France into the mines in order to increase the output to the necessary amount.

In view of the urgency of the situation regarding the coal supply, the strike of the Yorkshire miners, August 21, 1918, seems to have been unexpected even by many of the working miners themselves.

The trouble arose in the Yorkshire Miners' Association over the interpretation of an award regarding the wages and working hours of colliery surface workers.

In January, 1918, the National Federation of Colliery Surface Workers reached an agreement with the employers for a 54-hour week, the Committee on Production refusing a claim for an 8-hour day, and the agreement has been faithfully kept. Some months later the Yorkshire Miners' Association submitted a similar claim in behalf of its surface workers and was also awarded a 54-hour week. The association then advanced the claim that the 54 hours included meal

times, for which the members should be paid, an arrangement, which had it been agreed to, would have virtually effected a 48-hour week. This the coal owners contended was not the intention of the arbitrator, and proceeded to make deductions from wages for the hours used as meal times.

After a week's futile discussion notices were posted August 21, 1918, and on August 22 from 160,000 to 170,000 Yorkshire miners quit work.

In the meantime conferences between the representatives of the employers and of the men and the coal controller, which had been arranged for August 22, 1918, ended with the issue of an official instruction to the men to return to work. The proceedings of the conferences were private, and the terms of the settlement were not made public.

IMMIGRATION.

IMMIGRATION IN AUGUST, 1918.

The number of immigrant aliens admitted into the United States during the year 1917, as compared with the number admitted during the year 1916, decreased 56.9 per cent. During 1917 the decrease from the preceding month for January, February, and March was 19.9, 22.3, and 19.4 per cent, respectively. For April, however, the number of immigrant aliens admitted showed an increase of 32.3 per cent over the number admitted in March. As compared with April, the figures of May showed a decrease of 48.9 per cent. The figures for June indicated an increase of 5.5 per cent over those for May. During July only 9,367 immigrant aliens were admitted. As compared with the figures for July, those for August showed an increase of 7.3 per cent. In September the number was 139 less than the number admitted in July. As compared with August, the figures for September showed a decrease of 8.2 per cent. In October there was an increase over the September arrivals of 0.6 per cent. In November a decrease of 30.6 per cent from the number admitted in October was shown. In December there was an increase of 8.4 per cent. In January, 1918, there was a decrease of 9 per cent as compared with December, 1917. February showed an increase over January of 16.2 per cent, while March as compared with February showed a decrease of 11.9 per cent. April as compared with March showed an increase of 46.7 per cent, May as compared with April, an increase of 59.5 per cent, while June as compared with May decreased 6.4 per cent. July as compared with June showed a decrease of 45.4 per cent. The increase in August over July was 1.1 per cent.

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED INTO THE UNITED STATES IN SPECIFIED MONTHS
1913 TO 1918.

Month.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	
						Number.	Per cent increase over preceding month.
January.....	46,441	44,708	15,481	17,293	24,745	6,356	19.0
February.....	59,156	46,873	13,873	24,740	19,238	7,388	16.2
March.....	96,958	92,621	19,263	27,586	15,512	6,510	11.9
April.....	136,371	119,885	24,532	30,560	20,523	9,541	46.7
May.....	137,262	107,796	26,069	31,021	10,487	15,217	59.5
June.....	176,261	71,728	22,598	30,764	11,095	14,247	16.4
July.....	138,244	60,377	21,504	25,035	9,367	7,780	145.4
August.....	126,180	37,706	21,949	29,975	10,047	7,862	1.1
September.....	136,247	29,143	24,513	36,398	9,228
October.....	134,440	30,416	25,450	37,056	9,284
November.....	104,671	26,298	24,545	34,437	6,446
December.....	95,387	20,944	18,901	30,902	6,987

¹ Decrease.

Classified by nationality the number of immigrant aliens admitted into the United States during specified periods and in August, 1918, was as follows:

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED INTO THE UNITED STATES DURING SPECIFIED PERIODS AND IN AUGUST, 1918, BY NATIONALITY.¹

Nationality.	Year ending June 30—				August, 1918.
	1915	1916	1917	1918	
African (black).....	5,660	4,576	7,971	5,706	634
Armenian.....	932	964	1,221	221	18
Bohemian and Moravian.....	1,651	642	327	74	4
Bulgarian, Serbian, Montenegrin.....	3,506	3,146	1,134	150	14
Chinese.....	2,469	2,239	1,843	1,576	124
Croatian and Slovenian.....	1,942	791	305	33
Cuban.....	3,402	3,442	3,428	1,179	90
Dalmatian, Bosnian, Herzegovinian.....	305	114	94	15
Dutch and Flemish.....	6,675	6,443	5,393	2,200	263
East Indian.....	82	80	69	61	10
English.....	38,662	36,168	32,246	12,980	1,406
Finnish.....	3,472	5,649	5,900	1,867	70
French.....	12,636	19,518	24,405	6,840	783
German.....	20,729	11,555	9,682	1,992	117
Greek.....	15,187	26,792	25,919	2,602	84
Hebrew.....	26,497	15,108	17,342	3,672	188
Irish.....	23,503	20,636	17,462	4,657	438
Italian (north).....	10,660	4,905	3,796	1,074	98
Italian (south).....	46,557	33,909	35,154	5,234	338
Japanese.....	8,609	8,711	8,925	10,168	841
Korean.....	146	154	194	149	5
Lithuanian.....	2,638	599	479	135	7
Magyar.....	3,604	981	434	32	3
Mexican.....	10,993	17,198	16,438	17,602	73
Pacific Islander.....	6	5	10	17
Polish.....	9,065	4,502	3,109	668	22
Portuguese.....	4,376	12,208	10,194	2,319	97
Roumanian.....	1,200	953	522	155	2
Russian.....	4,459	4,858	3,711	1,513	109
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	2,933	1,365	1,211	49	11
Scandinavian.....	24,263	19,172	19,596	8,741	749
Scotch.....	14,310	13,515	13,350	5,204	522
Slovak.....	2,069	577	244	35	12
Spanish.....	5,705	9,259	15,019	7,909	309
Spanish-American.....	1,667	1,881	2,587	2,231	285
Syrian.....	1,767	676	976	210	17
Turkish.....	273	216	454	24
Welsh.....	1,390	983	793	278	23
West Indian (except Cuban).....	823	948	1,369	732	87
Other peoples.....	1,877	3,388	2,097	314	9
Total.....	326,700	298,826	295,403	110,618	7,862

The total number of departures of emigrant aliens in August was 3,552.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

CONCILIATION WORK OF THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, SEPTEMBER 16 TO OCTOBER 15, 1918.

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 September 16, 1918, and October 15, 1918, in 254 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 THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE
DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION,
SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918.

Dispute.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Controversy, miners, Bakewell Coal Co., Bellaire, Ohio.....	40	135	Pending.
Controversy, typographers, American Newspaper Publishing Assn., Chicago, Ill.			Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, Hayes Pump & Planter Co., Galva, Ill.	400	600	Pending.
Controversy, Wistrand Mfg. Co., Galva, Ill.			Do.
Controversy, Wetmore Mechanical & Laboratory Co., Milwaukee, Wis.	60		Do.
Strike, carpenters on Government Tubercular Hospital, Azalea, N. C.			Adjusted.
Strike, barbers, San Diego, Cal.	65	200	Pending.
Controversy, machinists, blacksmiths, pipe fitters, electricians, and boiler makers in smelter, Denver, Colo.			Do.
Threatened strike, street and electrical railway employees, Interurban Line, Toledo, Ohio.			Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, drop forgers, Billings & Spencer Co., Hartford, Conn.	150	300	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, Colts Fire Arms Co., Hartford, Conn.	60	5,500	Pending.
Threatened strike, Atlas Power Co., Reynolds, Pa.	36	850	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, Northern Railway Co. and Southern Indiana Traction Co., New Albany, Ind.			Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, painters, decorators, and hard wood finishers, Kramer Woodwork Co., Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, painters, decorators, and hard wood finishers, George W. Smith & Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	300	700	Do.
Controversy, Ohio & Colorado Smelting & Refining Co., Salida, Colo.			Pending.
Threatened strike, toolmakers and machinists, Savage Arms Co., Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.
Threatened strike, toolmakers and machinists, Carlson & Wenstrom Wildman Co., Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, electrical workers, Kinlock Telephone Co., St. Louis, Mo.			Do.
Threatened strike, Northwestern Leather Co., Sault Ste. Marie, Mich.	325		Do.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918—Continued.

Dispute.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Threatened strike, plumbers and steamfitters, pipe-fitting industry, Grand Rapids, Mich.	50	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, Pacific Marine & Construction Co., San Diego, Cal.	250	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, Red Star Milling & Elevator Co., Wichita, Kans.	360	Do.
Strike, Sterling Machine & Stamping Co., Wellington, Ohio.	81	96	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Strike, electrical workers and laborers, Milwaukee Railroad System west of Beverly (Wash.), Seattle, Wash.	150	20	Adjusted.
Strike, machinists, Halladie & Co., Spokane, Wash.	57	73	Do.
Controversy, carpenters, sheet-metal and structural-iron workers, Braun & Stewart Co., Morrisville, Pa.	500	300	Do.
Threatened strike, all crafts, Richmond, Ind.	3,235	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, Llewellyn Iron & Steel Co., Torrance, Cal.	63	350	Pending.
Controversy, woodworking employees, Valk Murdock shipyards, Charleston, S. C.	150	500	Adjusted.
Lockout, machinists, Norfolk Ship Building & Drydock Co., Norfolk, Va.	270	2,500	Pending.
Controversy, molders, Ball Engine Co., Erie, Pa.	57	Adjusted.
Controversy, molders, National Steel Foundry, Erie, Pa.	1	200	Do.
Threatened strike, Kentucky Wagon Mfg. Co., Louisville, Ky.	850	Adjusted.
Controversy, steamfitters of United States and Canada, Camp Knox station, Louisville, Ky.	15,000	Do.
Controversy, Milton Mfg. Co., Milton, Pa.	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, Pennsylvania Iron & Steel Co., Lancaster, Pa.	Do.
Controversy, Boose Glove Factory, Kewanee, Ill.	750	No intervention necessary.
Threatened strike, street railway employees, Grand Rapids, Mich.	Pending.
Controversy, machinists, Cleveland Hdw. Co., Cleveland, Ohio.	Do.
Threatened strike, carpenters, Watson Engineering Co., Cleveland, Ohio.	18	7,000	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, metal polishers, American Wood Run Co., Onaway, Mich.	50	Pending.
Controversy, Royal Packing Co., Los Angeles, Cal.	65	150	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, Welman, Seaver, Morgau Co., Akron, Ohio.	180	1,000	Do.
Strike, textile workers, Winsted Hosiery Co. and New England Knitting Co., Winsted, Conn.	35	Majority of men involved and most of them returned to work. On investigation of situation commissioner found nothing of a practical nature could be done.
Controversy, stereotypers, Minneapolis Tribune, Minneapolis, Minn.	Pending.
Walkout, miners, Consolidated Copper Mines Co., Kimberly, Nev.	Do.
Controversy, metal polishers, Toledo Scale Co., Toledo, Ohio.	9	641	Adjusted.
Lockout, hair spinners, Cudahy Packing Co., East Chicago, Ind.	7	550	Do.
Controversy, street car employees, Springfield, Ohio	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, Reading Iron Co. (4 subsidiary plants and 8 other companies), Reading, Pa.	300	1,000	Do.
Controversy, Scott Foundry Co., Reading, Pa.	27	200	Do.
Lockout, Merrill Hosiery Co., Hornell, N. Y.	37	82	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, moving-picture operators and stage mechanics, Butte, Mont.	200	500	Do.
Controversy, teamsters, Butte, Mont.	400	5,000	Do.
Strike, Great Lakes Dredge Co., Milwaukee, Wis.	26	50	Do.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918—Continued.

Disputa.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Threatened strike, carpenters, Savage Arms Corporation, Utica, N. Y.	100	450	Pending.
Controversy, Remington Arms Co. (machinists), Ilion, N. Y.	6,900	10,000	Do.
Controversy, Rome Locomotive Works, Rome, N. Y.	Do.
Controversy, Rome Wire Co., Rome, N. Y.	600	900	Do.
Threatened strike, Rome Mig. & Locomotive Co., Rome, N. Y.	500	1,950	Do.
Threatened strike, carpenters, Rutland Railroad Co., Rutland, Vt.	41	100	Adjusted.
Controversy, machinists, Midvale Steel Co., Coatesville, Pa.	Pending.
Controversy, jewelry trade, Providence, R. I.	Do.
Threatened strike, Simmons Hardware Co., St. Louis, Mo.	24	50	Work was modified and wages cut; 24 men quit; unskilled men employed.
Strike, electrical workers, Army Base Hospital, Hoboken, Pa.	18	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, clay and brick workers, New Ulm, Minn.	57	Pending.
Threatened strike, carpenters, Des Moines, Iowa.	1,200	400	Adjusted.
Strike, plasterers, Des Moines, Iowa.	200	Do.
Threatened strike, street car employees, Wilmington & Philadelphia Street Car System, Wilmington, Del.	600	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, Northern Cooperage Co., St. Paul, Minn.	Pending.
Threatened strike, bakers, San Antonio, Tex.	120	85	Adjusted.
Controversy, telegraph and telephone companies, Detroit, Mich.	Committee on investigation appointed by Postmaster General.
Controversy, electrical workers, Curtis Aeroplane Co., Buffalo, N. Y.	22	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, employees, 9 machine cooper shops, Chicago, Ill.	900	300	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, Detroit United Railway, Detroit, Mich.	100	2,800	Adjusted.
Controversy, mineral workers, Mulberry District, Mulberry, Fla.	2,300	100	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, grain handlers, Chicago, Ill.	Pending.
Threatened strike, stage employees and moving-picture operators, San Francisco, Cal.	150	Adjusted.
Lockout, machinists, Winslow Bros. Co., Chicago, Ill.	325	1,950	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, machinists, New York Air Brake Co., Watertown, N. Y.	2,200	1,000	Do.
Threatened strike, machinists, Apperson Bros. Automobile Co., Kokomo, Ind.	200	350	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, machinists, Globe Stove & Range Co., Kokomo, Ind.	50	200	Do.
Threatened strike, machinists, Conron, McNeal Co., Kokomo, Ind.	250	Do.
Threatened strike, Perflex Radiator Co., Racine, Wis.	150	200	Do.
Controversy, painters, decorators, paperhangers, Denver, Colo.	Pending.
Controversy, enginemen, Marion & Eastern Railroad Co., Marion, Ill.	4	240	Adjusted.
Controversy, Mountain States Telephone & Telegraph Co., Denver, Colo.	Do.
Threatened strike, American Can Co., Maywood, Ill.	6	1,250	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, bakers, Columbus, Ohio.	Pending.
Threatened strike, Bozeman Milling Co., Bozeman, Mont.	60	Adjusted.
Controversy, American Steel & Wire Co., Trenton, N. J.	Pending.
Controversy, American Sheet Metal Works, New Orleans, La.	Adjusted.
Strike, pattern makers, Cincinnati, Ohio.	63	142	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, electrical workers, Utah Power & Light Co., Salt Lake City, Utah.	160	500	Pending.
Controversy, San Francisco Newspaper Publishers' Association, San Francisco, Cal.	Do.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918—Continued.

Dispute.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Controversy, Glencoe Mine, Diamond Coke & Coal Co., Glencoe, Wyo.	160		Adjusted.
Threatened strike, carpenters, Symington Forge Works, Rochester, N. Y.			Do.
Threatened strike, carpenters, Bridgeford Tool Works, Rochester, N. Y.			Do.
Controversy, Pacific Fruit Express, Los Angeles, Cal.			Pending.
Threatened strike, Steacy-Schmidt Manufacturing Co., York, Pa.	100	300	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, pattern makers, New York Air Brake Co., Watertown, N. Y.	6		Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, machinists, Joliet, Ill.			Pending.
Controversy, machinists, Toledo Bridge & Crane Co., Toledo, Ohio.			Do.
Threatened strike, machinists, Tillotson Manufacturing Co., Toledo, Ohio.	100	300	Do.
Controversy, machinists, Bock Bearing Co., Toledo, Ohio.	300	400	Do.
Strike, chauffeurs, San Antonio, Tex.	27	225	Unable to adjust.
Controversy, engineers and firemen, Ohio Electric Ry. Co., Zanesville, Ohio.			Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, docks of Pittsburgh Coal Co., Duluth, Minn., and Superior, Wis.			Pending.
Strike, rolling-mill hands, Louisville Iron & Steel Co., Louisville, Ky.	1	250	Adjusted.
Strike, piano workers, Cable Piano Co., Chicago, Ill.	125	75	All of the strikers employed elsewhere.
Controversy, carpenters, Memphis, Tenn.	5	200	Adjusted.
Strike, mail-order men and packers, Willys-Overland Co., Toledo, Ohio.	220	11,980	Do.
Controversy, New Doty Mfg. Co., Janesville, Wis.	25		Pending.
Controversy, Rock River Machine Co., Janesville, Wis.	25		Do.
Strike, General Mfg. Co., Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, molders and coremakers, Trenton, N. J.			Do.
Strike, Wilson & Willard Mfg. Co., Los Angeles, Cal.	30	35	Unable to adjust.
Threatened strike, The Universal Machine Co., Bowling Green, Ohio.	150	135	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, Western Chemical Co., Denver, Colo.			Do.
Controversy, Knoxville Iron Co., Knoxville, Tenn.	28	525	Pending.
Controversy, fire fighters, Omaha, Nebr.	235	85	Do.
Controversy, American Chain Co., Marion, Ind.	80	150	Do.
Controversy, Ross Gear Tool Co., machinists, Lafayette, Ind.	275	400	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Strike, janitors, Joliet, Ill.	28		Board could do nothing as tax levy and budget had been prepared last summer. Most of janitors employed elsewhere and board has hired some women and a few men to fill vacated places.
Threatened strike, coppersmiths, Atlas Copper & Brass Co., and five other shops, Chicago, Ill.	90	250	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, master painters, Wilmington, Del.	170		Do.
Controversy, pattern makers, Pittsburgh, Pa.	500		Pending.
Threatened strike, butchers, New York, N. Y.	300		Do.
Controversy, structural-iron workers and pile drivers, New Orleans, La.			Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, metal polishers, Jamestown, N. Y.			Pending.
Controversy, electrical workers, Aerial Gunnery School, Miami, Fla.			Referred to War Department.
Controversy, Illinois Lumber Co., Carlinville, Ill.	150		Adjusted.
Controversy, American Can Co., Geneva, N. Y.	360		Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, leather workers, Alexander Bros. Co., Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918—Continued.

Dispute.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Strike, molders, Alten Machine & Foundry Works, Lancaster, Ohio.	20	75	Manager refused to meet men in conference for purpose of adjusting questions involved. Claims he can not use men, so will not employ them.
Threatened strike, machinists, Savage Arms Corporation, Utica, N. Y.	2,000	4,000	Pending.
Controversy, Artercraft Lithographing Co., Detroit, Mich.	8	150	Adjusted.
Controversy, Calbert Lithographing Co., Detroit, Mich.	12	150	Do.
Controversy, Schuylkill Railway Co., Girardsville, Pa.	52	70	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy molders, O'Neil Iron Works, Worthington Pump & Machine Co., and H. G. Trout Co., Buffalo, N. Y.	100	Do.
Controversy, metal polishers, Gillette Safety Razor Co., Boston, Mass.	28	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, pattern makers, West Side Foundry Co., Watervleit, N. Y.	8	200	Do.
Controversy, Lowell Bleachery Co., St. Louis, Mo.	Pending.
Threatened strike, Crowell-Lundoff-Little, carpenters, Rochester, N. Y.	1,000	3,000	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, hodcarriers and laborers, Bozeman, Mont.	40	200	Do.
Strike, firemen, Oak Park, Ill.	Pending.
Walkout, Schaffer Pen Co., Fort Madison, Iowa.	Adjusted before commissioners arrival.
Strike, pressmen's assistants, General Manifolding & Printing Co., Franklin, Pa.	12	200	Adjusted.
Controversy, molders, Producers Supply Co., Franklin, Pa.	Pending.
Threatened strike, wire-rope workers, Williamsport Wire Rope Co., Williamsport, Pa.	85	125	Do.
Lockout, coremakers and molders, Stewart & Werner Mfg. Co., Beloit, Wis.	300	500	Adjusted.
Controversy, machinists, Fairbanks Morse Mfg. Co., Beloit, Wis.	25	2,500	Do.
Controversy, Briggs & Stratton Mfg. Co., Milwaukee, Wis.	100	300	Do.
Strike, Lasky Motion Picture Studio, Los Angeles, Cal.	100	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Lockout, metal polishers, DeVilbiss Mfg. Co., Toledo, Ohio.	5	235	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, Morning Mine, Federal Mining & Smelting Co., Mullan, Idaho.	Pending.
Controversy, John Kuestner Mfg. Co., Philadelphia, Pa.	4	15	Adjusted.
Controversy, D. W. Britton Cooperage Co., Greenbay, Wis.	Pending.
Controversy, metal-trades workers, Wilkes-Barre and Pittston, Pa.	4,000	All except Exeter Machine Works have been referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, furnace men, Bon Air Coal & Iron Co. and Warner Iron Co., Allens Creek, Tenn.	200	There will be no strike whether settlement is effected or not, but anticipate employees will leave unless satisfactory settlement is made.
Threatened strike, textile workers, Graniteville Mfg. Co., Graniteville, S. C.	400	100	Pending.
Threatened strike, tannery workers, W. F. Mosser Co., tanneries and extract plant, Richwood, W. Va.	322	50	Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, boiler makers, Indiana Steel Co., Gary, Ind.	7	Adjusted.
Strike, tailors, Newark, N. J.	300	Pending.
Controversy, Oscar Frommel & Bro., New York City.	Do.
Strike, street railway employees, Buffalo, N. Y.	2,500	Do.
Threatened strike, laborers, Bausch & Lomb war building, Rochester, N. Y.	1,100	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, engineers on coal-carrying towboats on Kanawha and Ohio Rivers, Point Pleasant, W. Va.	54	200	Do.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918—Continued.

Dispute.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Controversy, structural-iron workers, Granger & Co., Louisville, Ky.			Pending.
Controversy, Huntington Steel Co., Huntington, Ind.			Do.
Threatened strike, street-car employees, Erie, Pa.	300		Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, molders, Worcester Iron Foundry, Worcester, Mass.			Pending.
Controversy, toolmakers, Sterling Tool & Machine Co., New York.			Do.
Strike, blacksmiths and carpenters, Lindsay Wagon Works, Laurel, Miss.	19	11	Unable to adjust.
Threatened strike, molders, car wheel foundries, St. Louis, Mo.	250	1,500	Adjusted.
Controversy, motormen and conductors, Southeastern & Ohio Ry. Co., Zanesville, Ohio.	60		Do.
Strike, engineers and firemen, Ohio Electric Co., Zanesville, Ohio.	8	100	Do.
Controversy, metal polishers, buffers, and platers, 20 or more firms, Rochester, N. Y.	202	287	Do.
Controversy, meat cutters and butcher workmen, New York.	800		Do.
Controversy, cooks and waiters, Phoenix, Ariz.			Pending.
Threatened strike, Carpenter Steel Co., Reading, Pa.	5		Adjusted.
Strike, Hydro Electro Co., electrical workmen, Connersville, Ind.	12	45	Do.
Controversy, carpenters, Metz Mfg. Co., Waltham, Mass.			Pending.
Strike, yard and miscellaneous laborers, American Locomotive Co. (Brooks Works), Dunkirk, N. Y.	135	15	Adjusted.
Controversy, pulp and sulphite workers, Island Paper Co., Menasha, Wis.			Pending.
Threatened strike, Barry & Sacher, Lancaster, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, D. H. Potts Co., Lancaster, Pa.			Do.
Strike, employees of Buffalo & Lake Erie Traction Co., Fredonia, N. Y.	150		Referred to National War Labor Board.
Controversy, Vehicle Supply Co., Cairo, Ill.			Pending.
Controversy, pattern makers, job shops, Columbus, Ohio.	21		Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, structural steel shop, Lehigh Structural Steel Co., Allentown, Pa.	125		Do.
Controversy, boiler makers, Tippet & Wood, Philipsburg, N. J.			Pending.
Controversy, Payette Lumber Co., Boise, Idaho.	13		Do.
Controversy, electrical workers, New Albany, Indiana Gas & Electric Co., New Albany, Ind.	50		Do.
Threatened strike, mechanics, Imperial Electric Co., Akron, Ohio.			Do.
Threatened strike, common laborers, Hosier Iron Works and Kokomo Brass Works, Kokomo, Ind.			Adjusted.
Threatened strike, sheet-metal workers, Depot Quartermaster, U. S. A., Chicago, Ill.	125		Do.
Threatened strike, machine operators, Rochester Box & Lumber Co., Rochester, N. Y.	90	160	Do.
Strike, Parlin & Orendorf shops, Canton, Ill.	900		Referred to National War Labor Board.
Threatened strike, enginemen, trainmen, carmen, and machinists, Sumpter Valley Railroad, Baker, Ore.			Pending.
Threatened strike, street-railway employees, Los Angeles, Cal.			Do.
Controversy, chainmakers, White Hill Chain Works, Fieldsboro, N. J.			Do.
Controversy, Indian Packing Co., Greenbay, Wis.			Do.
Controversy, pattern makers, Toledo, Ohio.			Do.
Lockout, structural-iron workers, Lackawanna Steel Co., Lackawanna, N. Y.	7	200	Adjusted.
Strike, Jessop Steel Co., Washington, Pa.	165	100	Do.
Controversy, blacksmiths and machinists, Boston & Lockport Block Co., East Boston, Mass.			Pending.
Controversy, Jordan L. Mott Plumbing Supply Co., Trenton, N. J.			Do.
Lockout, American Fuel Co., Sego, Utah.	37		Pending.
Controversy, cold-storage employees, Rex & Co (Inc.), Philadelphia, Pa.			Do.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE NUMBER OF LABOR DISPUTES HANDLED BY THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR, THROUGH ITS COMMISSIONERS OF CONCILIATION, SEPT. 16, 1918, TO OCT. 15, 1918—Concluded.

Dispute.	Workmen affected.		Result.
	Directly.	Indirectly.	
Threatened strike, bricklayers, Wilmington, Del.....	(1)	(1)	Adjusted.
Controversy, bricklayers and typesetters, Sparrows Point, Md.	(1)	(1)	Do.
Controversy, job and book shops, Chicago, Ill.....			Pending.
Controversy, machinists and helpers, Lipman Mfg. Co., Beloit, Wis.	10	100	Adjusted.
Threatened strike, coal miners, Bear River Coal Co., Almy, Wyo.	100		Do.
Strike, fire fighters, Rockland, Ill.....			Pending.
Threatened strike, bakers, Akron, Ohio.....			Do.
Controversy, E. R. Squibbs & Son Chemical Co., New Brunsw- wick, N. J.	2	75	Adjusted.
Controversy, metal polishers, Ever Ready Lamp Co., Long Island, N. Y.			Pending.
Threatened strike, American Can Co., Toledo, Ohio.....			Do.
Controversy, machinists, S. Morgan Smith Co., York, Pa.....			Do.
Controversy, Farrar & Trent Co., contractors for Lake Erie Boiler Works, Buffalo, N. Y.	80		Do.
Strike, pipe calkers, Water Bureau, Buffalo, N. Y.....	46		Adjusted.
Controversy, cement workers, Hartshorne, Okla.....			Do.
Controversy, Milton Mfg. Co., Milton, Pa.....			Pending.
Controversy, Hanson Ward Veneer Works, Bay City, Mich..			Do.
Strike, Brown-Evans Pants Co., Sedalia, Mo.....			Adjusted.
Controversy, Atlas Powder Works, Pittsburg, Kans.....			Pending.
Controversy, boiler makers, Chattanooga, Tenn.....			Do.
Threatened strike, stationary firemen, State institutions, Chicago, Ill.			Do.
Controversy, Fort Smith & Western R. R. Co., Fort Smith, Ark.			Do.
Controversy, motormen and conductors, Shamokin & Mt. Carmel Transit Co., Mount Carmel, Pa.			Do.
Controversy, Lenoir City Car Works, Lenoir City, Tenn.....			Do.
Controversy, Ingersol Rand Co., machinists, Athens, Pa.....			Do.
Threatened strike, Beloit Foundry, Beloit, Wis.....			Do.
Threatened strike, foundry helpers, etc., American Locomo- tive Co. (Brooks Works), Dunkirk, N. Y.	150	30	Adjusted.
Lockout, Rice Lake Lumber & Excelsior Co., Rice Lake, Wis.			Pending.
Controversy, Atlantic Loading Co., Anatol, N. J.....			Do.
Controversy, Locomotive Stoker Co., Pittsburgh, Pa.....	588		Plans are now un- der way to em- ploy female help.
Controversy, American Zinc & Chemical Co., Langeloth, Pa.	783		(2)
Controversy, McKinney Steel Co., Josephine and Scottsdale, Pa.	250		(3)
Controversy, A. M. Byers Co., Girard, Ohio.....	1,150		(4)
Controversy, Elliott Machine Co., Baltimore, Md.....			Adjusted.
Strike, carpenters, Turner Construction Co., Lawrence, Mass.			Pending.
Controversy, metal polishers, Rome, N. Y.....			Do.
Controversy, Bell and Home Telephone companies, South Bend, Ind.	30	60	Employees will await decision of Postmaster Gen- eral.
Threatened strike, stationary engineers and firemen, South- eastern Ohio Ry. Co., Zanesville, Ohio.	9	60	Adjusted.
Strike, longshoremen and dockmen, San Juan, Porto Rico..	300		Do.
Controversy, molders, Hawkeye Foundry Co., Waterloo, Iowa.	80		Unable to adjust.
Controversy, International Shipbuilding Co., Pascagoula, Miss.			Adjusted.
Controversy, Bucyrus Plant, Evansville, Ind.....			Pending.
Controversy, Belber Trunk & Bag Co., Philadelphia, Pa.....			Referred to Ord- nance Depart- ment.
Walkout, Thatcher Furnace Co., Newark, N. J.....			Adjusted.

¹ Several hundred.

² This company operates also a coal mine and are short 100 miners. Plant has recently changed from an 8-hour to a 12-hour day. Company manufactures zinc and acids under Government contract. Plant located 2 miles from railroad, and for this reason labor is constantly shifting.

³ Force at the Josephine inadequate. In the past 30 days 97 men have been hired and 100 have quit. Town so isolated it is hard to secure men. Production has fallen from 21,000 tons per month to 18,000. This was an investigation as to delay in delivery of pig iron under Government contract.

⁴ This was an investigation as to delay in deliveries caused by labor conditions. Labor is scarce and Girard is unable to furnish any help.

The following cases noted as pending in the September statement have been disposed of:

- Threatened strike, machinists, San Antonio Machine & Supply Co., San Antonio, Tex.
- Threatened strike, machinists, Alamo Iron Works, San Antonio, Tex.
- Threatened strike, clay miners, 11 companies, St. Louis, Mo.
- Controversy, street car men, Lexington, Ky.
- Controversy, firemen, Newport, Ky.
- Controversy, American Federation of Musicians, Philadelphia, Pa.
- Strike, molders, Howe Scale Co., Rutland, Vt.
- Controversy, Denver stockyards, Denver, Colo.
- Strike, structural-iron workers, Rochester, N. Y.
- Strike, International Car Shop, Chicago, Ill.
- Controversy, hod carriers, Joilet, Ill.
- Controversy, James Clark, Jr., Electric Co., Louisville, Ky.
- Strike, theatrical crafts, Oklahoma City, Okla.
- Threatened strike, foundrymen, Erie, Pa.
- Controversy, machinists, Steacy-Schmidt Co., York, Pa.
- Threatened strike, motormen and conductors, Cleveland Street Car Co., Cleveland, Ohio.
- Controversy, City Light & Power Co., Fort Wayne, Ind.
- Controversy, car repair men, South Buffalo R. R., Buffalo, N. Y.
- Controversy, S. Blickman, New York, N. Y.
- Controversy, D. M. Dillon Steam Boiler Works, Fitchburg, Mass.
- Strike, telephone workers, Palestine, Tex.
- Controversy, Mather Spring Co., Toledo, Ohio.
- Controversy, engineers, Montana & Royal Mills, Great Falls, Mont.
- Controversy, Champion Machine Forge Co., Cleveland, Ohio.
- Controversy, textile workers, Woodstock Mills, Norristown, Pa.
- Controversy, Vandyke Taxicab Co., Buffalo, N. Y.
- Threatened strike, carpenters, Neville Island, Pittsburgh, Pa.
- Threatened strike, Kokomo Brass Works, Kokomo, Ind.
- Strike, Eclipse Coal Co., Astoria, Ill.
- Controversy, Carpenter Steel Co., Reading, Pa.
- Controversy, Textile Machine Co., Reading, Pa.
- Lockout, Keith's Theater, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Strike, masons, Syracuse, N. Y.
- Controversy, telephone employees, Salt Lake City, Utah.
- Threatened strike, Haynes Automobile Co., Kokomo, Ind.
- Threatened strike, Electric Co., Kokomo, Ind.
- Controversy, Premier Motor Corporation, Indianapolis, Ind.
- Controversy, Remington Arms Plant, Hoboken, N. J.
- Controversy, Louisville Car Wheel & Supply Co., Louisville, Ky.
- Controversy, electrical workers, Scranton Electric Co., Scranton, Pa.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

OFFICIAL—UNITED STATES.

ARIZONA.—*Acts, resolutions, and memorials of the first special session, third legislature, May 21 to June 19, 1918. Phoenix, 1918. 121 pp.*

CALIFORNIA.—*Bureau of Labor Statistics. Annual report (second) of the public employment bureaus for the fiscal year 1916-17. Sacramento, 1918. 62 pp.*

During the year ending June 30, 1917, 39,075 applications for help were received from employers by the four State employment offices—San Francisco, Oakland, Sacramento, and Los Angeles, these applications asking for a total of 86,860 persons. In response to these applications the offices supplied a total of 62,666. The greatest percentage (18) of placements was in transportation and public utilities, and the smallest (1.2), in clerical and professional positions. Other placements, by industries, included: Hotels, restaurants, etc., 15.6 per cent; building construction, 13.2 per cent; and agriculture, 10.9 per cent.

— *Commission of Immigration and Housing. Immigration leaflets, Nos. 1, 2, 3, and 4. 528 Market Street, San Francisco.*

— *A discussion of methods of teaching English to adult foreigners, with a report on Los Angeles County. Sacramento, 1917. 40 pp.*

— *Our soldiers and the English language. A San Francisco enterprise. Sacramento, March, 1918. 12 pp.*

— *State Housing Manual. Containing State Tenement House Act, State Hotel and Lodging House Act, State Dwelling House Act. Annotated. Sacramento, March, 1918. 119 pp.*

— *Report on Fresno's immigration problem, with particular reference to educational facilities and requirements. Sacramento, March, 1918. 28 pp.*

This pamphlet is one of a series of publications that the commission of immigration and housing is issuing in order "to impress upon the people of the State the immensity and importance of the problems presented by our unassimilated foreign-born population." It is stated that in the Fresno public schools 46 nationalities are represented, besides native whites and Negroes, the Russian-Germans being the most numerous and the Armenians next. The problem of Americanizing these foreigners is apparent when it is stated that a foreign language is spoken in 41 per cent of the homes of the school children, and the report emphasizes the significance of this fact. Many of the foreign women are employed in the fruit packing industry, where the report notes that (based on figures for October, 1917) less than one-half earn as much as \$2.50 to \$3 per day, while about one-half do not work full time and 30 per cent work less than five days a week. The report contains recommendations for facilitating the Americanization of these foreigners through the instrumentality of the public schools.

— *Industrial Welfare Commission. Bulletin No. 2. Supplemental report on the order of the commission concerning the seating of women and minors in the fruit and vegetable canning industry of California. Sacramento, March, 1918. 15 pp.*

The order referred to requires that seats and tables shall be so designed that work can be efficiently performed in both a standing and sitting position and thus render it possible to relieve fatigue without loss of efficiency. This pamphlet suggests how this may be accomplished, the text being supported by diagrams and illustrations.

CALIFORNIA.—*State Land Settlement Board. Farm allotments and farm laborers' allotments in the Durham State land settlement located at Durham, Butte County, Cal., [Sacramento.] May, 1918. 10 pp. Map. Application blank.*

Details concerning offer of board to intending settlers of 3,421 acres of land recently purchased from Stanford University. The land had been subdivided into 53 farms and 21 allotments for farm laborers which were to have been open to inspection from May 10 to June 12, 1918, to applicants who were required to be citizens of the United States or to have declared their intentions to become citizens, and were prepared to enter within six months upon actual occupation.

FLORIDA.—*Board of Health. Florida health notes: Official bulletin. Vol. XIII, No. 1. (New series.) Tampa, August, 1918. 28 pp. Chart.*

This number contains articles on Patriotism and health; What the State of Florida does through its board of health; An account of the first conference of the health officers of Florida held in Jacksonville in August, 1918; Cooperation; Vital statistics; Typhoid prevention; Hookworm; and other special subjects.

GEORGIA.—*Department of Commerce and Labor. Sixth annual report of the commissioner, for the fiscal year ending December 31, 1917. Atlanta, 1918. 86 pp.*

In this report the commissioner lays special emphasis upon the necessity for a compulsory work law, at least for the term of the war, which would require every able-bodied male to work five full days in each week. Since the report was issued such a law has passed the legislature of the State and it went into force September 1. The report also gives the text of a "Memorandum by and between the Secretary of Labor of the United States and the commissioner of commerce and labor of the State of Georgia acting in employment matters." This memorandum outlines a plan of cooperation between the Federal and State employment services and suggests what statistics and reports shall be prepared. The following table shows the number of employees and the wages paid to them in the textile mills of the State during the year ending December 31, 1917:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, AND WAGES PAID, IN THE TEXTILE MILLS OF GEORGIA FOR THE YEAR ENDING DEC. 31, 1917.

Class of mills.	Number of wage earners.				Total.	Wages.
	Males.		Females.			Amount.
	12 to 16 years.	Over 16 years.	12 to 16 years.	Over 16 years.		
Cotton and silk.....	1,137	21,889	961	13,449	37,436	\$16,824,488.88
Woolen.....	7	345	15	280	647	410,976.00
Knitting.....	67	543	95	1,118	1,823	671,620.79
Mills that spin and knit.....	49	823	65	1,168	2,105	670,491.77
Total.....	1,260	23,600	1,136	16,015	42,011	18,577,577.44

ILLINOIS.—*Department of Factory Inspection. Twenty-fourth annual report of the chief State factory inspector for the year July 1, 1916, to June 30, 1917. Springfield, 1917. 103 pp. Illustrated.*

Gives a statistical summary of all inspections made during the year covered, and details of inspections made under the various State labor laws. Also notes the prosecutions for violation of law, of which there were 594, which resulted in the payment of fines amounting to \$8,183.50. There were 47,706 establishments visited, the number of inspections being 57,885. Most of these inspections (38.4 per cent) were made in connection with the enforcement of the child-labor law.

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Bureau of Statistics. Forty-eighth annual report on the statistics of labor for the year 1917. Public document No. 15. Boston, 1918. 62, 136, 234, 162 pp.*

Consists of four parts which have been previously issued as Labor Bulletins Nos. 119 to 122, respectively, and have been noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW as follows: Sixteenth annual directory of labor organizations in Massachusetts, 1917 (Labor Bulletin No. 119), reviewed in the issue of September, 1917, page 217; Seventh annual report on union scale of wages and hours of labor in Massachusetts, 1916 (Labor Bulletin No. 120), in the issue of January, 1918, page 237; Collective agreements between employers and labor organizations in Massachusetts, 1916 (Labor Bulletin No. 121), in the issue of February, 1918, pages 221 and 222; and Labor legislation in Massachusetts, 1915, 1916, and 1917 (Labor Bulletin 122), in the March, 1918, issue, page 220.

MICHIGAN.—*Industrial Accident Board. Statistical report for the year 1916. Lansing, 1917. 27 pp.*

This report is noted on page 254 of this number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

MINNESOTA.—*Commission of Public Safety. Order No. 30. St. Paul, April, 1918. 2 pp.*

This order is printed in full on pages 288 and 289 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

MONTANA.—*Department of Labor and Industry. Regulation and hours of labor. Helena. [1918.] 14 pp.*

Special attention is called in this pamphlet to the recently passed eight-hour law for women. The child-labor law is also included, besides laws regulating hours of labor for firemen, hoisting engineers, underground miners, municipalities, mines, mills, and smelters, and for railway employees.

NEW JERSEY.—*Health Department of the City of Orange. Tenth annual report. January 1, 1917, to December 31, 1917. Orange. 1918. 36 pp.*

NEW YORK.—*Department of Labor. Industrial Commission. Annual report for the 12 months ended June 30, 1917. Transmitted to the legislature April 11, 1918. Albany, 1918. 304 pp.*

This report is presented in 11 parts: Report of the commission; report of the legal bureau; report of the bureau of inspection; report of the bureau of workmen's compensation; report of the bureau of mediation and arbitration; report of the bureau of statistics and information; report of the bureau of employment; report of the bureau of industries and immigration; report of the bureau of industrial code; report of the bureau of fire hazards, boilers and explosives; opinions of the attorney general construing labor laws. The report of the director of the bureau of employment, covering the work of five main branch offices located at Albany, Brooklyn, New York, Rochester, and Syracuse, states that during the year 69,903 employers asked for 103,114 workers, that 99,909 persons were referred to positions, and that 64,590 positions were reported filled, this number being 64.6 per cent of the number referred and 62.6 per cent of the number of persons asked for by employers. The bureau of mediation and arbitration reports 234 industrial disputes, as compared with 328 recorded during the 9 months ending June 30, 1916. The number of workers involved directly was 144,951 and indirectly 18,376, and the time loss amounted to 2,600,335 working days, or an average of 11,112 days for each dispute. This total time loss is a reduction of 72.9 per cent from the time loss during the 9 months preceding, and the average days lost for each dispute is a reduction of 62 per cent from the average days lost during the preceding 9 months. Of the 234 disputes, 62 were successful, 75 were partly successful, and 97 were entirely lost to the strikers. Intervention by the bureau occurred in 69 disputes. Most of the strikes (62) occurred in the metals, machines, and conveyances trades, while the greatest loss of time (785,697 days, or 32.2 per cent of the total) occurred in transportation. The bureau of workmen's compensation reports total compensation payments, exclusive of medical, amounting to \$7,706,334.77 and

administration expenses amounting to \$317,755.90, giving a percentage collection of 4.12 per cent of the total payments for the fiscal year. The financial statement of the insurance fund for the year ending December 31, 1917, was given in the MONTHLY REVIEW for June, 1918 (pp. 193-195).

NEW YORK.—*Department of Labor. Industrial Commission. (Bureau of Industrial Code.) Industrial Code. Bulletins. No. 15. Rule relating to smoking in protected portions of factories and special classes of occupancies. 6 pp. No. 17. Rules relating to mines and quarries. 50 pp. No. 18. Rule relating to lighting of factories and mercantile establishments. 15 pp. No. 19. Rules for the guarding of dangerous machinery, vats, pans, and elevated runways. 33 pp. No. 20. Rule relating to automatic sprinkler systems. 17 pp. No. 21. Rule relating to window cleaning. 4 pp. New York, 230 Fifth Avenue, 1918.*

The rules contained in these six bulletins became effective July 1, 1918.

— — — *Special Bulletin, * * *. No. 87, Part 1. Court decisions on workmen's compensation law, August, 1916-May, 1918. Part 1: Constitutionality and coverage. Albany, 1918. 394 pp.*

— — — *Workmen's Compensation Law. With amendments, additions, and annotations to July 1, 1918. Albany, 1918. 88 pp.*

NORTH DAKOTA.—*Department of Agriculture and Labor. Fourteenth biennial report of the commissioner, for the term ending June 30, 1916. Fargo, 1916. 115 pp.*

OREGON.—*Industrial Welfare Commission. Orders Nos. 24-35. [Portland, 1917-18.] 12 leaves.*

These minimum wage decrees are noted on pages 173 to 177 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW. Previous orders are found in the Second biennial report, 1915-16, of the commission noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW for May, 1917, p. 797.

PENNSYLVANIA.—*Department of Labor and Industry. Industrial Board. Safety standards. Plant railways. Operative on and after January 1, 1919. Harrisburg. [1918.] 9 pp. Vol. 2, No. 29.*

— *Legislative Reference Bureau. A compilation of the laws relating to trades, occupations, and professions. Bulletin No. 18. Harrisburg, 1918. 348 pp.*

RHODE ISLAND.—*Manual with rules and orders for the use of the general assembly of the State of Rhode Island, 1917 and 1918. Greenfield, Mass. T. Morey & Son. 2 vols. 417 and 419 pp., 1917 and 1918.*

TENNESSEE.—*Department of Workshop and Factory Inspection. Safety conference for West Tennessee. Held at Memphis, Monday, May 6, 1918. Nashville, 1918. 28 pp.*

Contains the report of the chief inspector on accident reporting and accident prevention under State laws, in which it is stated that there were, last year, 1,491 accidents reported to the department by 236 industries of the State. The inspector does not consider this a full report but thinks that perhaps within 12 months the department will be in a position to know exactly how many industrial accidents occur in the State, their causes, and the remedies which might be applied to them. Other subjects discussed are: Handicaps of the manufacturer in applying safety measures; The science of accident prevention in industry—cause and effect; Results obtained from application of prevention measures—an experience; and What shall we do for our maimed and crippled soldiers and sailors after the war?

TEXAS.—*Bureau of Labor Statistics. Law of Texas relating to labor. Austin. 132 pp.*

— — — *Supplement to labor laws. Austin. 22 pp.*

WEST VIRGINIA.—*Bureau of Labor. Thirteenth biennial report, 1915-16. Charleston [1916]. 129 pp. Illustrated.*

— *Report of the State compensation commissioner, June 30, 1917. 239 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 255 and 256 of this number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

WISCONSIN.—*Industrial Commission. Blue book. 1917. Madison, 1917. 582 pp.*

Contains general official information concerning State matters, such as the constitution of the State, census statistics, political party platforms, and district appointments, list of post offices, election statistics, educational system, public health, finance, etc.

— *State Banking Department. Twenty-first annual report of the commissioner of banking on the condition of the building and loan associations of Wisconsin for 1917. Madison, 1918. 187 pp.*

UNITED STATES.—*Bureau of Efficiency. Report for the period from November 1, 1916, to October 31, 1917. Washington, 1918. 17 pp.*

Contains a table showing the accumulated total of savings in Government expenses from March 25, 1913, to June 30, 1918, that have been accomplished by the bureau, to have been \$1,894,836. During the year ending October 31, 1917, the expenditures of the bureau were \$63,586.

— *Congress. Senate. Corporate earnings and Government revenues. Letter from the Secretary of the Treasury transmitting, in response to a Senate resolution of June 6, 1918, certain facts, figures, data, and information taken from 1916 and 1917 income and excess profits tax returns of corporations to the Treasury Department, and a statement of Government revenues (including loans) since the beginning of the war. Senate Document No. 259, 65th Congress, 2d session. Washington, 1918. 388 pp.*

Data for this statistical report were obtained from the income and excess profits returns of 31,500 out of a total of approximately 55,000 corporations in the United States which, in the calendar year 1917, earned 15 per cent or more on their capital stock. In his letter of transmittal the Secretary of the Treasury states that "the corporations included in the list are believed to be representative, as some are included from each of the major groups and most of the minor groups representing the various recognized industries, trades, and occupations comprising the business activities of the country." The report reveals large profits in practically every business activity affecting either directly or indirectly the cost of living.

— *Council of National Defense. Advisory Commission. Commission on Women in Industry. The manufacture of army shirts under the home work system. Jeffersonville, Indiana. Washington, July, 1918. 24 pp. Women in War Industries Series, No. 1.*

Approximately 21,000 women were found to be making army shirts in their homes for the Quartermaster's depot at Jeffersonville, Indiana. Based upon the findings of the investigation, such work was pronounced undesirable from the standpoint of production, from that of public welfare, and from that of social welfare.

— *Department of Commerce. Bureau of the Census. Census of the Virgin Islands of the United States, November 1, 1917. Washington, 1918. 174 pp.*

— *Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Miscellaneous Series, No. 63. Trade of the United States with the world, 1916-17. Part 2—Exports. Exports of merchandise from the United States by countries and principal articles, during the years ending June 30, 1916 and 1917. Washington, 1918. 317 pp. Price, 20 cents.*

— *Commissioner of Navigation. Report to the Secretary of Commerce for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1917. Washington, 1917. 126 pp.*

Contains tables showing the average monthly wages paid to seamen generally on American vessels, compiled from the reports of the United States shipping commissioners.

— *Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. Coal mine fatalities in the United States, 1917. List of permissible explosives, lamps, and motors tested prior to January 31, 1918. Washington, 1918. 37 pp.*

States that "the abnormal conditions under which the coal mines operated during 1917 are reflected in the accident records by an increase of 21 per cent in fatalities as compared with 1916." The fatalities during 1917 were 2,696 as compared with 2,226 in 1916. The only causes of fatalities showing a reduction are explosives and electricity, these reductions being 24 and 12 per cent, respectively.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. Hazards in handling gasoline. By George A. Burrell. Washington, 1918. 17 pp.*

————— *Quarry accidents in the United States during 1916. Washington, 1918. 58 pp.*

The report states that "accidents at quarries in the United States * * * show an increase in the number of fatalities as well as in the fatality rate per 1,000 men employed. The number of fatalities reported was 173 as compared with 148 in 1915, whereas the total number of employees reported was 90,797, as compared with 100,740 in 1915." The fatality rate per 1,000 300-day workers in 1916 was 2.26 as compared with 1.80 in 1915, and an average of 2.19 for the five-year period ending with 1915. Nonfatal injuries increased from 117.30 per 1,000 300-day workers in 1915 to 175.62 in 1916. "These increases do not indicate that the hazard of the industry is increasing at the same rate, but rather that the requirements of State compensation laws are bringing out the real facts." The report shows also the value of the quarry products of the United States and the number killed in the quarries of Algeria, Belgium, France, Great Britain, and Italy.

————— *Resuscitation from gas asphyxiation, drowning, and electric shock. [Washington, 1918.] 1 chart.*

Chart shows the Schaefer method of artificial respiration as adopted by the committees on resuscitation from mine gases and electric shock which were appointed by the United States Bureau of Mines, the National Electric Light Association, the American Institute of Electrical Engineers, and the American Medical Association.

————— *Siliceous dust in relation to pulmonary disease among miners in the Joplin district, Missouri. By Edwin Higgins, A. J. Lanza, F. B. Laney, and George S. Rice. Bulletin 132. Washington, 1917. 116 pp. Illustrated.*

Full report of an investigation conducted in the so-called "hard-rock" or "sheet ground" mines of the Joplin district, Missouri, to determine the effect of the mining conditions with especial reference to the prevalence of silicosis, a preliminary report of which was published before the inquiry was finished as Bureau of Mines technical paper 105.

The report is in four parts: Mining operations as related to production of siliceous dust; physiological effects of siliceous dust on the miners of the Joplin district; historical review of silicosis; the chert or flint of the Joplin district. A physical examination of 720 miners showed that 472 were suffering from pulmonary disease, of whom 404, or 56 per cent of the whole, were working at the time they were examined or up to within six months previous. There were 433, or 60.4 per cent, suffering from disease of the lungs directly due to rock-dust exposure, of whom 375, or 52 per cent of the whole, were working at the time of the examination or up to within six months previous. "The total number examined represents about one-fourth of all men working in sheet-ground mines up to the boom of 1915. Therefore, of all the sheet-ground miners at that time 15 per cent had consumption. On a conservative estimate the writer believes that the actual number of cases of miners' consumption was at least twice as great."

Conclusions are reached that:

1. There is much pulmonary disease due to rock dust among the miners of the Joplin district, affecting probably as high as 30 per cent of sheet-ground miners.
2. The amelioration of dust-producing conditions is progressing at a reasonable rate.
3. Living conditions are generally poor, and often needlessly bad.
4. Although miners' consumption and tuberculosis of the lungs are entirely different diseases, as regards the public health, no distinction should be made as to precautions against spread of infection.
5. The prevention of the spread of tuberculosis infection, especially to children in the homes of consumptives, is of paramount importance.
6. The combination of hard work with a short dinner period is injurious and unnecessary.

As a result of the investigation the following recommendations are made:

Instructions should be given from time to time, especially to new men, regarding the harmfulness of rock dust and regarding methods for its prevention. Educational leaflets should be distributed by the State bureau of mines, or local sanitary societies.

There should be established a dispensary, or similar organization, to afford the miners the opportunity for physical examinations.

There should also be medical inspection of schools and a visiting-nurse service, especially for the children of consumptive parents.

Continued care and vigilance should be maintained to abate squibbing and bowlder popping, and especially should attention be directed to lessening these abuses during the night shift.

An effort should be made, through cooperation of all concerned, to prescribe a maximum daily tonnage for shovelers.

It has been the experience of other communities and other countries that workmen's compensation laws and sickness insurance offer practical and equitable relief from the effects of various industrial conditions that are, in themselves, not entirely remediable. It is the opinion of the writer that such a system will eventually prevail in the Joplin district and must prevail before present abuses will be reduced to a satisfactory minimum.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of Labor. Information and Education Service. Employment questions, by Charles T. Clayton. Washington, 1918. 14 pp.*

A discussion of the wastefulness which accompanies competitive labor recruiting and a plea for the substitution of order for anarchy in the labor market through the utilization of the agencies of the Federal Employment Service. The results of competitive labor recruiting are stated to be: (1) A terrible and terribly increasing waste of human time; (2) an enormous waste of spoiled material and great reduction in output; (3) a huge waste of public funds; (4) a dreadful, disquieting labor unrest—a deep suspicion on the part of the workers of the honesty and good faith and essential loyalty of the employing contractors. The remedy proposed is: (1) That all firms engaged in war contracts agree to take all their labor through the Employment Service; (2) that common wage scales be agreed upon by competitive districts; (3) that every factory have intensive training of, first, its leading men and foremen, and then of the rank and file, in order to overcome the grave shortage of trained man power. After referring to the growth of the Employment Service the following plans for the promotion of its efficiency are mentioned: (1) The compilation of a dictionary of occupational titles; (2) specialization of examinations; (3) adjustment of the means for reporting supply and demand of labor.

— *National War Labor Board. Proclamation of the President of the United States creating the National War Labor Board. Its functions and powers. Principles governing industry. Method of presenting complaints and procedure. Washington, 1918. 11 pp.*

The proclamation of the President was printed in full in the May, 1918, issue of the MONTHLY REVIEW, pages 54 and 55, and other articles in reference to the creation and functions of the National War Labor Board appeared in the MONTHLY REVIEW for May 1918, pages 55 to 58, and June, pages 54 to 56; and in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for July, 1918, page 23, August, 1918, pages 70 to 75, and September, 1918, pages 27 to 37.

— *Federal Board for Vocational Education. Emergency war training for oxy-acetylene welders. Bulletin No. 11. Washington, June, 1918. 86 pp.*

The course outlined is not a trade course in the sense that it attempts in any measure to prepare men for a recognized trade and occupation as carried on in civil life but rather is a short, brief, direct course of instruction designed to fit men, in a great emergency, to meet the specific demands of processes and operations carried on by an army under war conditions, and which in most cases approximate the demands and requirements of similar work in civilian occupations.

UNITED STATES.—*Federal Board for Vocational Education. Emergency war training for radio mechanics and radio operators. Bulletin No. 16. Washington, September, 1918. 75 pp. Illustrated.*

Outlines course for use in evening schools in which men are to be fitted to enter, with advanced standing, the radio schools maintained by the Army.

— *Food Administration. General index numbers of food prices on a nutritive value base. Washington, August, 1918. 13 pp.*

This pamphlet is noted in this number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, pp. 104 to 106.

— *Public Health Service. Health hazards from the use of the air hammer in cutting Indiana limestone, by J. P. Leake; Supposed physical effects of the pneumatic hammer on workers in Indiana limestone, by David L. Edsall, M. D.; Effect of the air hammer on the hands of stoncutters (a summary), by Alice Hamilton, M. D. Reprint No. 460 from the Public Health Reports. Washington, 1918. 29 pp.*

The complete report by Dr. Hamilton, of which a summary is published in the above pamphlet, appears in Bul. No. 236 of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.

OFFICIAL—FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

AUSTRALIA (VICTORIA).—*Report of the chief inspector of factories and shops for the year ended 31st December, 1917. Melbourne, 1918. 28 pp.*

Shows that during the year 1917 the number of factories returned was 7,772, employing 97,561 persons, or an increase over the preceding year of 154 factories and 5,241 employees. It is remarked that "the state of trade during 1917 was good, especially in factories making military supplies," and that "the amount of labor available was not equal to the demand for it in the engineering, furniture (European labor), and iron-working trades." A dispute in the iron-molding trade was settled by mutual agreement, resulting in a general increase of 5s. (\$1.22) per week being granted to adult workers. A strike of quarrymen resulted in an agreement to work 48 hours per week and a wage increase of 6s. (\$1.46). Tables are given showing the average weekly wages in the various trades for which special boards have been appointed and in trades not regulated by special boards. During the year overtime amounting to 2,399 hours was worked in 123 factories. Prosecutions for breaches of the factories and shops acts numbered 276; 247 convictions were obtained and fines amounting to £334 11s. (\$1,628.09) were collected. The number of accidents in factories was 442, the percentage of accidents to employees being about 0.453.

CANADA.—*Department of Labor. Labor legislation for the calendar year 1917. Ottawa, 1918. 96 pp.*

The new Alberta Factory Act is noted as being probably the most important enactment of the year, since prior to its passage the Province was without legislation for the regulation and inspection of factories, shops, and office buildings. An interesting feature of the act is a section fixing a minimum wage. Another important law creates a department of labor in British Columbia with powers and duties similar to those of the trades and labor branch established in Ontario in 1916. An ordinance of the Yukon Territory establishes an eight-hour day for employees on public works and contains a fair wage provision; and a number of laws regulating the employment of women and children are among the year's statutes.

— *Labor legislation in Canada as existing December 31, 1915. Ottawa, 1918; 740 pp.*

— *Registrar of boards of conciliation and investigation. Tenth report of proceedings under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1917. (Being an appendix to the annual report of the Department of Labor for the same period.) Ottawa, 1918. 110 pp. [No. 36 A—1918.] Price, 10 cents.*

Contains an introductory chapter, Summary tables respecting proceedings under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907; and Summary statements respecting pro-

ceedings under Industrial Disputes Investigation Act, 1907, during the fiscal year ending March 31, 1917. During this year 36 applications were received and 20 boards established under the act. The proportion of boards to applications was smaller than usual, many of the disputes having been, after reference to the department, arranged amicably without the establishment of a board.

Disputes affecting railway industries were more numerous than usual; but while 14 applications were received it became necessary only to establish 6 boards. No strike occurred in the industries concerned.

Street-railway disputes caused six applications; five boards were established, and all the disputes were satisfactorily arranged.

No very important dispute in the coal-mining industry came before a board during the year, but shortly before the close of the fiscal period applications were received from different sections of the employees of an eastern coal company; the employees being in this case divided as between two unions, the dispute was referred to a royal commission.

Several disputes affecting telegraph and express workers were dealt with during the year and were in all cases satisfactorily arranged.

CANADA.—*Department of Labor. Report for the fiscal year ending March 31, 1917. Ottawa, 1918. 40 pp. Sessional paper No. 36. Price, 5 cents.*

In six parts: Conciliation proceedings; The Labor Gazette; The fair-wages branch of the department; Statistical work of the department; Industrial disputes in Canada, 1916; and Industrial accidents in Canada, 1916. In regard to the last, it is stated that arrangements have been made for the cooperation of the workmen's compensation boards in the Provinces of Nova Scotia, Ontario, Manitoba, and British Columbia, which cooperation, it is hoped, will result in the giving of more satisfactory records of industrial accidents in Canada. According to the records given for 1916, there were 9,462 industrial accidents, of which 950 were fatal and 8,512 nonfatal, as compared with 5,785 accidents in 1915, of which 836 were fatal and 4,949 nonfatal. It is stated, however, that the increase shown is due mainly to improvement in the method of reporting. Among the industries and occupations steam railway service was first as to fatal accidents, with 252, or 26.5 per cent of the total. In this group there were 1,802 nonfatal accidents, or 21.2 per cent of the total. The metal, engineering, and shipbuilding group had 2,826 nonfatal accidents, or 33.2 per cent—the greatest number reported—and 10 per cent of the fatal accidents. The mining industry had 159, or 16.7 per cent of the fatal accidents, and 1,759, or 20.7 per cent of the nonfatal accidents. As 1,308 nonfatal accidents were reported by the Ontario Bureau of Mines without information as to cause, these were omitted from the classification.

— *Director of Public Information. Canada's war effort, 1914-1918. Ottawa, 1918. 31 pp. Chart.*

A brief account of Canada's national effort since the beginning of the war. Among the various lines of war activity treated which are of interest to labor are food and fuel control, war liquor regulations, rehabilitation of returned soldiers, and women's work, of which the following figures are given: The number of women employed in munition factories at one time amounted to 30,000; women are now working on farms in all parts of the country; nearly 1,000 women are now employed by the Royal Air Force in Canada on a wide range of duties, including motor-transport work; between 5,000 and 6,000 are employed in the civil service, for the most part on work created by the war; about 75,000 gave their services to assist in the compilation of the National Register in June, 1918; figures are not available to show the extent to which Canadian women are replacing men in general industrial and commercial life.

— *Parliament. House of Commons. Returned soldiers. Special committee on the care and treatment of returned soldiers. Ottawa, 1918. 1262 pp. Price, 75 cents.*

Proceedings of the special committee appointed to consider, inquire into, and report upon the reception, treatment, care, training and reeducation of the wounded, disabled and convalescent who have served in the Canadian expeditionary forces, and the provision of employment for those who have been honorably discharged, and the training and reeducation of those so discharged who are unable to engage in their former occupation. Comprises the evidence taken and statements submitted in connection therewith, February 7 to July 17, 1917.

The minutes of proceedings and evidence, which make up most of the volume, are preceded by the report of the committee. This outlines the work accomplished and concludes with further recommendations regarding care, treatment, vocational training, cooperation between the Federal and Provincial authorities to secure employment for returned soldiers, pay and allowances, land settlement, and general matters.

CANADA.—*Parliament. Special committee appointed to consider and report upon the Pension Board, the pension regulations, and the sufficiency or otherwise of the relief afforded thereunder, the pension lists in force in Canada for disabled and other soldiers and the dependents of those killed while on active service, and any other matters relating thereto or connected therewith. Proceedings. Comprising the evidence taken and papers submitted and received in connection therewith, April 10 to May 20, 1918. Ottawa, 1918. 349 pp. Appendix No. 2.*

This comprises the third and final report of the committee, the minutes of proceedings, and routine matter.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Board of Trade. Industrial (war inquiries) branch. Report on the increased employment of women during the war in the United Kingdom, with statistics up to January, 1918. [London, 1918.] 16 pp.*

A review of the salient features of this report, based upon an article in the British Labor Gazette for June, 1918, appeared in the issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1918, pp. 178, 179.

—*Home Department. Mines and quarries: General report, with statistics, for 1917, by the chief inspector of mines. Part I, Divisional statistics and reports. [Cd. 9120.] London, 1918. 68 pp. Price, 1s. net.*

In this report statistics of persons employed, output, and accidents are grouped under three general heads—relating to the operation of the Coal Mines Act, 1911, the Metalliferous Mines Regulation Acts, and the Quarries Act, 1894. The important facts of these statistics are summarized in the following table:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, TOTAL OUTPUT, AND FATAL ACCIDENTS AND ACCIDENT RATES IN BRITISH MINES AND QUARRIES, 1917.

Item.	Coal Mines Act, 1911.		Metalliferous Mines Regulation Acts.		Quarries Act, 1894.	
	1917	Per cent of in- crease over pre- ceding year.	1917	Per cent of in- crease over pre- ceding year.	1917	Per cent of in- crease over pre- ceding year.
Persons employed.....	1,021,340	2.33	20,500	5.37	43,631	19.47
Output (tons).....	260,120,059	12.50	2,533,177½	14.72	30,165,836	15.89
Fatal accidents.....	1,370	4.34	25	8.70	56	13.45
Fatality rate ²	1.34	1.51	1.22	3.39	1.28	6.67

¹ Decrease.

² Per 1,000 employees.

Of the total employed, 11,808, or 1.9 per cent, were females, and 91,311, or 8.4 per cent, were boys under 16 years of age. The volume is mostly devoted to detailed reports by inspectors of divisions.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*London County Council. Training and employment in the printing trades. Report by education officer submitting a report by Mr. J. C. Smail, organizer of trade schools for boys, on training and employment in the printing trades. No. 1907. London, 1917. 49 pp. Illustrated. Price 1s.*

According to this report London, with nearly 3,000 factories and workshops employing over 60,000 male employees and with an annual output of the value of £12,000,000 (\$58,398,000) has not yet realized the importance of the printing trade as have Paris and other European centers—a fact probably due to the division of effort between schools which has tended to obscure the magnitude of the issues involved. It is therefore suggested that the cooperation of the three main institutions of London—the St. Bride Institute, the Regent-Street Polytechnic, and the Borough Polytechnic—be sought in the fusing together of their printing departments into one main technical printing school for London. The plans for such a school are worked out in detail.

— *Ministry of Food. National Kitchens Division. Official Handbook of National Kitchens and Restaurants. 4 St. Paul's Churchyard, London, E. C. 4. 1918. 64 pp. Illustrated.*

This handbook was issued as an aid to the national kitchen movement, which was instituted as a war measure. It is stated that "experience has demonstrated that where national kitchens have been established and operated considerable advantages have accrued to the community," and that "it is possible they may continue long after the war has ceased, and perhaps become a permanent part of local government organization." There is a discussion of the size and equipment of the kitchens and restaurants, the staff required and their duties, and the system of finance. Lists of equipment, menus, and recipes are given and there are plans and illustrations.

— *Ministry of Reconstruction. Coal conservation committee. Final report. [Cd. 9084.] London, 1918. 89 pp. Price 1s. net.*

Aside from a number of appendixes, this report is essentially a reproduction of the interim report of the committee on electric-power supply in Great Britain which was summarized in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August (pp. 93-97). The appendixes include interim reports of the power generation and transmission subcommittee, the geological subcommittee, and the mining subcommittee (proposed ministry of mines and minerals), the final report of the mining subcommittee, and report of the carbonization subcommittee. The final report of the coal conservation committee is dated January 23, 1918, the date of the interim report being April 17, 1917.

— *Housing in England and Wales. [London, 1918.] 24 pp. (Reconstruction problems, 2.)*

A summary of the housing problem in England and Wales as affected by the war. At the end of the war there is forecast a shortage of houses of between 300,000 and 400,000 for England and Wales. It is essential to make good this shortage in order to provide homes for the returning soldiers, to prevent industrial unrest, to secure adequate employment, and to remove one of the greatest causes of infant mortality and the spread of disease.

— *Interim report of the committee on adult education. Industrial and social conditions in relation to adult education. [Cd. 9107] 1918. 32 pp. Price 3d. net.*

A summary of this report appears on pages 63 to 70 of this number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

— *Parliament. House of Lords. Acquisition of land. Return to an order dated 31 July, 1918; for (1) Correspondence between the chairman of committees, House of Lords, and the minister of reconstruction with respect to the reports of two committees on the acquisition of land; and (2) Observations on these reports by the counsel to the chairman of committees, House of Lords. London, 1918. 14 pp. Price 2d. net.*

— *Public Works Loan Board. Forty-third annual report, 1917-18. (With appendixes.) 75. London, 1918. 25 pp. Price 3d. net.*

GREAT BRITAIN (SCOTLAND).—*Local Government Board. Provision of houses for the working classes after the war; the Housing of the Working Classes Acts, 1890 to 1909: Memorandum by the Local Government Board for Scotland with suggestions in regard to the provision and planning of houses for the working classes. Edinburgh, 1918. 12 pp. Plans.*

"The suggestions set forth in this memorandum are largely the outcome of the experience gained by the board's staff during the past two or three years in connection with the erection, on behalf of the Admiralty and the Ministry of Munitions, of houses for Government employees or for persons engaged in munition works, and the plans appended to this memorandum illustrate the layout of some of the sites and the designs of some of the houses erected by the board."

NORWAY.—*Riksforsikringsanstalten. Ulkkesforsikringen for industriarbeidere m. v., 1915. Christiania, 1918. 34*97 pp. (Norges Officielle Statistik, VI: 132.)*

Comprises the report of the operations of the Norwegian State industrial accident insurance system for the year 1915. The following table is a brief summary of those operations for the period 1895 to 1915:

STATISTICAL EXPERIENCE OF NORWEGIAN INDUSTRIAL STATE INSURANCE SYSTEM, 1895-1915.

Year.	Number of establishments.	Number of full-time workers.	Amount of wages paid.	Receipts from premiums.		Expenditures.		Compensated accidents.			Accident rate (per thousand full-time workers).
				Total.	Per cent of wages.	Total.	Per cent of wages.	Total.	Disability.	Deaths.	
1895-1908	1,472,189	\$331,876,227	\$5,166,181	15.57	\$5,697,770	17.17	46,378	31,865	1,129	31.5	
1909	19,998	144,425	35,699,871	531,918	14.90	561,549	15.73	5,609	3,866	136	38.8
1910	19,655	150,771	37,771,501	569,092	15.07	647,369	17.14	5,875	3,986	119	39.0
1911	20,984	160,809	41,063,989	624,902	15.22	769,725	18.74	7,564	5,020	138	47.0
1912	21,581	173,783	45,537,923	756,200	16.61	755,948	16.60	8,808	6,183	116	50.7
1913	22,819	183,343	49,610,403	830,886	16.75	810,225	16.33	8,849	6,903	127	48.3
1914	22,668	184,268	50,768,597	855,549	16.85	851,316	16.77	8,697	7,257	129	47.2
1915	23,551	189,243	53,372,061	983,398	18.43	931,469	17.45	9,080	7,612	205	48.0
1895-1915	2,658,831	645,700,572	10,218,127	15.98	11,025,372	17.08	100,860	72,692	2,100	37.9	

SWITZERLAND.—*Eidgenössisches statistisches Bureau. Statistisches Jahrbuch der Schweiz, 1917. Bern, July, 1918. IV, 371 pp.*

The 26th volume of the official Statistical Yearbook of Switzerland. Of the statistics on area, population, production, industry, commerce, transportation and traffic prices and consumption, education, crime, hygiene, finances, and administration contained in the volume, of special interest to labor are those relating to factories, trade-unions, wage movements, labor market, employment offices, social insurance, food prices, and cost of living. The section of this report relating to food prices and cost of living is treated in a special article on pages 110 to 113 of this number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

UNOFFICIAL.

ALEXANDER, MAGNUS W. *Elements of the labor problem. Boston, June, 1918. 20 pp. Chart.*

An address delivered at the joint session of the National and American cotton manufacturers' associations, New York City, May 2, 1918. The present labor problem is analyzed with regard to its nature and its outlook. The important phases of its economic aspect are summarized, as the hiring of workers, their training, methods of remuneration, labor policy, work conditions, and betterment plans; and the goal to be attained through intelligent application of rightful methods to these phases, it is

stated, will embody individual opportunity for every worker, low labor turnover, high productivity, and low waste, high morale of the working force, and general contentment of all workers.

AMALGAMATED MEAT CUTTERS AND BUTCHERS WORKMEN OF NORTH AMERICA. *Report of proceedings of the ninth general convention held at Fort Wayne, Ind., July 24 to July 30, inclusive, 1917.* Western Newspaper Union, Chicago. 146 pp.

AMALGAMATED SOCIETY OF ENGINEERS. *Sixty-seventh annual report, 1917.* London, S. E. 15, 110 Peckham Road, 1918. 510 pp.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL SCIENCE. *Annals. September, 1918. War Relief Work.* Woodland Avenue and Thirty-sixth St., Philadelphia, Pa. 305 pp.

Part VIII, devoted to The war relief of other social welfare organizations, contains chapters on War work in vocational education, Housing for war workers engaged on Army and Navy contracts, and The National League for women's service.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. *List of organizations affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, national and international, department, State, central, and local.* Washington, March 1, 1918. 66 pp.

AMERICAN FLINT GLASS WORKERS' UNION. *Two volumes. Proceedings of the forty-first convention, held at New Bedford, Mass. July, 1917. 280 pp. Proceedings of the forty-second convention, held at Toledo, Ohio. July, 1918. 518 pp.* Toledo, Kraus & Schreiber. 1917-18.

AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION. *Proceedings of the annual congress, New Orleans, La., November, 19 to 23, 1917.* Indianapolis, William B. Burford. 326 pp.

Among the reports and discussions of special interest are those relating to juvenile delinquency, protective work for girls, and penal farms.

ATHENÆUM LITERATURE DEPARTMENT. *The meaning of reconstruction, by Demos.* 10 Adelphi Terrace, London, W. C. 2. 75 pp. 1s. net.

This volume is reviewed on page 74 of this number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

BANKERS TRUST COMPANY. *Compensation for increased living costs. Report of committee covering six months' period ending June 30, 1918.* New York, 1918. 5 pp.

Outlines basis for computing extra remuneration to compensate for increases in living costs.

BENN, ERNEST, J. P. *Trade parliaments and their work.* London, Nisbet & Co. (Ltd.), 1918. 91 pp. Price, 1s.

An endeavor to help on the process of organization in industry "which has now reached a remarkable stage of development * * * by sketching briefly, in a practical way, some of the work that is urgently waiting to be done by trade parliaments"—the term "trade parliament" being used in this book as synonymous with "Whitley council" or "Joint standing industrial council" as understood in the Whitley report. There are chapters on Organizing organizations; The rationing of materials; Demobilization and apprenticeship; Government stores; Restrictions and pledges; Financial facilities; Science and education; Statistics; The big idea in business; and The position of labor. The author shows the necessity for thorough organization both of employers and employees in order to make the trade parliaments thoroughly effective. He states that one of the most urgent reasons for instituting joint councils is the fact that to maintain the supply of raw materials is more important to the employed, since it means the difference between work and idleness, than to the employers, and that "The offer of the Government, expressed by three of its ministers, is to transfer the duty of rationing from Whitehall to the Whitley councils. Surely nothing could be better, and no offer could be more worth accepting." On demobilization it is of vital importance to labor that men should be released from the Army in the right proportions to fill all the essential occupations of each trade, and the trades themselves are better fitted to plan this than is the war office. Provision must also be made for releasing the vast stores held by the Government in order not to ruin industries, and to this end also the author shows that the elaborate restrictions

built up under the Defense of the Realm Act will have to be removed gradually and that because of unforeseen conditions the Government will be unable to keep many of its pledges. Credit will have to be extended to those industries which have expanded rapidly because of war needs, and the need for more thorough scientific and statistical research in order that the industries may compete successfully with those of other countries is shown. It is stated that "the principle of the right of labor to participate in all these questions which affect the welfare of a whole industry is accepted by modern opinion of both sides."

BERNARD, RENÉ. *De la légitimation des enfants adultérins ou incestueux. Lois the 30 Décembre 1915 et du 7 April, 1917. Rennes, Imprimerie H. Riou-Renzi, 1918. 135 pp.*

Text with analysis and study of the consequences of the French laws of December 30, 1915, and April 7, 1917, concerning illegitimate children; with a sketch of the history of previous legislation on the subject and a study of comparative legislation in other countries.

BLATCH, HARRIOT STANTON. *Mobilizing woman power. With a forward by Theodore Roosevelt. New York, The Women's Press, 1918. 195 pp. Illustrated.*

An account of the part being taken by women in industrial war work in the different European countries and in the United States.

BREUIL, J. *L'École professionnelle des blessés de la guerre a Rouen. Rouen, Imprimerie Lecerf Fils, 1916. 50 pp. Illustrated.*

Account of the founding and methods of the vocational school for disabled soldiers at Rouen, with a final chapter devoted to the placing of pupils.

CALLON, G. *L'effondrement de la natalité Française. Le mal et son principal remède: le retour au vrai sentiment religieux (principes et constatations.) Paris, Gabriel Beauchesne, 1918. 38 pp. 2 tables.*

An analytic and statistical study of the declining birth rate in France, from 1909 to 1913.

CASUALTY ACTUARIAL AND STATISTICAL SOCIETY OF AMERICA. *Proceedings for 1917-1918. Vol. IV, Numbers 9, 10. Lancaster, Pa., New Era Printing Co., 1918. 466 pp.*

Contains papers on A new criterion of adequacy of exposure, The theory of experience rating, The practice of experience rating, and The industrial compensation rating schedule, 1918.

CLARK'S DIRECTORY OF SOUTHERN TEXTILE MILLS. *Fourteenth edition. July 1, 1918. Accurate data relative to the textile mills of the South. Does not include silk mills, woolen mills, or batting mills, except those that spin cotton. Charlotte, N. C., Clark Publishing Co., 1918. 176, 24 pp. Price, \$1.50.*

COLE, G. D. H., AND MELLOR, W. *The meaning of industrial freedom. Geo. Allen and Unwin, Ltd. Ruskin House, 40 Museum St., London W. C. 44 pp. 1s. net. Bibliography.*

The author holds a brief for guild socialism. He states that "socialism has become reformist through lack of imagination" and that in Great Britain especially it has become "almost purely a doctrine of distribution of income." Guild socialism which he advocates is a fusion of the doctrines of socialism and syndicalism and its fundamental idea is a "partnership between the producers and the State in the control of industry." The system of national guilds, however, seems to verge closely on syndicalism since "a revolutionary policy for trade-unionism" is advocated, and while under guild socialism the State is recognized as necessary, it is to occupy a relatively unimportant position. The author states that "to create a class-conscious proletariat determined to end the wage system is the real purpose of trade-unionism."

COLUMBUS (OHIO) CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. *Social Service Bureau. Social agencies approved, and report on survey of organizations soliciting financial support from the public. A study of the social-service field. February 15, 1917, to April 30, 1918. Columbus, 1918. 123 pp.*

COMMONS, JOHN R. *Industrial education and dependency. Revised edition. Madison, Wis., March, 1918. 20 pp. Price, 10 cents. University of Wisconsin, Extension Division Bulletin, Serial No. 916; General Series No. 705. General information and welfare.*

Considers the functions of industrial education in preventing vagrancy, irregular employment, and pauperism under the heads of The panorama of modern industry; The army of the unskilled; Work and wages; The new apprenticeship; Apprenticeship schools; Failure of the common schools; Arts and crafts movement; Need to unite factory and school; Problem of the teacher; To erase the blot of the blind alley job; The girl worker; Workers in the home; Universal apprenticeship; and Failure of industrial education.

COUNCIL OF ORGANIZATIONS FOR WAR SERVICE. *The Clearing House for War-time Training for Women. Opportunities for war-time training for women in New York City, 1918-19. 19 West Forty-fourth Street, New York City, 1918. 171 pp.*

An earlier publication listing opportunities for war-time training for women in New York City in the summer of 1918 was noted in the issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1918, p. 251.

DE LA HIRE, MARIE. *La Femme Française; Son activité pendant la Guerre. Paris, Librairie Jules Tallandier, 1917. 302 pp.*

A comprehensive study of the French woman and her activity during the war. The first part is devoted to the actual war work being done by women, both in industrial and in other lines; the second deals with feminism in France and the feminist societies. The work of the feminists is then considered and a program given summarizing under 15 heads the special objects toward which this work is directed, among which are included the attainment of equal recompense for equal work, free use by married women of their own wages, the regulation of work during confinement, the regulation of labor of women working at home and in sewing shops, the creation of special courts for children, protection of childhood, and the struggle against infant mortality, and the struggle against alcoholism. Three war laws are discussed, namely, that relating to the guardianship of mothers over their children, the legitimation of children whose fathers are killed in military service, and home work.

The latter part of the book is devoted to Questions to be studied, The feminist party, Suffrage, Feminine representation in the Chamber of Deputies, Feminism in other countries, and Nationalism or internationalism.

DESLINIÈRES, LUCIEN AND FASTOUT, A. *Organisons-nous. Solution des problèmes d'après guerre. Organisation.—Compétence.—Responsabilité. Paris, M. Giard and É. Brière, 1917. 88 pp.*

Under the title "Let us organize" the authors offer as a solution of after-the-war economic problems the consolidation of all industries into a "National association." The social problem they consider principally, though not exclusively, the question of the laboring class, whose reasonable demands are summed up as: "1. Work; 2. Wages sufficient to provide for family needs with a little margin; 3. The certainty that work will not fail in a dull season; 4. Social assistance in case of involuntary unemployment, accident, or sickness; 5. The possibility of rising in the social system according to one's talents and service; 6. An assured retreat for old age which is a little more than a morsel of bread now thrown and not always even received; 7. The certainty that wife and children will not suffer materially by the death of the head of the family."

DIXON, ROYAL. *Americanization. New York. The Mac Millan Company, 1916. 196 pp.* Simple and practical suggestions for "Americanizing" immigrants.

EARNSHAW-COOPER, SIR W. *The land industry. The Central Committee for National Patriotic Organizations. British industries after the war. London, S.W., 62 Charing Cross, 52 pp.*

In two parts. The first part is devoted to a study of the present land situation in Great Britain and the agricultural problems which the nation faces. The second

part is divided into the following seven remedial suggestions "which may serve as a possible basis upon which a great national scheme of dealing comprehensively with our land may be founded:" Increase the productiveness of the soil to its maximum capacity; don't waste valuable time in further experiments on agriculture; employ the men and utilize the land; increase the live-stock industry; do not force your people to emigrate; grow all our own food, or as much as we can; work forestry and agriculture side by side—restore all waste land.

FARNHAM, DWIGHT T. *Scientific industrial efficiency. Chicago, Brick and Clay Record, 1917. 101 pp. Illustrated.*

A study of the application of efficiency principles and methods to factory management.

FAYLE, C. ERNEST. *Industrial reconstruction. Reprinted by special permission from the Quarterly Review, October, 1916. London and Beccles, William Clowes and Sons, Ltd. 28 pp.*

This is a "Memorandum on the industrial situation after the war," the work of a group of investigators, of whom the author was one, who came together, at the instance of the Garton Foundation, for the purpose of discussing the industrial situation as it is likely to be at the end of the war, the difficulties presented by a return to peace conditions, and the more permanent problems which must be solved in order to secure the future prosperity of British industry. The memorandum deals especially with the question of industrial efficiency and shows the advantages that would accrue from the substitution of active cooperation between the two great parties to industry—capital and labor—for their present aloofness or latent hostility.

FLORENCE, PHILIP SARGANT. *Use of factory statistics in the investigation of industrial fatigue: A manual for field research. Columbia University studies in history, economics, and public laws. Vol. LXXXI, No. 3. New York, 1918. 153 pp.*

This work, which is described as a manual for field research, "is an attempt to reduce some classes of industrial facts to measurable form and to warn the statistician proper of the difficulties involved in the measurement itself." It is suggested that the plan to be followed by investigators in research work of the character suggested by the title of the volume includes (1) A general visit to the factory where hygienic arrangements and the conditions of work can be noted cursorily and where inquiry can be made as to the sources of record available either in the factory's books or through specially instituted observations; (2) Preparation of the ground for statistical observation; (3) Collection of the facts; (4) Generalization of the individual records according to their value as evidence by mathematical calculations of averages, deviations and coefficients of correlation, etc.; (5) Explanation of the generalized results on some hypothesis of cause and effect; (6) Written presentation of the investigation in the form of a report which must be clear in all respects and presented under headings such as source of records, methods of study, results, explanation of results, and recommendations. The author defines industrial fatigue as "the diminution of working capacity caused by the length of intensity of some activity at a 'gainful occupation,'" and confines his discussion to the use of factory statistics, i. e., the actual records of ordinary work performed in the ordinary places of work. The events that can be observed and recorded in factories and that can be used to throw light on fatigue are taken up in separate chapters under the general head of "Measurement of working capacity," which includes (1) The output rate per given period of time; (2) The consumption of mechanical power at any given moment; (3) The rate of accidents per given period of time; (4) The proportion of spoiled work to output; (5) The proportion of sickness and unrest among the industrial population. In further analyzing the investigation the data are grouped under the headings "Measurement of variations in length and intensity of activity and in industrial conditions," and "Correlation of representative variations of working capacity with associated representative variations of activity and industrial conditions."

GENERAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS (Great Britain). *Report of the nineteenth annual general council meeting held in the Boot and Shoe Trades Hall, Leicester, on Thursday and Friday, July 4 and 5, 1918.* London, 1918. 47 pp.

HENDERSCHOTT, F. C., and WEAKLY, F. E. *The employment department and employee relations.* La Salle Extension University, Chicago, 1918. 60 pp.

This is one of a series of lectures in a systematic course of the La Salle-Extension University. The functions of the employment department are studied from the standpoint of the employer and practical suggestions for its direction are made. An interesting portion of the work is devoted to an analysis of labor turnover and efforts to reduce it and to the provisions for education and welfare work made by various companies for the purpose of developing employees and reducing the turnover.

HENRY STREET SETTLEMENT. *Report published on its twenty-first anniversary.* 265 Henry Street, New York, 1918. 88 pp. *Illustrated.*

Among the many welfare activities reviewed in this report is the work of the visiting nurse service among women workers in shops. It is stated that of 1,117 employees, representing 20 different shops, who were physically examined during the summer of 1917, 953 were found with one or more defects. The report also reviews the work of the vocational guidance bureau, whose aims include the prevention of child labor, the establishment of scholarships in trade schools so that the wage-earning powers of the children may be increased, and the placing of children who must go to work in touch with responsible employment agencies.

HOGGE, J. M., and GARSIDE, T. H. *War pensions and allowances.* London, Hodder and Stoughton, 1918. 463 pp.

An "attempt to place the public in possession of the facts which will enable them to find their way through the intricacies of the warrants, orders, and instructions." The volume contains very full explanations regarding the various pensions and allowances granted by Great Britain, including colonial pensions, and a chapter on Needed reforms.

HUTCHINS, B. L. *Women in industry after the war.* Social Reconstruction Pamphlets, No. III. London, The Athenæum Literature Dept., 10 Adelphi Terrace. [1918.] 28 pp.

The following aspects of the subject are treated by the author: Possibility of unemployment; The organization of women's industry after the war; State control of industry; The health of the working woman at home.

INTERNATIONAL MOLDERS' UNION OF NORTH AMERICA. *Officers' reports and proceedings of the twenty-fifth session held in Rochester, N. Y., September 10 to September 28 (inclusive), 1917. Supplement.* "International Molders' Journal." S. Rosenthal & Co., Cincinnati. 312 pp.

INTERNATIONAL UNION OF UNITED BREWERY AND SOFT DRINK WORKERS OF AMERICA. *Proceedings of the twenty-first convention held at Houston, Tex., from December 3 to 13, inclusive, 1917.* S. Rosenthal & Co., Cincinnati, [1918]. 292 pp.

LOTYKO, JOSEFA. *La science du travail et son organization.* Paris, Librairie Felix Alcan, 1917. 260 pp.

Under title, "The science of work and its organization," the author has collected a number of articles published in 1916 and 1917 in the *Revue Philosophique*, the *Revue Scientifique*, and the *Revue Générale des Sciences*, with the idea of throwing light upon certain points of industrial psycho-physiology generally recognized in the present critical time as important. The book is divided into an examination of the four subjects: The human machine, including the question of apprenticeship, and a study of fatigue; The Taylor system; The adaptability of the right and the left hands to work; and The Belgian method of technical education.

JOHNSON, F. ERNEST. *A bibliography of social service.* Commission on the church and social service. Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, 105 East Twenty-second Street, New York. July, 1918. 40 pp.

JOLY, HENRI. *La question du travail des femmes; ses perspectives nouvelles.* Paris, H. Dunod and E. Pinat, 1917. 18 pp. *Société d'encouragement pour l'industrie nationale. Extrait du bulletin de Mars-Avril, 1917.*

An address made before the society for the encouragement of national industry, at the public meeting of February 24, 1917, on the subject of "The new outlook for female work after the war." Two of the gravest difficulties which France will have to meet, the author states, will be to increase the national supply of manual labor which will necessitate the employment to a large extent of female labor and to raise the birth rate, which will make of utmost importance the protection of family life and especially of women.

The compromise which the author suggests for reconciling these two opposing problems is a five-hour working day, with reasonable wages for women, which would leave them free to devote half of each day to their homes and families.

MAROT, HELEN. *Creative impulse in industry. A proposition for educators.* New York. E. P. Dutton and Company, 1918. 146 pp.

The result of a survey made by the author for the Bureau of Educational Experiments. There are four chapters, on Production and creative effort, Adapting people to industry—the American way, Adapting people to industry—the German way, and Educational industry and associated enterprise, through which various mechanical devices and other means for securing greater efficiency in industry are examined, their defects pointed out, and the author's theory of developing the creative impulse of workers through education expanded. She advocates the undertaking of "experiments which would stimulate the impulses of youth for creative experience," and outlines a proposition for the promotion of such an experiment, which is being worked out in the form of a manufacture of toys simple enough in construction to furnish practical work for a staff of young pupils from 14 to 17 years old.

MARSHALL, LEON CARROLL. *Readings in industrial society. A study in the structure and functioning of modern economic organization.* University of Chicago Press. Chicago [1918]. 1082 pp.

MAZEL, HENRI. *La nouvelle cité de France. Réorganisation nationale d'après guerre.* Paris, Librairie Félix Alcan, 1917. 320 pp.

The new city of France is the ideal, socially and economically, to which this constructive study of conditions looking toward national reorganization after the war aspires. Four parts deal with the following sides of national restoration: National vitality and health; Moral restoration; Public education; and Economic reorganization. The last contains chapters on both agriculture and industry, of which latter the author recommends in his suggestions for making the city of France stronger and more beautiful, all necessary arbitration for the prevention of conflicts between employers and employees, and the education of employers not to become discouraged if arbitration decisions seem in general more favorable to their employees than to themselves, but to recognize the fact that it is to their own interests that their employees are well paid.

MAZE-SENCIER, GEORGES. *Les orphelins de la guerre. Les étapes d'une loi. Projet instituant des pupilles de la nation.* Paris, Bureau d'Informations Religieuses et sociales, 43 pp. *Les enquêtes du B. I. R. S. No. 19.*

An analysis of the proposed law for making the war orphans of France wards of the Nation. The text of the law is printed in three forms in parallel columns as follows: The text of the project presented to the Senate November 25, 1915; the text of the project adopted by the Senate June 23, 1916; and the difference between the two texts.

McCULLOCH, JAMES E., ED. *The human way. Addresses on race problems at the Southern sociological congress, Atlanta.* [Second edition. Washington, Southern Sociological Congress, 1918.

Of special interest are the addresses on The need and value of industrial education for Negroes; Interracial interests in industry; Rural education and social efficiency. Other addresses deal with various social and economic subjects and matters of hygiene.

MCMURTRIE, DOUGLAS C. *A training course in vocational reeducation of disabled soldiers and sailors. New York, Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men, 1918. 6 pp.*

Brief outline of the training course which was conducted by the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men in cooperation with the Federal Board for Vocational Education and the Invalided Soldiers' Commission (Canada), from May 20 to June 28, 1918, including the schedule and outline of work on a trip devoted to visiting training centers in Canada.

MERRITT, WALTER GORDON. *Labor unions and the law. New York. The American Antiboycott Association, 135 Broadway, 1918.*

An address before the American Antiboycott association.

METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY. *Hiring and firing Suggestions for employers. Industrial service bureau, Bulletin No. 1. New York, 1918. 48 pp.*

This pamphlet is noted on pages 284 to 286 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

MILLER, GURDON RANSOM. *Social insurance in the United States. Chicago, A. C. McClurg & Co., 1918. 136 pp.*

One of the publications of the Social Science Series. This volume presents in concise form the evolution of the social insurance idea in the United States, and points out the marked change in American public opinion toward legislation of this character. Based upon data gathered from various sources and analyzed by a writer familiar with the problem involved, it summarizes the best thoughts of many students and investigators of the subject of social insurance in its various forms.

The author thinks that "the entry of this country into the European war alters in no sense the fundamental principles of social insurance, except to emphasize the right of the soldier worker to insurance under Government authority and backing. This emphatic acknowledgment of the justice of the insurance idea will probably enhance its value in the public mind at the close of the war."

There are eight chapters on Changing attitude in the United States toward social legislation; The conservation of human resources; Status of workmen's accident compensation in the United States; Health insurance; Prevention—medical aid and organization; Unemployment; Old-age support; and Social insurance as a general educator. Speaking of unemployment insurance, the author says:

It is of interest to note the order of the evolution of the social insurance idea in most countries where now operative. Accident and sickness have both originated in the voluntary form, and gradually developed to the subsidized mutual form, and, finally, after public sanction, have passed to full social recognition in State compulsory insurance, the active factors in which are employers, employees, and the Government. Unemployment insurance is still in the second stage of development on the continent of Europe. In Great Britain it passed by law in 1912 into the third stage of governmental direction and control. In America accident insurance has passed through the first stage, omitted the second, and passed to the third in 33 States. Health insurance still remains in the first stage, but has taken the initial steps by which it may pass directly into the third. Unemployment insurance has the opportunity of profiting from the experience of foreign countries and the current discussion in America, and may omit both first and second stages in this country, and begin operating under its fullest developed form.

Unemployment insurance must rely for its eventual success upon the development of reliable and accurate statistics. Labor exchanges are the solution of this part of the problem and are an essential part of any rational program. * * * The greatest purpose of unemployment insurance is the prevention of idleness through the regularization of industry. It rewards both employer and employee for continuity of work, and it penalizes both for unnecessary discontinuity. Of all methods to induce prevention, insurance is the most effective. It exercises an elastic, but constant, pressure on all parties concerned to reduce the evil to the lowest possible minimum.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CORPORATION SCHOOLS. *Bulletin. Vol. V, No. 9. New York, September, 1918. Pp. 385-432.*

An article on the Rockefeller welfare plan gives the statement of John D. Rockefeller, jr., regarding his recent visit to the Colorado mines and mills, and his observation of community interest and improved morale due to the operation of a welfare plan instituted by the Colorado Fuel & Iron Co. at the time of the labor troubles with its employees five years ago. There is also an article on Japanese passion for education, by S. S. McClure; and a report of the meeting of the executive committee.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF MANUFACTURERS. *Governmental war agencies affecting business (second edition). 30 Church Street, New York City. 190 pp.*

This publication is designed to supply briefly accurate information concerning the jurisdiction and activities of the various governmental agencies which have been developed or extended through war needs and which directly affect American business.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS. *Work of the remedial loan societies 1917-1918. 1918. 1 table.*

— *Bulletin. Proceedings, tenth annual convention, Atlantic City, N. J., May 23-25, 1918. August, 1918. 38 pp.*

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD. *Wartime changes in the cost of living. Research report number 9. August, 1918. 15 Beacon Street, Boston, Mass. 82 pp.*

This report, which does not attempt to deal with causes or establish a standard of living but was undertaken largely because the subject is of great importance in fixing wage scales, is one of a series of reports on questions relating to industry. It is an attempt to bring together all available data on the subject from the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, and various other Federal and State agencies, together with material secured on price changes of clothing and rents by a first-hand investigation by the board. Living conditions prevailing at the outset of the war have been used as a basis of measurement for subsequent changes. Rents vary so greatly according to local conditions that the general rise was fixed somewhat arbitrarily at 15 per cent. It was considered impossible to make an investigation of the items which come under the head of sundries since a great variety of expenditures are represented. A general rise of 50 per cent, therefore, was determined upon, which was considered a fair estimate in view of the great variation in price increases in the different items included. In using the relative retail prices of food as given by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics the prices of 15 articles of food, prices of which have been secured by the bureau since 1912, were taken. The relative prices for "all articles combined" are brought in by the chain-index method and cover seven other articles.

The following table indicates the increase in the cost of living in representative communities from July, 1914, to June, 1918:

Item.	Per cent of family expenditure.	Per cent of increase in cost during war period to June, 1918.	Per cent of increase as related to total budget.
Food.....	43.1	62	26.7
Rent.....	17.7	15	2.7
Clothing.....	13.2	77	10.2
Fuel and light.....	5.6	45	2.5
Sundries.....	20.4	50	10.2
Total.....	100.0	52.3

The distribution of family expenditures as determined by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics from an investigation covering over 11,000 families was accepted without change. A slight discrepancy is noted in the percentage given for the rise in the price of foodstuffs. The actual rise in foodstuffs from July, 1914, to June 1918, was 59 per cent as explained in the text, and the increase of 62 per cent given in the table was obtained by taking the average price of food for 1913 at 100 per cent as the basis of comparison. The percentage of increase as related to the total budget is obtained by weighting each item according to the proportion of income spent for it by the wage earners. Therefore it is seen that an average increase of from 50 to 55 per cent in the cost of living of the average wage earner from July, 1914, to June, 1918, is indicated by the findings of the report, and this is considered fairly representative. Emphasis is placed on the fact that if these figures are used as a basis in readjusting wages, local studies must be made of changes in rent which in certain communities will bring the total increase in cost of living very much higher.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES. *Reconstruction after the war. Journal Volume IV. April 1, 1918. Boston, Boston Book Company, 1918. 242 pp. This volume also represents No. 50 of the Journal of the American Social Science Association.*

Contains a report of the annual dinner, a list of members, activities of members, personal items, reports of meetings, etc., besides a number of papers on various phases of reconstruction, among which those on Labor laws in the crucible; Problems of immigration and the foreign born after the war; Notes on the I. W. W. in Arizona and the northwest; Educational preparedness for after the war; The military, industrial and public health features of narcotic addiction; and Report of the committee on agriculture, are of special interest to labor.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL. *Freight elevators. Safe practices. Being an orderly presentation in loose leaf form of accident hazards and the best practices for their elimination. Vol. 1, No. 15. Chicago, 208 South La Salle Street, 149-160 pp. Illustrated.*

— *Safe practices. No. 16. Safety clothing for men and women [1918]. National Safety Council, Chicago. 12 pp.*

Illustrated pamphlet treating of safe working garments for both men and women operating machines, climbing ladders, or doing heavy manual labor. It treats separately of aprons, caps, shoes, leggings, arm protection, and various kinds of gloves. It also mentions and illustrates various kinds of breathing apparatus and gives recipes for fireproofing clothing, caps, gloves, leggings, etc.

NATIONAL UNION OF WOMEN WORKERS. *Handbook and Report of the National Council and Union of Women Workers of Great Britain and Ireland. Parliament Mansions, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1917-1918. 151 pp. Price 1 s. net.*

Part I of the handbook contains the list of members, the constitution of the union, the standing orders for the different committees, and a list of affiliated societies. Part II contains the report of the annual meeting of the National Council held in London in October, 1917, and includes reports by the various sections devoted to special work for women.

NICHOLSON, J. SHIELD. *War finance. London, P. S. King & Son (Ltd.), 1917. 480 pp.*

A study of the financial system of Great Britain in its relation to various phases of economic and social life as affected by the war, and with an outlook towards readjustment after the war. Chapters are included on Labor and the war, The drink proposals of the Government, The peril of public extravagance, The rise in war bonuses, The food shortage, and Prices after the war. The conclusions reached are usually in the nature of broad general principles rather than of any detailed suggestions for action.

POLLOCK, IVAN L. *History of economic legislation in Iowa. Iowa City, 1918. 386 pp.*

Presents a review of the laws of Iowa which have been enacted primarily through economic considerations. A chapter on labor legislation treats Wage legislation, Convict labor legislation, Mine labor laws, the legislation affecting mine laborers

being more voluminous than that for any other one class of workmen, Railway labor legislation, The bureau of labor statistics, Factory labor laws, Child labor legislation, Miscellaneous labor legislation, and Indemnity for work accidents.

PROBLEMS OF RECONSTRUCTION. *A symposium. With an introduction by the Marquis of Crewe, K. G. London, T. Fisher Unwin (Ltd.), 1918. 315 pp.*

Contains lectures and addresses delivered at the summer meeting at the Hampstead Garden Suburb, August, 1917, which are grouped under four heads, as follows: Part I, First principles of reconstruction; Part II, Reconstruction in education; Part III, Social and industrial reconstruction; Part IV, Arts and crafts in relation to reconstruction.

ROWNTREE, B. SEEBOHM. *The human needs of labor. Thomas Nelson & Sons (Ltd.). London, Edinburgh, and New York, 1918. 166 pp.*

An attempt to fix a minimum living wage for men and women. The author has drawn his conclusions from statistics gathered by various agencies both in Great Britain and other countries as well as from an investigation of rather limited scope by himself on the extent to which wage-earning women are responsible for the maintenance of dependents. The data from all these sources are used in determining the average number of dependents per wage earner, the food energy requirements of adults and children, and the cost of food, housing, clothing, fuel and other necessities of life as a basis for determining the minimum wage. The minimum amount fixed for women does not take into account possible dependents and discards altogether the principle of equal pay for equal work. The author arrives at the conclusion that the minimum weekly wage for men, based on the prices prevailing in July, 1914, should be fixed at 35s. 3d. (\$8.58), taking a family of five as an average, and for women at 20s. (\$4.87) and, allowing for a probable general increase in cost of living after the war of 25 per cent over prewar prices, the minimum wage is fixed at 44s. (\$10.71) for men and at 25s. (\$6.08) for women.

RUSKIN COLLEGE, OXFORD. *The State and industry during the war and after. Reorganization of Industry Series: IV. London, Cooperative Printing Society, Limited, 1918. 84 pp.*

This pamphlet contains the proceedings of a national conference of working-class associations, held under the auspices of Ruskin College at Manchester on May 10 and 11, 1918, at which the following three papers, dealing with the question as to what are the proper limits of State action in connection with industry, were read and discussed: "The State and the citizen," by H. Sanderson Furniss, M. A., principal of Ruskin College; "The State and the producer," by John Hilton, of the Garton Foundation; and "The State and the consumer," by J. J. Mallon, secretary of the National Antisweating League.

SOCIÉTÉ DE SAINT VINCENT DE PAUL. *Manuel pratique des lois sociales et ouvrières. Paris, Gabriel Beauchesne, 1918. 336 pp.*

Practical manual of social laws and laws relating to workmen, prepared by the Society of Saint Vincent de Paul, with an introduction explaining the work of the society in the interest of the working classes during 80 years. The laws are concisely explained and classified in chapters devoted to Protection of the family; Family housing and hygiene; Protection of children; Protection of labor; and Welfare and Security.

SOCIÉTÉ POUR L'ASSISTANCE PATERNELLE AUX ENFANTS EMPLOYÉS DANS LES INDUSTRIES DES FLEURS ET DES PLUMES. (*Patronage Industriel.*) *Bulletin annuel (exercice 1916-1917). Compte rendu de l'assemblée générale (27 Novembre 1917). Siège social: 10, rue de Lancry, (Hôtel de l'Union Nationale des Chambres Syndicales). Président-fondateur: Ch. Petit (feu). 51^e Année. Paris, Imprimerie Chaix, 1917. 80 pp.*

This annual bulletin of the Society for the Assistance of Children Employed in the Flower and Feather Industries gives reports on financial and other routine matters,

on the work of technical instruction in the flower and feather industries, and a list of children who have received prizes given by the society for conduct and work. The society was recognized as a public utility establishment by decree of date August 25, 1892.

STOREY, MOORFIELD. *The labor question. An address delivered before the Phi Beta Kappa Society of Tufts College (Massachusetts), May 8th, 1918. 21 pp.*

TEXAS STATE FEDERATION OF LABOR. *Proceedings of the twenty-first annual convention held at San Antonio, Tex., March 18-23, 1918. Including the constitution and laws. 118 pp.*

TRENT, RAY S. *Women in industry. Bulletin of the Extension Division, Indiana University, Vol. III, No. 7. Bloomington, Ind., March, 1918. 59 pp.*

Contains the following chapters: Woman as a producer; Prevalence of women in industry; Why women work; What is woman's work; Economic problems in woman's work; Regulating the employment of women; Public concern for the woman who toils; Women workers and war; The courts and women workers; Women workers in Indiana politics and in Indiana law.

WAR REFUGEES COMMITTEE. *Second report. Crowther and Goodman (Ltd.), 124 Fenchurch Street, London, E. C. 3. 83 pp.*

This is the second report of a committee organized to assist war refugees. This organization receives both voluntary subscriptions and Government aid, the latter being limited to Belgian refugees although the committee has assisted refugees from all other Allied countries. The scope of the work can be seen from the following list of departments all of which give reports of work accomplished: Finance; local committees; private relief fund; bureau of reception; allocation; hostels, hotels and flats; employment; education; health; care of young women and girls; intelligence; legal and police; mail, post and clearing room; and transport.

WESTERN UNION TELEGRAPH COMPANY. *The Western Union and the War Labor Board. The company's position. New York, 1918. 40 pp.*

Contains the essential data as to the labor policy of the company in five parts: I. The prime facts and the steps taken; II. Reasons for the company's position—statement of the president of the company issued to the press following the announcement of the War Labor Board; III. Official report of War Labor Board, authorized June 2, 1918; IV. The attitude of the Post Office Department on the same problem—extracts from annual report of the Postmaster General for 1917; V. What has been done by the company. The last part gives the plan for the organization of an association to be controlled and officered by employees to serve as a medium through which the management and employees might confer concerning their mutual interests, and the suggestion of the president of the company that employees of all divisions choose representatives for a convention to be held in Chicago July 10 for the purpose of perfecting an industrial constitution, the essential features of which shall be: (a) Complete control of such an association by employees, none of whom shall be in authority to hire or discharge, and (b) that it be representative of all employees.

SERIES OF BULLETINS PUBLISHED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS.

[The publication of the annual and special reports and of the bimonthly bulletin 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 carry 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.

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.

Wages and Hours of Labor—Concluded.

- 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.
- Bul. 225. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1915.
- Bul. 232. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1916.
- Bul. 238. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1916.
- Bul. 239. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing and finishing, 1916.
- Bul. 245. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1917. [In press.]
- Bul. 252. Wages and hours of labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry. [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 the Employment Managers' Conference held at Minneapolis, January, 1916.
- Bul. 202. Proceedings of the conference of the 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.
- Bul. 241. Public employment offices in the United States.
- Bul. 247. Proceedings of Employment Managers' Conference, Rochester, N. Y., May 9-11, 1918.

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.
- 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.
- Bul. 240. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States.
- Bul. 243. Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and foreign countries. [In press.]
- Bul. 248. Proceedings of the fourth annual meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [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 occupation.
- 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.
- Bul. 234. Safety movement in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1917.
- Bul. 236. Effect of the air hammer on the hands of stonecutters.
- Bul. 251. Preventable deaths in the cotton manufacturing industry. [In press.]

Cconciliation 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. Operation of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada.

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.
- Bul. 244. Labor legislation of 1917.
- Bul. 246. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1917. [In press.]

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.
- Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
- Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
- Bul. 237. Industrial unrest in Great Britain.
- Bul. 249. Industrial health and efficiency. Final report of British Health of Munition Workers Committee. [In press.]

Miscellaneous Series.

- Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
- Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons.
- Bul. 123. Employers' welfare work.
- Bul. 158. Government aid to home owning and housing of working people in foreign countries.
- Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment.
- Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 174. Subject index of the publications of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics up to May 1, 1915.
- Bul. 208. Profit sharing in the United States.
- Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
- Bul. 242. Food situation in Central Europe, 1917.
- Bul. 250. Welfare work for employees in industrial establishments in the United States. [In press.]

