

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
ROYAL MEEKER, Commissioner

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VOLUME IX

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A Study of Food Costs in Various Cities.

By PROF. WILLIAM F. OGBURN.

THIS article presents the conclusions reached by analyzing the food budgets gathered by the agents of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in the cost-of-living survey of 1918-19. This study covered 92 urban communities, of various sizes, in all geographical sections of the country. Nearly 13,000 family schedules were obtained. These schedules contained a total of 474 items, of which 145 called for the quantities and the costs of the different articles of food consumed by each family for an entire year.

Food, being the most important of the several groups of items in the family budget, constitutes the most important single index of the cost of living. During periods of rising prices, the prices of food commodities are discussed first and most frequently, and comparisons in the cost of living are, indeed, often based on the trend of food prices alone. Although such comparisons are not strictly accurate, nevertheless, as food expenditures overshadow in importance all other items in the budget, the food index may be, and has been, used as a cost-of-living barometer when the price changes in other articles of consumption are not readily available. Also, it may be noted, that to some extent such a comparison is justified by the fact that the quantity of food consumed is more constant than other items of consumption. Generally speaking, if the family income fails to increase as rapidly as prices increase, the amount spent for food is cut least, the necessary sacrifices being made in other things—clothing, rent, fuel, etc.

Because of its great importance, the expenditure for food has been studied more than any other group of family expenditures, and more scientific work has been done on this item than on any other in the budget. In determining the value of the different foods for producing energy, for building tissue, and for supplying indispensable mineral and biological elements, particularly good work has been done by the Department of Agriculture and by various dietitians. In the present investigation, the family schedules were gathered by

agents of the Bureau, who sought to ascertain from the housewives the amount and price of each food article consumed during a period of a year. Usually the agent could obtain with accuracy such information only for a short period, such as a week, and had to compute the yearly consumption by multiplication, due consideration being given to seasonal variations and family circumstances. The work was done with extreme care, however, and the results may be accepted as accurate within a narrow margin of error. This is a cost-of-living study, not a dietary study. The food budgets reported by the housewives to the agents of the Bureau do not, of course, give with as minute accuracy the quantities of the different articles of food purchased and the amount of waste as would be shown by a careful dietary study. It is interesting and worth while, however, to take the budgets for a year as reported and analyze them in respect to their adequacy in fuel value and in the proportions of carbohydrates, proteins, fats, mineral constituents, fruit and vegetable acids, and cellulose tissue. The analysis and comparison of the food budgets as to sufficiency and costs in different cities gives some very valuable information.

Comparison of Cities in Food Costs.

The first consideration in the present article is given to a comparison of food costs in various communities. Much interest has always been displayed in this subject and since prices have been rising so rapidly this interest has become almost passionate. The newspapers comment almost every day upon the relative costs of foods in different cities, and such comparisons are frequently cited in wage disputes.

Past attempts to compare the food costs of cities have rarely been wholly satisfactory. The simplest method, and the one most frequently used, has been to compare the retail prices of a selected list of articles. This method shows simply comparative prices and does not show comparative food costs, as the proportionate consumption of the various food articles is not necessarily the same in different cities. Thus a sea-coast city may consume much fish while an inland city may consume very little. Another method of comparison has been to weight the articles in the selected list according to variations in local consumption. This would produce accurate results, if full dietary information were available. Such information, however, has rarely been available. As a result selected food lists might very well represent a different percentage of the whole dietary in one city than they do in another, and the conclusions reached be therefore subject to error. The error might not be large but, in comparisons of food costs by cities, the differences themselves are not very great, and even a minor error becomes of serious importance.

In the present studies it was not found possible to arrive at any completely satisfactory method of comparison which could be applied to a large group of cities without undue expenditure of time and labor. Therefore, in the present article, the plan is to employ several methods of comparison according to the character of the material available. The first comparison is that of the average cost of food for families with varying incomes. As this comparison involves little labor in preparation it was possible to extend it to cover 91 localities. Following this there is offered a comparison of food costs for families of uniform size and expenditure. This is a more satisfactory method of comparison than the one just mentioned, but as it involves much labor in tabulation it could be made for only 43 localities. Following this in turn, there is offered a comparison of food costs of an adequate dietary by cities for families of uniform size and expenditure. This is possibly the most accurate comparison of all, but because of the very great amount of work involved in computing the necessary data, it could be made for only 11 localities. Other comparisons of less importance, but of significance from some particular point of view, are also added.

Average Cost of Food in 91 Localities, for Families of Varying Incomes.

In Table 1 is presented for 91 localities the average cost of food per year for families with incomes from \$1,200 to \$1,500. The localities are ranked in decreasing order of cost.

TABLE 1.—RANKING OF 91¹ LOCALITIES IN THE AMOUNT OF ANNUAL EXPENDITURE FOR FOOD FOR WHITE FAMILIES WITH TOTAL ANNUAL INCOMES FROM \$1,200 TO \$1,500.

Locality.	Average annual expenditure for food.	Number of families.	Equivalent adult males per family.	Locality.	Average annual expenditure for food.	Number of families.	Equivalent adult males per family.
Fall River, Mass.	\$624	48	3.76	Cincinnati, Ohio	\$504	86	3.30
Lawrence, Mass.	601	32	3.62	Virginia, Minn.	504	18	3.14
Butte, Mont.	601	7	3.13	Louisville, Ky.	503	38	3.59
New York, N. Y.	584	151	3.15	Winston-Salem, N. C.	503	20	3.53
Boston, Mass.	579	160	3.22	Cleveland, Ohio	503	89	2.99
Charlotte, N. C.	565	28	3.75	Denver, Colo.	502	63	3.05
Charleston, S. C.	561	24	3.04	Rutland, Vt.	501	31	3.44
Johnstown, N. Y.	557	33	3.11	Oklahoma City, Okla.	499	34	3.12
Cripple Creek, Colo.	554	38	3.33	Trinidad, Colo.	499	25	2.98
Newark, N. J.	553	46	2.92	Green Bay, Wis.	498	25	3.56
Manchester, N. H.	552	41	3.22	Seattle, Wash.	498	60	2.98
Dallas, Tex.	552	21	3.25	Fredericksburg, Va.	498	21	3.66
Scranton, Pa.	549	62	3.29	Astoria, Oreg.	497	22	2.87
Baltimore, Md.	547	60	3.16	Portland, Oreg.	497	38	2.99
Huntsville, Ala.	545	29	3.43	St. Louis, Mo., and East St. Louis, Ill.	497	87	2.94
Steubenville, Ohio	541	10	3.03	Grand Island, Nebr.	495	26	2.74
Calumet, Mich.	540	35	3.52	Wichita, Kans.	494	29	3.06
New Orleans, La.	539	42	3.42	Everett, Wash.	493	29	3.24
Houston, Tex.	539	35	3.36	Wilmington, Del.	492	25	2.86
Pittsburg, Pa.	535	81	3.07	Knoxville, Tenn.	491	17	3.28
Portland, Me.	533	38	3.24	Columbus, Ohio	491	75	3.13
Philadelphia, Pa., and Camden, N. J.	533	86	3.16	Bakersfield, Calif.	490	20	3.22
Corsicana, Tex.	533	23	3.40	Spokane, Wash.	488	42	3.07
Meridian, Miss.	531	23	3.32	Pana, Ill.	488	28	3.14
Providence, R. I.	530	50	3.33	Memphis, Tenn.	487	35	3.22
Syracuse, N. Y.	528	69	3.38	Indianapolis, Ind.	487	45	3.13
Westfield, Mass.	528	29	3.01	Grand Rapids, Mich.	487	39	3.38
Atlanta, Ga.	525	48	3.37	Detroit, Mich.	484	78	2.81
Trenton, N. J.	524	50	3.06	Evansville, Ind.	482	37	3.71
Chicago, Ill.	523	120	3.20	Duluth, Minn.	482	38	2.98
Little Rock, Ark.	523	16	3.04	Chambersburg, Pa.	481	24	3.10
Charleston, W. Va.	523	23	2.90	Rock Island and Moline, Ill., and Davenport, Iowa	481	56	3.00
Dover, N. J.	521	18	3.43	Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.	480	101	3.40
Omaha, Nebr.	517	46	2.77	Buffalo, N. Y.	479	83	3.02
Richmond, Va.	515	50	3.34	Birmingham, Ala.	476	37	2.91
Pueblo, Colo.	514	25	3.08	Eureka, Calif.	475	28	3.06
Kansas City, Kans., and Kansas City, Mo.	514	91	2.91	Jacksonville, Fla.	474	18	2.61
Bridgeport, Conn.	514	44	2.76	Los Angeles, Calif.	463	75	3.20
San Francisco and Oakland, Calif.	514	114	2.99	El Paso, Tex.	459	8	2.91
Norfolk, Va.	514	17	3.00	New Bern, N. C.	456	22	3.01
Chippewa Falls, Wis.	513	17	2.97	Roanoke, Va.	455	12	3.07
Mobile, Ala.	513	41	3.08	Sacramento, Calif.	454	39	3.03
Brazil, Ind.	508	20	3.27	Salt Lake City, Utah	453	23	3.01
Des Moines, Iowa.	506	29	3.07	Fort Wayne, Ind.	430	25	2.93
Danville, Ill.	505	23	3.31	Savannah, Ga.	427	21	2.88
Milwaukee, Wis.	505	74	3.21				

¹ Bisbee, Ariz., had no families with incomes between \$1,200 and \$1,500. Only white families are included.

The average annual expenditure for food by all the families in all the cities listed was \$511. The median amount was \$505 and the median cities were Milwaukee, Wis., and Danville, Ill. The largest sum, \$624, was spent in Fall River, Mass.; and the smallest sum, \$427, in Savannah, Ga. In the last half of the table there are very few localities in New England or in the North Atlantic States. The cities having the smaller expenditures for food are for the most part from the Middle West, with some from the South. The very large cities are found mostly in the first half of the table, although there are also in this part of the table a number of small towns. Some southern cities rank high in the table and consequently in food costs.

The information in Table 1 is of much interest and particularly so because of the wide range of localities covered. Its weakness is that the families concerned differ somewhat in income and greatly in size, with the resultant possibilities of error due to these causes. To make satisfactory comparisons it is much better to include only families of the same size and of the same income. This has been done for 43 of the communities and the results are shown in Table 2, which ranks these communities according to the average annual expenditure for food for families consisting of husband, wife, and three children aged approximately 2, 5, and 11 years, with an annual expenditure of \$1,300.

TABLE 2.—RANKING OF 43 LOCALITIES IN AVERAGE ANNUAL EXPENDITURE FOR FOOD BY FAMILIES OF THE SAME SIZE, 3.35 EQUIVALENT ADULT MALES, AND WITH THE SAME TOTAL ANNUAL EXPENDITURE, \$1,300.¹

Locality.	Average annual expenditure for food.	Locality.	Average annual expenditure for food.
Lawrence, Mass.	\$602	Virginia, Minn.; Calumet, Mich.	\$532
Fall River, Mass.	599	Cripple Creek and Trinidad, Col.	530
New York City, N. Y.	597	Cincinnati, Ohio.	529
Boston, Mass.	593	Birmingham, Ala.	528
Huntsville, Ala.; Meridian, Miss.	564	Chicago, Ill.	528
Portland, Me.; Manchester, N. H.	564	Denver, Col.	528
Newark, N. J.	564	Seattle, Wash.	528
New Orleans, La. (white)	560	St. Louis, Mo.; East St. Louis, Ill.	524
Pittsburg, Pa.	559	Oklahoma City, Okla.; Wichita, Kans.	523
Philadelphia, Pa.; Camden, N. J.	555	Portland, Oreg.	521
Houston and Dallas, Tex.	553	Bridgeport, Conn.	520
Baltimore, Md. (white)	550	Charlotte and Winston-Salem, N. C.	520
Scranton, Pa.	550	Cleveland, Ohio.	519
Providence, R. I.	547	Columbus, Ohio.	516
Westfield, Mass.; Johnstown, N. Y.; Rutland, Vt.	547	Detroit, Mich.	512
Richmond, Va.	545	Brazil, Ind.; Danville and Pana, Ill.	511
San Francisco and Oakland, Calif.	542	Everett, Wash.; Astoria, Oreg.	511
Baltimore, Md. (colored)	540	Indianapolis, Ind.	510
Charleston, S. C.	534	Buffalo, N. Y.	508
Syracuse, N. Y.	534	New Orleans, La. (colored)	504
Kansas City, Kans.; Kansas City, Mo.	533	Los Angeles, Calif.	494
Atlanta, Ga.	532	Memphis, Tenn.	486
		Minneapolis and St. Paul, Minn.	481

¹ Only white families are studied for this table, except in New Orleans and Baltimore, where the colored families are classified separately.

In using this standard family of uniform size and income, it is to be emphasized that there were not sufficient families of this precise type to permit of direct analysis. What has been done, therefore, is to analyze all the family schedules available and by the system known in statistics as "correlation" to compute from the experiences of all families the probable experience of a family of the type noted. The type thus becomes in some degree an abstraction but has been proved to represent the truth with extreme closeness.¹

The broad general indications of this table are not strikingly different from those of Table 1, although the scale of ranking is somewhat more accurate than in Table 1. In the first half of the table are found most of the large cities in the northeastern section of the United States. The western cities predominate in the last half of the table. Minneapolis and St. Paul, as several other studies have shown, have very low food costs, as has also Los Angeles. New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, together with the New England manufacturing towns, are high in the scale.

Further interesting comparisons may be obtained by grouping certain of these cities according to locality and size. The average annual expenditure for food of a family of 3.35 equivalent adult males and \$1,300 expenditure, as noted in Table 2, for four of the very large eastern cities—New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston—was \$568. The corresponding average expenditure for ten large eastern cities—Buffalo, Providence, Syracuse, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Columbus, Scranton, Fall River, Bridgeport, and Newark—was \$538. The average for southern cities—represented by New Orleans, Atlanta, Birmingham, Memphis, and Richmond—was slightly smaller, \$530. The four Pacific coast cities—San Francisco, Los Angeles, Seattle, and Portland—had a still lower average, \$521; while lowest of all was the average for three middle western

¹ Thus, for example, 100 schedules are obtained in complete detail for a certain city. The families are of the same general character, but differ within moderate limits as to size and income. Perhaps none of these families have an income of precisely \$1,300 and a membership of precisely a wife, husband, and 3 children aged 2, 5, and 11 years, although a number may closely approximate this type. By careful charting and analysis of the whole group of families, however, a line can be drawn which shows on the average just how the expenditure for food changes as income increases and the number of children increases; and from the course of this line can be determined the probable or average amount which a family of a given size and income will spend on food.

The mathematical method used in the computations is explained in full in a forthcoming bulletin of the Bureau of Labor Statistics entitled: "Analysis of the Standards of Living in the District of Columbia in 1916." The particular equation used in Table 2 is, for Philadelphia as an example: $X_1 = 45.60 - 0.0103 X_2 + 3.132 X_3$, when $X_1 =$ the percentage of the total expenditure for food, $X_2 =$ the total annual expenditure, and $X_3 =$ the size of the family measured in units of adult male according to the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics scale based on calorie requirement. The foregoing equation is for Philadelphia and the amount spent for food, as seen in Table 2, is determined by substituting \$1,300 for X_2 , 3.35 equivalent adult males for X_3 , and solving for X_1 . This gives the percentage spent for food, which multiplied by \$1,300, the total expenditure, will give a figure representing the total amount spent for food. Similar equations have been worked for each of the 45 localities, thus enabling one to ascertain the average expenditure for food by families with the specified total annual expenditure and of the specified size.

localities—St. Louis and East St. Louis, Minneapolis and St. Paul, and Kansas City, Kans. and Mo.—\$513. The very small towns—Westfield, Mass.; Johnstown, N. Y.; Rutland, Vt.; Brazil, Ind.; Danville, Ill.; Pana, Ill.; Huntsville, Ala.; Meridian, Miss.; Astoria, Oreg.; Everett, Wash.; Virginia, Minn.; Calumet, Mich.; Cripple Creek and Trinidad, Colo.—had an average expenditure for food of \$539.

It should be remembered that the food costs in Table 2 do not represent necessarily the costs of dietaries properly representative of the respective localities. These figures are rather the amounts spent out of \$1,300 for food by families of the same size. This point may be brought out by a comparison of, say, Bridgeport, Conn., and Providence, R. I. The figure for Bridgeport is \$520 and that for Providence \$547. Bridgeport may be lower than Providence, partly because rent is much higher in Bridgeport than in Providence. It is well known that rents in Bridgeport increased enormously as a result of the war activities, so that out of \$1,300 perhaps an unduly large portion had to be devoted to rent, thus reducing the amount available for food. The costs of adequate and representative dietaries in the two cities may have differed considerably from the figures in the table. Since, however, for an income as low as \$1,300, food is of the first consideration, the ranking of the cities in Table 2 probably corresponds very closely with the ranking of cities on the costs of comparable, representative dietaries.

It is thought that the basis of comparison used in constructing Table 2 also largely eliminates another factor which might tend to vitiate the comparisons made in Table 1. The studies of yearly expenditures for the various cities did not all cover exactly the same 12-month period. For a few of the cities the studies were for the 12-month period ending August 31, 1918, and for some for the 12-month period ending February 28, 1919. The studies for all of the cities were for 12-month periods ending between these two limits. Comparisons of costs between cities might therefore be somewhat influenced by this factor. For instance, if comparison should be made between the cost of dietaries in New York for the 12-month period ending August 31, 1918, and the cost of dietaries for Salt Lake City for the 12-month period ending February 28, 1919, the Salt Lake City figures would be higher than they should be in such a comparison because the price of food rose between these two dates. In the present studies this factor could not be of great importance as the large bulk of the studies, i. e., for 70 out of 92 localities, were for the 12-month period ending during the four months of the fall and winter season of 1918-19, October, November, December, and January. And as the prices of many articles are often set by seasons the error due to the time of collecting the schedules would

probably not be very large. In any case, however, the method used in constructing Table 2 reduces this factor or error to a minimum and practically eliminates it, for we are comparing in Table 2 the proportion of \$1,300 spent for food, and it does not follow that the proportion spent during the 12-month period ending August 31, 1918, will be appreciably larger than the proportion spent during the 12-month period ending February 28, 1919. This will be so for the reason that food habits change very slowly and furthermore that the other factors in the budget have risen as well as food. There will be some fluctuation in the percentages spent for the various classes of expenditure as a result of rising prices over a 7-month period, as some classes of expenditure rise faster than others, but the change will not be very large. Therefore comparisons of portions of a fixed total expenditure reduce to a minimum the error involved in the fact that the studies were not all made for the same 12-month period.

Cost of Adequate Dieteries in 11 Localities.

It was noted in a previous paragraph that the most satisfactory method of comparing food costs by localities would be that of comparing the prices of typical, representative dietaries from each locality. The difficulty in this method lies in the determination of the question, What is a representative dietary and how can one arrive at dietaries from each locality which represent the same degree of adequacy? These two difficulties, it is believed, can be met by using the calorie content of food as a guide, allowing for local variations in food habits. The unit of measure most commonly employed in measuring the adequacy of dietaries is the calorie, which is the unit for measuring heat-energy. The prime function of food is, of course, to furnish the body with energy. But energy production is not the sole function of food. Food is required to build up waste tissues, and for this its value is measured in grams of protein. The body also requires certain mineral substances, and there are certain qualities of food which have not been determined chemically but which are of marked biological value.

It has been estimated that the number of calories needed by a man at moderately hard muscular work is from 3,000 to 3,500; a man at hard muscular work requires about 1.2 times this amount; a man at light muscular work about 0.9 as much; and a man at sedentary work about 0.8 as much.¹ A family usually wastes about 10 per cent of the calorie value of food before it enters the mouth and there is also a small per cent of the food which enters the mouth which is not digested or consumed as fuel, so that 3,500 calories as bought prob-

¹ This is the scale employed by the United States Department of Agriculture.

ably represent slightly over 3,000 calories assimilated by the body. The calorie requirements for an adequate diet must be supplied from proper amounts of protein, fats, and carbohydrates. In addition the body requires small amounts of calcium, iron, phosphorus, and other chemical substances, some of which have not been fully determined.

Thus it is seen that an adequate dietary is very complex and difficult of accurate measurement. Is it possible to get some one single unit of measurement for the adequacy of diet? This seems impossible, but fortunately a partial solution at least has been found in the fact that the dietaries which yield 3,500 calories per man per day are usually abundant and varied enough to be fairly well balanced and fairly adequate in the amounts of the necessary constituents. Such has been the experience of students of food values in various parts of the country. Dietaries of families in general which yield less than 3,500 calories per man per day are generally not well balanced. They may be so in the proportions of fats, carbohydrates, and proteins, but are usually not so in minerals and other substances. For these reasons, therefore, 3,500 calories may be taken as the dietary standard of measure of the adequacy of food budgets. This standard is used in this study for the purpose of comparing one city with another. It is easily seen that comparisons made on this basis would be affected by the sizes of the families and still more by the incomes of the families. In other words, 3,500 calories, if purchased by families with generous incomes, would cost a good deal more than 3,500 calories purchased by families with meager incomes, and similarly the larger families can purchase 3,500 calories considerably cheaper than can the smaller families. A comparison, therefore, of the cost per man per day by families purchasing 3,500 calories per man per day must be made for families of the same size and with the same income.

Such a comparison is made, for 11 localities, in Table 3, which shows the cost of food per man per day for 3,500 calories, for a family with a total annual expenditure of \$1,300 and consisting of husband, wife, and three children aged approximately 2, 5, and 11 years, respectively. As noted in an earlier paragraph the standard family here used does not represent actual families; the process has been to arrive, by the method of "correlation," at what such a family would spend for 3,500 calories per man per day, using the expenditures for food shown in all the family schedules available in arriving at the result.¹ In no locality were there less than 69 family die-

¹ The footnote on p. 6 explains in a general way how these computations were made. The equations here used are of the type $X_{16} = 0.218 + 0.0000719 X_3 - 0.0381 X_2 + 0.0000937 X_{16}$, in which X_{16} represents the cost of food per man per day, X_3 the total annual expenditure, X_2 size of family in units of adult male, and X_{16} the number of calories furnished by food consumed per man per day.

taries analyzed. The analyses seek to take into consideration customs and habits and are based upon dietaries producing a constant number of calories, 3,500. Even then, however, it is questionable whether the figures for some of the southern cities do represent the cost of an adequate dietary, inasmuch as the food customarily consumed may not be properly balanced. This is especially true of the New Orleans colored people who consume probably an undue proportion of such cheap foods as pork, molasses, and corn meal.

TABLE 3.—COST PER MAN PER DAY OF 3,500 CALORIES IN A FAMILY CONSISTING OF HUSBAND, WIFE, AND 3 CHILDREN AGED 2, 5, AND 11 YEARS, WITH A TOTAL ANNUAL EXPENDITURE OF \$1,300.

Locality.	Average cost per man per day (cents).	Locality.	Average cost per man per day (cents).
New York.....	57.6	Denver.....	49.6
Providence.....	54.9	St. Louis and East St. Louis.....	49.3
Boston.....	53.4	New Orleans (white).....	48.7
San Francisco and Oakland.....	51.2	Atlanta.....	45.3
Chicago.....	51.1	St. Paul and Minneapolis.....	42.6
Seattle.....	50.2	New Orleans (colored).....	41.8

The cities in the table are chosen from various sections of the United States, though of course they are not completely representative of each particular section. In this table the southern cities are low, the cities in the northeast of the United States are high, and the Pacific Coast cities and most of the middle west cities are between the extremes.

The conclusions of Table 3, which is worked up from equations, follow closely those of Table 4, which is based on simple averages.

TABLE 4.—COST OF ACTUAL YEARLY CONSUMPTION OF FOOD YIELDING APPROXIMATELY 3,500 CALORIES PER MAN PER DAY.

Locality.	Average expenditure for food.	Average total annual expenditure.	Equivalent adult males.	Calories yielded per man per day.
New York.....	\$678.73	\$1,470.20	3.33	3,350
Providence.....	647.00	1,448.28	3.34	3,410
Boston.....	628.92	1,810.20	3.34	3,430
Chicago.....	613.10	1,514.00	3.30	3,510
San Francisco and Oakland.....	605.40	1,414.15	3.34	3,460
Seattle.....	588.76	1,587.30	3.35	3,330
Denver.....	569.23	1,357.13	3.35	3,420
St. Louis and East St. Louis.....	567.37	1,422.39	3.35	3,540
New Orleans (white).....	564.76	1,368.37	3.34	3,420
Atlanta.....	526.00	1,342.07	3.37	3,430
Minneapolis and St. Paul.....	485.29	1,359.96	3.35	3,470
New Orleans (colored).....	449.00	965.30	3.35	3,410

Table 4 shows for each of the 11 localities the actual price of a yearly food budget yielding approximately 3,500 calories per man per day for families of about 3.35 equivalent adult males. This table was constructed by choosing from each locality between 20 and 30 actual yearly dietaries, which averaged approximately 3,500 calories per man per day, while the families represented averaged 3.35 equivalent adult males. The prices paid for these dietaries were also averaged, representing, therefore, the actual prices of such typical, representative dietaries. The expenditures of the families were similarly averaged and are placed, for purposes of comparison, in the table. Table 4 represents a comparison quite similar to that in Table 3. It is not quite so highly refined; the incomes, for instance, are not wholly constant from city to city, but the things compared are very easily understood.

Variations in Food Needs and Food Costs.

In discussing the variability in food costs from locality to locality it may be well to observe some of the factors producing variability in such costs. Climate is a factor affecting the food needs; individuals living in a cold climate, particularly if working out of doors, need more calories than do those living in a warm climate. This is very well illustrated by the recent study made on the food consumption in the messes of the various training camps for soldiers.¹ For instance, in November, December, and January 3,700 calories were consumed per man per day in the messes, while in May and June only 3,500 were consumed. In other words, the variation in temperature from summer to winter seemed to cause a variation in food needs of 200 calories per man per day. The food needs of individuals also vary according to weight, age, and stature. The greater the weight and the greater the stature the greater the amount of food consumed as measured in calories. As adults become older, however, their calorie needs become less.² Calorie needs also vary according to sex. The basal metabolism of the average woman is about 300 calories less per day than that of the average man. There are also variations according to type of muscular activity engaged in. Loggers in the north woods have been known to consume 5,000 or more calories per man per day. These men are engaged in hard physical labor out of doors in a cold climate. Similarly, college athletes living an active, muscular life have been

¹ "Preliminary results of nutritional surveys in United States Army camps," by John R. Merlin and Caspar W. Miller, in *American Journal of Public Health*, June, 1919.

² See *A Biometric Study of Basal Metabolism in Man*, by J. Arthur Harris and Francis G. Benedict, Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1919, p. 190. Stated mathematically, the equation reads: $H = +66.47 + 13.75 w + 5.00 S - 6.76 a$, where H = total heat production for a man in muscular repose, for 24 hours after eating; w = weight in kilograms; S = stature in centimeters; and a = age in years.

observed to consume nearly as many calories. The average amount of food consumed by soldiers in the camps, as brought out in the study just referred to, was about 3,900 calories per man per day (including food consumed outside the messes). Men in sedentary occupations, of course, need much less. These causes of variation may perhaps be neglected in the present comparison of cities, as such variations as may be caused by these factors are comparatively small.

The principal causes of variations in food costs between cities are dietary customs and habits and the prices of the articles comprised in the dietaries. For instance, in certain sections of the South much more fat meat is eaten than in any other part of the country. Meat is a fairly abundant source of food energy in the Northeast. Bread and cereals are the largest sources of energy among the poorer families. These differences in dietaries arise largely because of differences in the production and distribution of food products. Peculiar local and personal habits also cause variations. For instance, the agents reported that in New Orleans the lack of refrigerators caused the poorer families to buy in very small quantities, using the corner grocery store as a substitute for an ice box, thus increasing the cost of food to them. They also reported that the methods of cooking in New Orleans are apparently somewhat more expensive than the methods employed in other cities. The budgets of workingmen also vary according to whether they take their lunches at home or purchase them, the latter procedure increasing somewhat the total family expenditure for food.

Variation in Food Costs with Changing Income and Changing Size of Family.

Certain interesting relationships between food costs, family expenditures and size of family, in a selected list of cities (see Table 2, p. 5) may be observed in Charts A and B.

These charts compare 10 cities of the United States in different geographical divisions. Chart A shows how the percentage of total expenditure for food decreases as the income increases, and Chart B shows how the expenditure for food increases as the size of the family increases.¹ In these charts there is very little variation in the slopes of the lines and indeed such variation as appears might possibly occur because of the small number of families chosen from each city.

In Chart A, if the slope of the line for one city is greater than for another city, it might mean that as the income goes up the demand for other things, such as rents, clothing, and miscellaneous expendi-

¹ These charts are plotted from equations worked out as explained above.

tures, would be greater, or would cost more, in the first than in the second city. Such a force might perhaps operate to a small extent between small towns and large cities. In cities where food is rela-

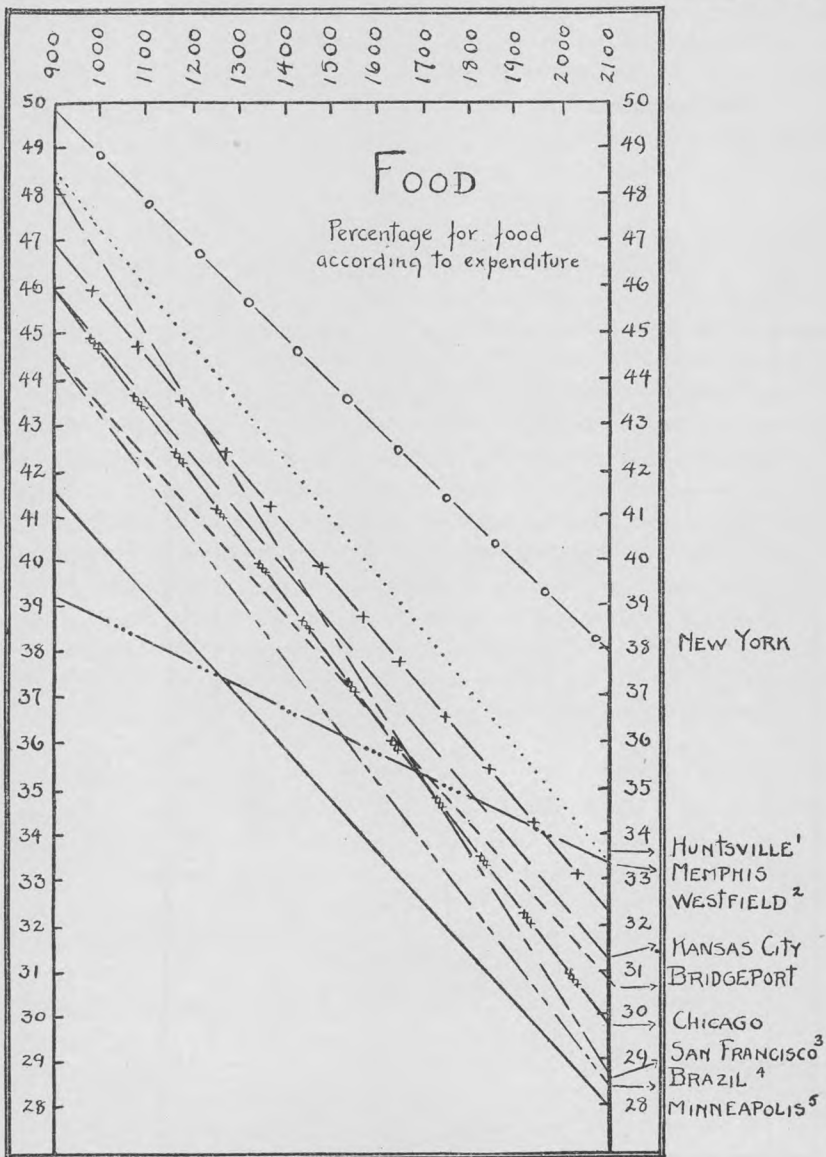


CHART A.

¹ And Meridian.

² And Johnstown and Rutland.

³ And Oakland.

⁴ And Danville and Pana.

⁵ And St. Paul.

tively abundant in families with low incomes the slope would be sharper than in cities where food is less adequate in families of low incomes, because as income increases but little additional would be

spent for food, so that the percentage spent for food would fall sharply in relation to total expenditures. There may be other reasons as to why the slopes of these lines vary from city to city.

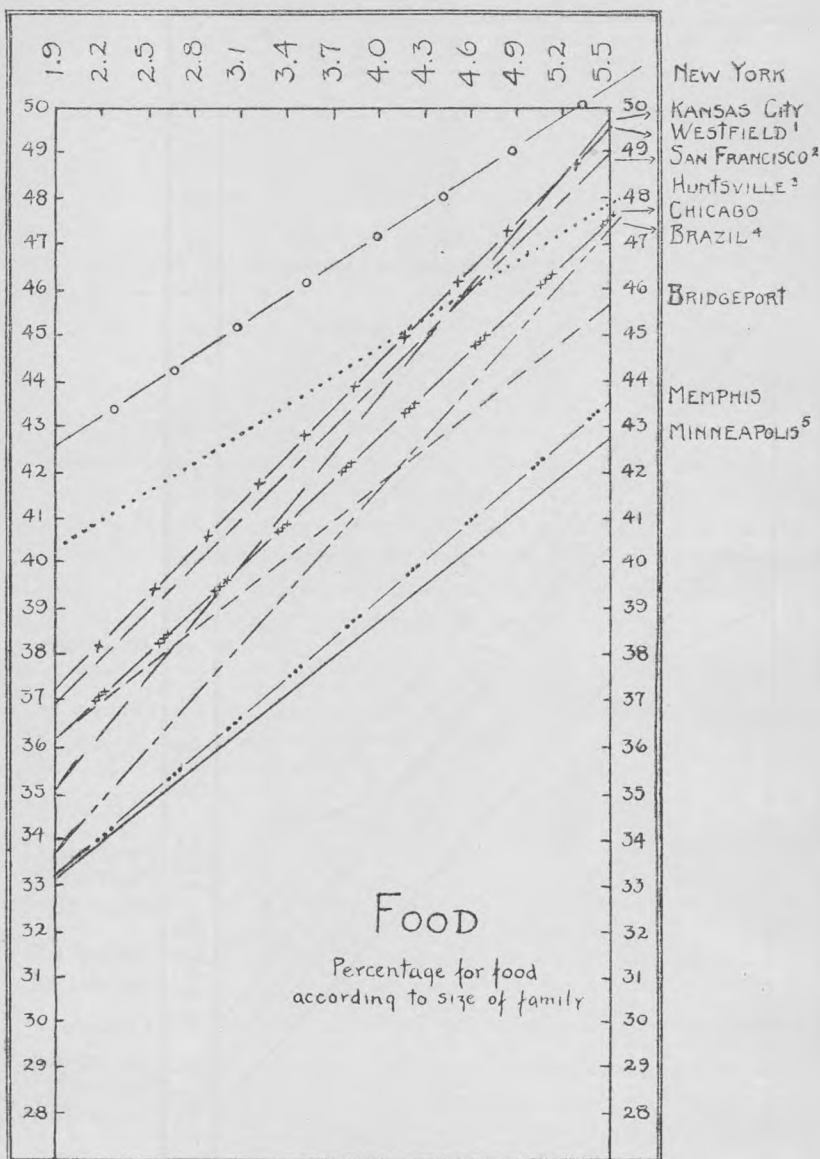


CHART B.

¹ And Johnstown and Rutland.
² And Oakland.

³ And Meridian.
⁴ And Danville and Pana.

⁵ And St. Paul.

The most striking point in Chart B is that there is very slight variation in the slopes of the lines for the cities charted.

Of greater practical significance is the variation in both Chart A and Chart B of the height of the lines above the base. Thus the line for New York is considerably higher than the line for Minneapolis. There are several conditions which might explain why the line for one city is higher than that for another. This would occur if food costs more or if the customs and habits dictated more expensive diets. Probably food costs constitute the most important factor in the determination of the height of a line.

These two charts afford certain interpretations as regards the comparative cost of living. They are, in addition, very clear in showing what happens to the expenditure for food when the income increases and when the family increases. They show the changes which occur in the percentage spent for food as the size of the income grows and as the size of the family grows.

Extent of Underfeeding.

A point of prime importance is the determination of whether families are getting enough to eat in the various cities investigated. It is possible to draw some conclusions on this point through the consideration of the number of calories received according to various incomes. In Table 5 are shown the number of calories purchased in 11 localities by families composed of husband, wife, and three children aged 2, 5, and 11 years, with varying total annual expenditures.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE NUMBER OF CALORIES PER MAN PER DAY YIELDED IN FOOD PURCHASED BY FAMILIES OF CONSTANT SIZE (HUSBAND, WIFE, AND THREE CHILDREN AGED 2, 5, AND 11 YEARS), WITH VARYING EXPENDITURES.

Locality.	\$1,000.	\$1,200.	\$1,400.	\$1,600.	\$1,800.	\$2,000.
Chicago.....	2,624	2,851	3,079	3,306	3,533	3,761
Providence.....	2,632	2,770	2,908	3,046	3,185	3,323
New York.....	2,644	2,791	2,939	3,087	3,235	3,383
Denver.....	2,735	2,894	3,052	3,211	3,370	3,528
St. Louis and East St. Louis.....	2,854	2,977	3,100	3,223	3,346	3,468
San Francisco and Oakland.....	2,881	2,962	3,044	3,125	3,206	3,287
Seattle.....	2,890	2,981	3,072	3,162	3,253	3,343
Boston.....	2,943	3,114	3,285	3,456	3,627	3,798
St. Paul and Minneapolis.....	3,002	3,130	3,259	3,387	3,516	3,645
New Orleans (white).....	3,238	3,371	3,504	3,637	3,770	3,903
New Orleans (colored).....	3,338	3,654	3,940			
Atlanta.....	3,392	3,403	3,413	3,424	3,435	3,446

The table shows that in Chicago the normal family of 3.35 equivalent adult males with expenditures of \$1,000 purchased on the average 2,624 calories per man per day; those with expenditures of \$1,400 purchased 3,079; those with expenditures of \$1,600 purchased 3,306; those with expenditures of \$1,800 purchased 3,533; and those with expenditures of \$2,000 purchased 3,761 calories. If 3,500 calories per man per day is a test of an adequate diet, then we should be justified from the above figures in saying that in Chicago families of

this size were not adequately fed unless their incomes were as high as \$1,800 a year, although families with \$1,600 total expenditure were consuming on the average a fairly large number of calories—3,306.

In Providence and New York, two cities with unusually high food costs, practically none of the normal families within the range of incomes studied were getting food yielding 3,500 calories, although with \$1,600 total annual expenditure the food consumption yielded over 3,000 calories per man per day. In Seattle and San Francisco none of the families within the groups covered quite reached the 3,500 calorie mark, on the average, but families with a total annual expenditure of \$1,200 consumed food yielding about 3,000 calories per man per day. Only in St. Paul, Minneapolis, New Orleans (white) and New Orleans (colored), and Atlanta were families with expenditures of \$1,000 a year able to purchase food yielding over 3,000 calories per man per day. On the other hand, in no case was the average consumption of any group of families as low as 2,500 calories.

It is interesting to note that the calorie value of food purchased by families having total expenditures of \$1,000 may vary but little or quite widely from the calorie value of food purchased by families with expenditures of \$2,000. In Chicago, for instance, with a total expenditure of \$1,000, food yielding 2,624 calories was purchased; with a total annual expenditure of \$2,000, food yielding 3,761 calories was purchased. In Atlanta, however, the food purchased by families with an annual expenditure of \$1,000 nearly equaled in calorie value the food purchased with an expenditure of \$2,000. Similarly, there is not very much difference in the calorie value of the food purchased in San Francisco by families with an expenditure of \$1,000 and that purchased by families with an expenditure of \$2,000. In San Francisco, for instance, for every increase in total expenditure of \$100, there is an increase of only 41 calories consumed per man per day. In San Francisco the families with the lowest incomes at no time purchase as low an average as 2,700 calories per man per day. In Atlanta the families with the lowest incomes purchase on the average more than 3,250 calories per man per day. Thus there is seen to be considerable variation between cities in the differences in the calorie value of food purchased from maximum incomes and minimum incomes. How is this to be explained? It is possible for a certain amount of this variation to arise because of the small number of the cases studied, as not more than 100 schedules could be used for analysis from each city, largely because of the great length of time it takes to analyze the dietaries. Another possible factor of variation is that at times families getting the larger incomes do not need quite so much food, as measured in calorie values,

because their members do not do as much hard muscular work. It is suggested, however, that difference in habits is chiefly responsible for the fact that the fuel value of food purchased from large incomes is at times not much greater than the fuel value of food purchased from small incomes. For instance, in a very able study made by Sherman and Gillett,¹ the data on food consumption of 92 families were collected with extreme accuracy and analyzed in minute detail. These families were grouped into four groups according to cost of food per man per day, the first group paying on the average 26.1 cents for food yielding 3,000 calories, and the fourth group paying 44.7 cents for food yielding 3,000 calories; and the authors state that "group 1 was getting practically the same amount of food value for 26 cents as was group 4 for 45 cents." If there can be such a range in the price of foods of the same fuel value it seems quite reasonable to expect the variations shown in the table under discussion. This point is also seen quite clearly by observing that the colored families of New Orleans get more calories for their money than do the white families. If the food consists largely of cereals and fat meats the calorie value will be very high for the cost. On the other hand, if a good deal of lean meat is consumed, the fuel value will be low for the cost. The cost per 1,000 calories will also be high in cities in which the population eat proportionately large quantities of fresh vegetables, as may perhaps be true for some cities on the Pacific coast.

In Table 6 are shown the number of calories of food purchased in 11 localities by families of the same income (\$1,300) but varying in size.

TABLE 6.—AVERAGE NUMBER OF CALORIES PER MAN PER DAY YIELDED IN FOOD PURCHASED BY FAMILIES VARYING IN SIZE AND HAVING AN ANNUAL EXPENDITURE OF \$1,300.

Locality.	Size of family in equivalent adult males.			
	2 1.90	2 2.05	2 3.35	2 5.00
Providence.....	3,230	3,190	2,840	2,390
San Francisco and Oakland.....	3,340	3,310	3,000	2,620
Seattle.....	3,400	3,360	3,030	2,600
New York.....	3,470	3,410	2,870	2,180
Chicago.....	3,510	3,460	2,970	2,340
Denver.....	3,580	3,520	2,970	2,280
St. Paul and Minneapolis.....	3,600	3,560	3,200	2,740
Boston.....	3,710	3,660	3,200	2,610
St. Louis and East St. Louis.....	3,730	3,660	3,040	2,250
Atlanta.....	3,870	3,820	3,410	2,880
New Orleans (white).....	3,940	3,890	3,440	2,860
New Orleans (colored).....	4,600	4,520	3,800	2,890

¹ The Adequacy and Economy of Some City Diets, by H. C. Sherman and L. H. Gillett, 1917, p. 9.

² 1.9= family of husband and wife; 2.05= family of husband, wife, and one child aged 2 years; 3.35= family of husband, wife, and three children aged 2, 5, and 11 years; 5.00= family of husband, wife, and five children aged 2, 5, 8, 11, and 14 years.

This table shows very clearly how the calorie value of the food consumed per man per day diminishes as the family increases, the total expenditure remaining the same. For instance, in St. Louis a husband and wife with a total annual expenditure of \$1,300 consumed food yielding 3,730 calories per man per day; a family of husband, wife, and child aged two years, consumed food yielding 3,660 calories; families consisting of husband, wife, and three children aged 2, 5, and 11 years, with an annual expenditure of \$1,300 consumed food yielding 3,040 calories; families consisting of husband, wife, and five children aged 2, 5, 8, 11, and 14 years, consumed only 2,250 calories per man per day. From these figures are seen very clearly the dietary difficulties which confront parents with growing families and with constant incomes.

From the two previous tables and the discussion of them it seems quite clear that a good many families were probably not receiving adequate food, the inadequacy varying considerably from city to city. In Table 7 is presented certain miscellaneous information which throws additional light upon the adequacy of the fuel value of food consumed by working men's families.

TABLE 7.—CALORIES PER MAN PER DAY SUPPLIED BY FOOD CONSUMED BY FAMILIES IN VARIOUS LOCALITIES.

Locality.	No. of families.	Average size of family.	Calories per man per day.			Per cent of families reporting—		
			Average.	Range of distribution.	Standard deviations.	Less than 3,500 calories.	Less than 3,000 calories.	Less than 2,500 calories.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Atlanta.....	93	3.32	3,420.75	2,000-6,000	802.25	61.3	36.6	8.6
Boston.....	85	3.71	3,104.80	1,800-5,000	661.60	81.2	45.9	23.5
Chicago.....	74	3.49	3,021.60	1,600-5,000	668.80	79.7	50.0	25.7
Denver.....	86	3.08	3,062.80	1,500-4,700	717.40	74.4	55.8	20.9
New York.....	100	3.39	2,930.00	1,250-4,750	720.75	77.0	48.0	33.0
New Orleans (white).....	71	3.52	3,370.40	2,000-5,000	669.00	67.6	33.8	11.3
New Orleans (colored).....	73	3.65	3,200.25	1,500-5,250	739.75	67.1	42.5	16.4
Providence.....	100	3.91	2,746.00	1,600-4,150	606.75	89.0	74.0	41.0
San Francisco and Oakland.....	76	3.33	3,048.70	1,750-4,150	538.05	78.9	59.2	11.8
Seattle.....	69	3.16	3,170.60	2,000-4,400	585.90	69.6	42.0	17.4
St. Louis and East St. Louis.....	79	3.25	3,109.25	1,250-5,000	725.00	72.2	46.8	21.5
St. Paul and Minneapolis.....	77	3.59	3,183.50	1,750-5,500	729.50	71.4	46.8	14.3

In column 3 of this table is placed the average number of calories in the food consumed by the families observed. The average number of calories consumed in New York and Providence is less than 3,000 per man per day, and in no city is the average number of calories consumed as high as 3,500. In column 4 of this table is placed the number of calories per man per day yielded by the food consumed by the family consuming the least amount in fuel value

and by the family consuming the greatest amount. Thus, in Atlanta the family consuming the least amount of food received only 2,000 calories per man per day, while the family consuming the maximum amount received 6,000 calories per man per day. In column 5 are found the measures of variability of the families in the calorie value per man per day yielded by the food consumed. These indexes are called standard deviations. If two-thirds of the standard deviation is added to and subtracted from the mean, two limits are found within which half the families will fall. The standard deviation for Boston is 662; two-thirds of it will be 441, which added to and subtracted from the mean, 3,105, gives two limits 3,546 and 2,664; so that in Boston half of the families considered consumed food yielding between 2,664 and 3,546 calories per man per day. In the last three columns of this table are placed the percentages of the families representing a consumption of food of less than 3,500 calories per man per day, of less than 3,000 calories per man per day, and of less than 2,500 calories per man per day. Thus in Atlanta, 61.3 per cent of the families consumed food yielding less than 3,500 calories per man per day; 36.6 per cent of the families consumed food yielding less than 3,000 calories; and 8.6 per cent of the families consumed less than 2,500 calories per man per day.

As stated above, a man at moderately hard muscular work needs food yielding between 3,000 and 3,500 calories per day. Also it was noted that dietaries yielding 3,500 calories per man per day were usually adequately supplied with the various necessary chemical constituents and that dietaries yielding less than this are not usually well balanced although the amounts of protein, carbohydrates, and fats may be sufficient. On the other hand, it is highly important to remember that the calorie needs vary according to type of muscular activity engaged in, and according to age, stature, weight, body surface, and no doubt still other factors. In the very careful study of calorie production made by Harris and Benedict,¹ the heat production of 136 men at muscular repose was noted. These men of course varied in weight, stature, age, and body surface. The man whose heat production was the lowest produced 997 calories per day and the man whose heat production was the highest produced 2,559 calories per day, the average being 1,632 calories per day. It is seen from these measurements that the calorie consumption of individuals varies quite widely around the mean. Thus, although the average was 1,632 calories, the heat production of approximately half the cases was less than this figure, going as low as 997 calories. Thus, when we observe that 61.3 per cent of the families in Atlanta receive less than 3,500 calories per man per day,

¹ A Biometric Study of Basal Metabolism in Man, by J. Arthur Harris and Francis G. Benedict. Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1919, pp. 40ff.

it does not necessarily follow that all these families, i.e., 61.3 per cent, were underfed. It is quite conceivable that a good many families did not need 3,500 calories per man. It is impossible to tell from this table how many families received less food than they needed for proper growth, repair, and energy output. This could not be told unless measurements had been taken on age, weight, and stature, and unless something was known about the amount of muscular activity engaged in.

It is known that approximately 50 per cent of the families receive less food than the average and so some judgment as to the extent of underfeeding can be made by looking at the table of arithmetic means. Also, if in the various cities no more than 50 per cent had received less than 3,500 calories, there might exist no significant evidence of serious underfeeding. But considerably more than 50 per cent receive less than 3,500 calories in all the cities. Furthermore, the last column of the table shows that in most of the cities, 15 to 20 per cent of the families consumed less than 2,500 calories per man per day. It is highly improbable that such a large percentage of the families needed only such small amounts of food. In the study by Harris and Benedict the least heat production was 997 calories, 635 less than the average of 1,632, the deviation from the average being 38.9 per cent. If the desirable number of calories is placed at 3,500, then 2,500 calories is a deviation of 1,000 calories from the desirable number. This deviation of 1,000 calories is 28.6 per cent of the desirable number, 3,500, so that families receiving less than 2,500 calories per man, judged in this rough manner by the evidence from the Harris-Benedict study, are underfed. It is perhaps desirable to note here that Sherman and Gillett¹ found in their extremely detailed and careful study of 92 families that "about 50 to 75 per cent were not getting enough energy."

Analysis of Food Consumption in Selected Cities.

The Bureau's study shows that the dietaries in different sections of the United States vary considerably, according to the local food products and according to the habits of the population. The variations shown in the family schedules conform closely to what has been surmised from observation or indicated by detailed dietary studies in different cities. It seemed worth while then to analyze the food budgets as reported, in order to ascertain the fuel (energy) value, the tissue building (protein) value, and the sufficiency of mineral and other constituents in the average diets.

¹A Biometric Study of Basal Metabolism in Man, by J. Arthur Harris and Francis G. Benedict, Carnegie Institution of Washington, 1919, p. 9.

It is desirable to compare dietaries of families of approximately the same size and of nearly the same income group. The dietaries compared, therefore, are for families of approximately 3.35 equivalent adult males and with a total average annual expenditure of (with one exception) approximately \$1,300 to \$1,500 a year. The dietaries are also nearly constant in the number of calories yielded per man per day, the number being generally 3,400 or 3,500.

In order to eliminate the idiosyncracies peculiar to an individual family, it seemed desirable to take the average quantities of food consumed by a group of families. Therefore, for each locality, the dietaries of about 30 families were averaged, those families being chosen so that the average calorie consumption of the group was approximately 3,500 calories and so that they were families of approximately 3.35 equivalent adult males. It seems quite clear that the number chosen is sufficiently large to smooth out individual tastes and is probably large enough to be fairly representative. To have used a larger number of cases would have been desirable, but the labor involved in the computations made this impracticable.

The data for the 11 localities were then analyzed and the results are presented in Tables 8 and 9. In these two tables the quantities of food purchased rather than the quantities consumed are given; perhaps something over 10 per cent is not utilized by the body. In Table 8 is shown the analysis on the basis of the various chemical constituents; and in Table 9 the analysis shows the foods classified according to general classes, such as meat, fish, dairy products, cereals, and so on. The tables should be considered together to get the best understanding of the dietary standards.

TABLE 8.—CHEMICAL ANALYSIS OF FOOD IN AVERAGE DIETARIES OF 11 LOCALITIES.

Locality.	Grams per man per day.						Calories per man per day.	Number of calories purchased for 1 cent.	Total cost of food per year.	Size of family in units of the adult male.	Average total annual expenditure for family.
	Protein.	Fat.	Carbohydrates.	Calcium.	Iron.	Phosphorus.					
Atlanta.....	87	132	471	0.7055	0.01282	1.2997	163,430	80	\$526.00	3.37	\$1,342.07
Boston.....	117	106	501	1.0145	.01920	1.8917	203,430	67	628.92	3.34	1,310.20
Chicago.....	108	126	485	.8761	.01736	1.6601	183,510	70	613.10	3.30	1,514.00
Denver.....	103	129	464	1.0063	.01816	1.5749	163,420	73	569.23	3.35	1,357.13
New Orleans (white).....	104	104	516	.7582	.01588	1.5323	173,420	74	564.76	3.34	1,365.37
New Orleans (colored).....	95	112	507	.9050	.01493	1.2858	153,410	93	449.00	3.35	965.30
New York.....	114	126	441	1.2558	.01664	1.8852	193,350	60	678.73	3.33	1,470.20
Providence.....	102	114	494	.8893	.01740	1.7202	183,410	64	647.00	3.34	1,448.28
San Francisco and Oakland.....	112	129	463	.9816	.01831	1.7623	183,460	70	605.40	3.34	1,414.15
Seattle.....	97	125	454	.9821	.01881	1.8570	163,330	69	588.76	3.35	1,587.30
St. Louis and East St. Louis.....	103	120	514	.6399	.01666	1.4591	213,540	76	567.37	3.35	1,422.39
St. Paul and Minneapolis.....	102	123	488	.8501	.01721	1.6885	173,470	87	485.29	3.35	1,359.96

TABLE 9.—AMOUNTS IN POUNDS OF FOODS CONSUMED PER MAN PER DAY, CLASSIFIED IN GENERAL FOOD GROUPS, FOR AVERAGE DIETARIES OF 11 LOCALITIES.

Item.	Pounds of foods consumed per man per day.											
	At- lanta.	Bos- ton.	Chi- cago.	Den- ver.	New Or- leans (white).	New Or- leans (col- ored).	New York.	Provi- dence.	San Fran- cisco and Oak- land.	Seat- tle.	St. Louis and East St. Louis.	St. Paul and Min- ne- apolis.
Total meat.....	0.296	0.350	0.380	0.400	0.320	0.320	0.356	0.361	0.420	0.309	0.369	0.316
Total fish.....	.0176	.1130	.0442	.0270	.0989	.1650	.0710	.0640	.0628	.0543	.0164	.0401
Total meat and fish.....	.314	.463	.424	.427	.419	.484	.427	.425	.483	.363	.385	.356
Milk, whole.....	.169	1.116	.874	.575	.376	.0803	1.407	.859	.950	.920	.317	.813
Total dairy products ¹653	1.250	1.033	.833	.226	.148	1.575	1.017	1.107	1.178	1.485	.977
Total cereals.....	.856	.967	.972	.920	1.112	1.077	.966	.916	.962	.700	1.097	.901
Total sugar.....	.163	.461	.186	.364	.153	.172	.152	.152	.152	.223	.165	.175
Total fruits.....	.427	.277	.375	.423	.333	.331	.212	.302	.435	.499	.386	.537
Total vegetables.....	1.001	1.085	1.151	1.122	.910	.944	.913	1.318	1.057	1.045	1.173	1.339
Total miscellaneous.....	.0944	.0390	.0637	.0606	.0864	.1230	.0550	.0571	.0352	.0456	.0860	.0559
Total fats.....	.160	.103	.140	.135	.140	.120	.111	.120	.121	.138	.131	.146

¹ Including whole milk, evaporated and condensed milk, butter, buttermilk, cheese, cream, and ice cream.

The first column in Table 8 shows the amount of protein consumed per man per day in the various localities. Protein builds up the waste tissues and is found particularly in lean meats, cheese, and eggs. Considerable controversy has arisen as to the amount of protein necessary. Estimates range around 100 grams per day, although some very excellent authorities claim that 85 grams a day are sufficient. In Atlanta and Seattle and among the colored people of New Orleans the amount is lowest, being under 100 grams. The amount seems adequate, however, in all the localities. In the larger cities the amount is somewhat higher. Diets rich in protein are usually the most expensive.

In columns 2 and 3 are shown the number of grams of fats and carbohydrates per man per day. The fat needs are estimated at 100 to 115 grams and the carbohydrates at approximately 500 grams, a gram of fat yielding about 9 calories and a gram of carbohydrates about 4 calories. One gram of protein also yields about 4 calories, so that 100 grams of protein, 115 grams of fat, and 500 grams of carbohydrates yield a little over 3,400 calories. As regards the consumption of fats the cities listed in the table do not show any sectional differences. In Atlanta 132 grams of fat were consumed, but among the New Orleans white people the amount was only 104. St. Paul and Minneapolis, Chicago, and Seattle are not particularly high in the amount of carbohydrates consumed, although St. Louis is.

The quantities of the minerals, calcium, iron, and phosphorus, needed to maintain the body in health are so small that a careful

dietary study is necessary to determine whether a family or an individual is getting sufficient amounts of these indispensable elements. The average dietary in each of the 11 localities furnishes a sufficient quantity of these mineral substances according to accepted standards. The standard for calcium, which is found plentifully in milk, is usually estimated at 0.7 gram per man per day. This is a sufficient allowance, 0.45 gram being considered an irreducible minimum. St. Louis is a little low in calcium; New York, Denver, and Boston are high. The standard for iron is usually estimated at 0.015 gram per man per day, 0.010 being an irreducible minimum. Atlanta is the only city low in iron. The standard for phosphorus is 1.32 grams, the minimum being 0.88 gram. Most dietaries are found to yield sufficient phosphorus; the deficiency has usually been in calcium and iron. However, dietaries yielding 3,500 calories per man per day in all these sections of the country seem generally to supply a sufficient quantity of these mineral substances.

In the first line of Table 9 is listed the amount of meat in pounds consumed per man per day in the various localities. In the succeeding lines are the amounts of fish, meat and fish combined, whole milk, dairy products, cereals, etc., all expressed in pounds per man per day. It is customarily estimated that 4 to 5 ounces (0.25 to 0.31 pound) of meat and 2 ounces (0.13 pound) of fish are the allowances usually found in large samples of dietaries studied. Since fish and meat furnish approximately the same food values the quantities consumed should be studied together, for a deficiency of meat may be made up with a surplus of fish. A little over 5 ounces (0.31 pound) of meat and fish is generally the amount consumed. In none of the cities are the dietaries yielding 3,500 calories per man per day lacking in meats and fish. Meats and fish are usually the most expensive articles of food in a dietary, and it would seem that the families studied could really get along on less meat than they actually consumed.

Usually about a pound of dairy products are consumed per man per day. There is considerable variation in the cities in the amount of dairy products consumed, Boston, Chicago, New York, and Seattle all being high—above a pound per man per day. Atlanta, New Orleans (white), New Orleans (colored), and St. Louis are rather markedly low. This generalization is also borne out by a consideration of the consumption of whole milk, as shown in the fourth line of the table. The southern cities are very low in the amount of milk consumed. Milk is a highly important article of diet. This has long been recognized for children, who should have a quart of milk a day; but the value of milk is now appreciated very highly even for adults. Milk, besides being a plentiful source of calcium, may be used to make up the deficiencies of an ill-balanced diet. One-third of a quart of

milk a day, or about 0.75 pound (11 to 12 ounces), is considered desirable. In Atlanta, St. Louis, and New Orleans the milk consumed is far below the amount desirable. The New Orleans colored people consume only 0.0303 pound of milk per man per day.

Families usually consume a pound or three-fourths of a pound of cereals per man per day. Cereals are great energy-producing foods, rich in carbohydrates. They are the cheapest sources of energy. The dietaries here studied do not seem particularly high in cereals, nor are they especially low. The amount of cereals consumed seems to be about as great in cities far removed from the grain area as in those near it.

The correspondence of the several estimates as to the amount of sugar and the amount of fats consumed per man per day is sufficiently close to refer to such an amount as a standard—about 2 ounces (0.13 pound) per man per day. Most of the cities are adequately supplied with these foods; particularly is there no shortage of sugar.

The vegetable allowance found in most families ranges from one pound to one and one-fourth pounds per man per day. New Orleans and New York seem to have less vegetables in their dietaries than the other cities, although in general the allowance is quite adequate.

Dietitians usually advocate a generous consumption of fruit, suggesting as a standard a pound or a pound and a quarter per man per day. However, families usually fall below this standard, partly because fruits are expensive; although most excellent foods, they are not consumed in the quantities desirable. In most of the cities only about 0.3 or 0.4 pound are consumed per man per day. The amount of fruit consumed is a little greater near certain fruit centers such as San Francisco, Seattle, Denver, and Atlanta.

Having considered the tables in detail it seems desirable to draw some broad generalizations from the data. One is impressed particularly by the absence of striking differences for cities so widely separated in so far as chemical constituents and classes of food are concerned, remembering of course that only dietaries of approximately 3,500 calories are compared. The most striking variations are in the amounts of dairy products and fresh milk, in the consumption of which the southern cities seem unusually low. The variation in the prices, as seen in the column showing the number of calories purchased for a cent, seems somewhat greater than the variations in the various food constituents. How does it happen then that the costs vary so much and yet there is so very little variation in the food constituents? Food costs may vary (1) because the same individual articles are higher in price in one city than in another; or (2) because dietaries may be unevenly balanced with reference to food constituents, the more poorly balanced diet costing less than

the better balanced diet; or (3) because in localities where prices may be nearly the same and for dietaries that are adequately balanced cheaper types of food may be purchased. In the dietaries just discussed they are all approximately well balanced. The variation in the cost would therefore seem to be accounted for by the fact that prices are higher in one locality than in another, or because cheaper types of food are purchased in one locality than in another. The latter reason might explain why the colored people of New Orleans purchase a fairly satisfactory diet cheaply, particularly as compared with the white population in New Orleans. Of course the individual articles of food consumed in the various localities may vary widely. To develop this point would require the comparing of full dietaries by cities.

Labor Provisions in the Peace Treaty.

By J. T. SHOTWELL, Ph. D.

NOW that we have the Peace Treaty presented for examination by the public as it is passing the scrutiny of the Senate, it may be well to résumé in a few words the history of the labor negotiations in Paris.

At the first plenary session of the Peace Conference the president, M. Clemenceau, announced that one of the matters immediately before the conference was international labor legislation. Immediately after this statement a commission was appointed, which set to work to prepare the labor sections of the treaty.

The American members of this commission were Mr. Samuel Gompers, representing employees, who was elected president of the commission, and Mr. E. N. Hurley, representing employers. Mr. Hurley was soon recalled to the United States and his place was taken by Mr. H. M. Robinson, and subsequently by Dr. J. T. Shotwell, of Columbia University.

The commission met in almost daily session for two months and finally prepared a report,¹ which was adopted as published by the Peace Conference in plenary session on April 28, 1919. In the final treaty, however, the text has been changed somewhat as a pure matter of drafting, in order to make it conform to the rest of the document. Advantage of the chance for revision was also taken to incorporate into the text itself the protocols which were added to the labor sections in their first form. In both redrafting and reediting certain infelicities were eliminated and the text was substantially improved, being made clearer and more simple in language.

One substantial change, however, has been made, one which affects the representation of the British self-governing dominions in the International Labor Conference. In the first form of the proposed draft they were not to be treated as independent States, but in the final form adopted in the treaty this has been changed so as to admit them to the status of separate national representation. This change naturally was the subject of much discussion, for it means that within the British Empire there will be representation from Australia, Canada, and South Africa, in addition to the representation from Great Britain. The American representatives were opposed to this upon the political basis, but the change is justified not only by the

¹ This report was published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for May, 1919, pp. 1 to 26.

part played in industry by these progressive portions of the British Empire but also by the part which they have played in the war; and it must not be forgotten that, after all, this was a treaty of peace and not simply a convention drawn together for purposes of arrangement of the constitution of a world State. Canada asked nothing more than the right to be regarded as a progressive nation, and the United States and Canada can undoubtedly cooperate more effectively in the future meetings of the International Labor Conference if Canada is given a separate vote than if left as a subsidiary factor subordinate to the British representatives.

As a result of the change the labor section now conforms definitely to the rest of the structure of the League of Nations. Advantage was taken of this fact by the Germans in their negotiations to ask that they be included in the Labor Conference, and in the exchange of letters which followed the Germans received the definite promise of participation in the Labor Conference after the October meeting. It was impossible to admit them to the October conference, partly because of the fact that in the negotiations themselves the Germans gave evidence of a tendency to intrigue, which was most unfortunate. Their reply to the Allied proposals for a later conference was a request for the immediate holding of a new labor conference at Versailles before the acceptance of the treaty, in which revolutionary labor would have a chance to express itself in a hostile way as regards the Allied Governments. They asked that this conference be held, knowing that it would delay the treaty and that it was not likely to result in any further real progress than that already made. Indeed, their definite proposals, apart from the points which the Allies had already incorporated in the treaty, were either impractical or definitely revolutionary. When this was pointed out to them, instead of discussing the real issues the German envoys issued another appeal, with the intent of provoking insurrectionary objection to the treaty in Allied countries, showing that their chief aim was not industrial peace but political advantage. Consequently, it was impossible to proceed with any plan of inviting them to the October conference itself, since they gave promise of using the occasion not for the benefit of labor legislation but to undo the treaty.

It should be pointed out, however, that in the invitation extended to the Germans to participate in the Labor Conference after the October conference, we have made the first definite step toward the inclusion of the Germans in any part of the League of Nations. It is essential, of course, that they should be committed to the same general regulations with reference to labor as the rest of the world, and consequently it is important that they should be admitted to membership in the conference at the earliest possible date. In this con-

nection it may be of interest to note that it was voted that as soon as the Germans give evidence of good faith in dealing with this matter they may have copies of the entire minutes of the commission which drew up the labor organization.

It will be noted that in the final text of article 19 of the draft, which is now No. 427 of the treaty, there has been inserted a paragraph which offers a modification of the terms in the case of those nations where climatic conditions and imperfect organization make the situation substantially different from that in the more advanced powers. This clause was inserted in order to make it possible for Japan to sign the treaty without reservation. It is of great significance that a document should have been drafted to which a power like Japan with its new conditions of industrial development could subscribe, and the concession is no more than would in any case be involved in the carrying out of laws by countries of "imperfect industrial development." Some doubt, of course, was expressed as to whether this lessened the real force of the legislation, but it was felt that it rather made its application possible, if the public opinion of the world sufficiently supports the proposed legislation; and without that public opinion focused upon the enforcements of these proposals they will not in any case be effective.

It may be recalled that a delay in the application of labor treaties had been allowed in the past in the case of those countries which were not ready to accept the proposals at once. This is about all that is granted to Japan or to other newly industrialized countries, for the proposed treaties will go before the legislatures of these countries in their first form and there be scaled down if need be. Thus the legislature of Japan will learn authoritatively of the high standards embodied in the general conclusions of this conference, even if its own Government is unable at the time to apply the full measure of recommendations.

The special interests of the United States were amply guarded by the clause which allows it to treat all proposed treaties which cover subjects that normally may be considered to apply to the separate States rather than to the Federal State as simply recommendations for legislation. In this way the United States does not become a party to a contract which it can not carry out. The result, however, of entering into this International Labor Conference will undoubtedly be to accentuate the need of national legislation as over against State legislation, and the experience of the conference in drafting legislation to cover such variant situations as are presented by the many nations participating in this conference should be of great service in the preparation of national labor legislation where the variant conditions in the different States present difficulties.

The program for the conference is definitely limited to those items which are laid before it by the International Labor Office, although for the first conference the items are mentioned definitely in the treaty. The point to be borne in mind is that while the treaty accepted the principle of the eight-hour day and of the other items in the agenda, it is left to the conference to prepare the exact form in which these principles will be enacted into legislation and made binding. Consequently the labor section of the treaty will remain imperfect unless the Labor Conference in October succeeds.

Indeed this brings up an exceedingly important point, for it follows naturally from what has just been said that the Labor Conference in October is a continuation of the treaty-making of Paris and that the successive labor conferences are to carry on year by year the negotiations with reference to labor begun as a result of the World War. It is proposed, in short, that the Peace Conference of Paris shall have no end so far as labor is concerned.

In this inspiring work the United States has been called upon to play a signal rôle. The first conference is to be held at Washington and the members are to come here as guests of the country. Organizations of labor, therefore, owe it to the cause of constructive industrial reform and sane statesmanship to cooperate to the full in helping to insure complete success for this conference.

The International Labor Conference and the so-called charter of labor attached to it are not the only sections in the Peace Treaty which affect labor. Special attention should be drawn to article 312, which has reference to social insurance. Advantage is there taken of the cession by Germany of territory to surrounding States to impose upon those States an adjustment of existing social legislation which will be satisfactory to a commission appointed by the governing body of the International Labor Office. Thus in the case of Poland, for instance, Germany and Poland are to make a treaty which will transfer to Poland the funds for social insurance which affect the lives of those citizens of Germany who are now to be under Polish rule. Poland agrees on her part to apply the money to the purposes to which it was formerly applied. In the first draft of the Peace Treaty there was no time limit for the making of this treaty, which might therefore go by default, resulting in great damage to the social insurance of central Europe. In the final text of the Peace Treaty an additional clause has been inserted, stating that in case Germany and the other power to which it has ceded territory can not agree within three months on the exact details of the social insurance scheme to be applied to the inhabitants of the ceded territories, the matter shall be left to a commission consisting of one German, one representative of the other power in question, and three members

appointed by the International Labor Office, who will by majority vote (which means that the three neutrals shall be in control) decide within three months what shall be done in the matter. Thus, technical experts are definitely called upon to pronounce upon these extremely technical questions, and the remaining territories of the neighboring States of Germany will find themselves stimulated to set up the same social insurance as that in force in the ceded territories.

Text of Labor Provisions in Peace Treaty.

The text of the sections of the treaty affecting labor are given below.

PART XIII OF THE PEACE TREATY.

Section I.

Organization of labor.

Whereas the League of Nations has for its object the establishment of universal peace, and such a peace can be established only if it is based upon social justice;

And whereas conditions of labor exist involving such injustice, hardship, and privation to large numbers of people as to produce unrest so great that the peace and harmony of the world are imperiled; and an improvement of those conditions is urgently required: as, for example, by the regulation of the hours of work, including the establishment of a maximum working day and week, the regulation of the labor supply, the prevention of unemployment, the provision of an adequate living wage, the protection of the worker against sickness, disease, and injury arising out of his employment, the protection of children, young persons and women, provision for old age and injury, protection of the interests of workers when employed in countries other than their own, recognition of the principle of freedom of association, the organization of vocational and technical education and other measures;

Whereas also the failure of any nation to adopt humane conditions of labor is an obstacle in the way of other nations which desire to improve the conditions in their own countries;

The high contracting parties, moved by sentiments of justice and humanity as well as by the desire to secure the permanent peace of the world, agree to the following:

Chapter I.—Organization.

ARTICLE 387. A permanent organization is hereby established for the promotion of the objects set forth in the preamble.

The original members of the League of Nations shall be the original members of this organization, and hereafter membership of the League of Nations shall carry with it membership of the said organization.

ART. 388. The permanent organization shall consist of:

- (1) A General Conference of representatives of the members, and,
- (2) An International Labor Office controlled by the governing body described in article 393.

ART. 389. The meetings of the General Conference of representatives of the members shall be held from time to time as occasion may require, and at least once in every year. It shall be composed of four representatives of each of the members, of whom

two shall be Government delegates and the two others shall be delegates representing, respectively, the employers and the workpeople of each of the members.

Each delegate may be accompanied by advisers, who shall not exceed two in number for each item on the agenda of the meeting. When questions specially affecting women are to be considered by the Conference, one at least of the advisers should be a woman.

The members undertake to nominate non-Government delegates and advisers chosen in agreement with the industrial organizations, if such organizations exist, which are most representative of employers or workpeople, as the case may be, in their respective countries.

Advisers shall not speak except on a request made by the delegate whom they accompany and by the special authorization of the president of the Conference, and may not vote.

A delegate may by notice in writing addressed to the president appoint one of his advisers to act as his deputy, and the adviser, while so acting, shall be allowed to speak and vote.

The names of the delegates and their advisers will be communicated to the International Labor Office by the Government of each of the members.

The credentials of delegates and their advisers shall be subject to scrutiny by the Conference, which may, by two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present, refuse to admit any delegate or adviser whom it deems not to have been nominated in accordance with this article.

ART. 390. Every delegate shall be entitled to vote individually on all matters which are taken into consideration by the Conference.

If one of the members fails to nominate one of the non-Government delegates whom it is entitled to nominate, the other non-Government delegate shall be allowed to sit and speak at the Conference, but not to vote.

If in accordance with article 389 the Conference refuses admission to a delegate of one of the members, the provisions of the present article shall apply as if that delegate had not been nominated.

ART. 391. The meetings of the Conference shall be held at the seat of the League of Nations, or at such other place as may be decided by the Conference at a previous meeting by two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present.

ART. 392. The International Labor Office shall be established at the seat of the League of Nations as part of the organization of the League.

ART. 393. The International Labor Office shall be under the control of a governing body consisting of 24 persons appointed in accordance with the following provisions:

The governing body of the International Labor Office shall be constituted as follows:

Twelve persons representing the Governments;

Six persons elected by the delegates to the Conference representing the employers;

Six persons elected by the delegates to the Conference representing the workers.

Of the 12 persons representing the Governments 8 shall be nominated by the members which are of the chief industrial importance, and 4 shall be nominated by the members selected for the purpose by the Government delegates to the Conference, excluding the delegates of the 8 members mentioned above.

Any question as to which are the members of the chief industrial importance shall be decided by the council of the League of Nations.

The period of office of the members of the governing body will be three years. The method of filling vacancies and other similar questions may be determined by the governing body subject to the approval of the Conference.

The governing body shall, from time to time, elect one of its members to act as its chairman, shall regulate its own procedure and shall fix its own times of meeting. A special meeting shall be held if a written request to that effect is made by at least 10 members of the governing body.

ART. 394. There shall be a director of the International Labor Office, who shall be appointed by the governing body, and, subject to the instructions of the governing body, shall be responsible for the efficient conduct of the International Labor Office and for such other duties as may be assigned to him.

The director or his deputy shall attend all meetings of the governing body.

ART. 395. The staff of the International Labor Office shall be appointed by the director, who shall, so far as is possible with due regard to the efficiency of the work of the office, select persons of different nationalities. A certain number of these persons shall be women.

ART. 396. The functions of the International Labor Office shall include the collection and distribution of information on all subjects relating to the international adjustment of conditions of industrial life and labor, and particularly the examination of subjects which it is proposed to bring before the Conference with a view to the conclusion of international conventions, and the conduct of such special investigations as may be ordered by the Conference.

It will prepare the agenda for the meetings of the Conference.

It will carry out the duties required of it by the provisions of this part of the present treaty in connection with international disputes.

It will edit and publish in French and English, and in such other languages as the governing body may think desirable, a periodical paper dealing with problems of industry and employment of international interest.

Generally, in addition to the functions set out in this article, it shall have such other powers and duties as may be assigned to it by the Conference.

ART. 397. The government departments of any of the members which deal with questions of industry and employment may communicate directly with the director through the representative of their Government on the governing body of the International Labor Office, or failing any such representative, through such other qualified official as the Government may nominate for the purpose.

ART. 398. The International Labor Office shall be entitled to the assistance of the secretary general of the League of Nations in any matter in which it can be given.

ART. 399. Each of the members will pay the traveling and subsistence expenses of its delegates and their advisers and of its representatives attending the meetings of the Conference or governing body, as the case may be.

All the other expenses of the International Labor Office and of the meetings of the conference or governing body shall be paid to the director by the secretary general of the League of Nations out of the general funds of the league.

The director shall be responsible to the secretary general of the league for the proper expenditure of all moneys paid to him in pursuance of this article.

Chapter II.—Procedure.

ART. 400. The agenda for all meetings of the Conference will be settled by the governing body, who shall consider any suggestion as to the agenda that may be made by the Government of any of the members or by any representative organization recognized for the purpose of article 389.

ART. 401. The director shall act as the secretary of the Conference, and shall transmit the agenda so as to reach the members four months before the meeting of the Conference, and, through them, the non-Government delegates when appointed.

ART. 402. Any of the Governments of the members may formally object to the inclusion of any item or items in the agenda. The grounds for such objection shall be set forth in a reasoned statement addressed to the director, who shall circulate it to all the members of the permanent organization.

Items to which such objection has been made shall not, however, be excluded from the agenda, if at the Conference a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present is in favor of considering them.

If the Conference decides (otherwise than under the preceding paragraph) by two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present that any subject shall be considered by the Conference, that subject shall be included in the agenda for the following meeting.

ART. 403. The Conference shall regulate its own procedure, shall elect its own president, and may appoint committees to consider and report on any matter.

Except as otherwise expressly provided in this part of the present treaty, all matters shall be decided by a simple majority of the votes cast by the delegates present.

The voting is void unless the total number of votes cast is equal to half the number of the delegates attending the Conference.

ART. 404. The Conference may add to any committees which it appoints technical experts, who shall be assessors without power to vote.

ART. 405. When the Conference has decided on the adoption of proposals with regard to an item in the agenda, it will rest with the Conference to determine whether these proposals should take the form (a) of a recommendation to be submitted to the members for consideration with a view to effect being given to it by national legislation or otherwise, or (b) of a draft international convention for ratification by the members.

In either case a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present shall be necessary on the final vote for the adoption of the recommendation or draft convention, as the case may be, by the Conference.

In framing any recommendation or draft convention of general application the Conference shall have due regard to those countries in which climatic conditions, the imperfect development of industrial organization, or other special circumstances make the industrial conditions substantially different, and shall suggest the modification, if any, which it considers may be required to meet the case of such countries.

A copy of the recommendation or draft convention shall be authenticated by the signature of the president of the Conference and of the director, and shall be deposited with the secretary general of the League of Nations. The secretary general will communicate a certified copy of the recommendation or draft convention to each of the members.

Each of the members undertakes that it will, within the period of one year at most from the closing of the session of the Conference, or if it is impossible owing to exceptional circumstances to do so within the period of one year, then at the earliest practicable moment and in no case later than 18 months from the closing of the session of the Conference, bring the recommendation or draft convention before the authority or authorities within whose competence the matter lies, for the enactment of legislation or other action.

In the case of a recommendation, the members will inform the secretary general of the action taken.

In the case of a draft convention, the member will, if it obtains the consent of the authority or authorities within whose competence the matter lies, communicate the formal ratification of the convention to the secretary general and will take such action as may be necessary to make effective the provisions of such convention.

If on a recommendation no legislative or other action is taken to make a recommendation effective, or if the draft convention fails to obtain the consent of the authority or authorities within whose competence the matter lies, no further obligation shall rest upon the member.

In the case of a Federal State, the power of which to enter into conventions on labor matters is subject to limitations, it shall be in the discretion of that Government to treat a draft convention to which such limitations apply as a recommendation only, and the provisions of this article with respect to recommendations shall apply in such case.

The above article shall be interpreted in accordance with the following principle:

In no case shall any member be asked or required, as a result of the adoption of any recommendation or draft convention by the Conference, to lessen the protection afforded by its existing legislation to the workers concerned.

ART. 406. Any convention so ratified shall be registered by the secretary general of the League of Nations, but shall only be binding upon the members which ratify it.

ART. 407. If any convention coming before the Conference for final consideration fails to secure the support of two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present, it shall nevertheless be within the right of any of the members of the permanent organization to agree to such convention among themselves.

Any convention so agreed to shall be communicated by the Governments concerned to the secretary general of the League of Nations, who shall register it.

ART. 408. Each of the members agrees to make an annual report to the International Labor Office on the measures which it has taken to give effect to the provisions of conventions to which it is a party. These reports shall be made in such form and shall contain such particulars as the governing body may request. The director shall lay a summary of these reports before the next meeting of the Conference.

ART. 409. In the event of any representation being made to the International Labor Office by an industrial association of employers or of workers that any of the members has failed to secure in any respect the effective observance within its jurisdiction of any convention to which it is a party, the governing body may communicate this representation to the Government against which it is made and may invite that Government to make such statement on the subject as it may think fit.

ART. 410. If no statement is received within a reasonable time from the Government in question, or if the statement when received is not deemed to be satisfactory by the governing body, the latter shall have the right to publish the representation and the statement, if any, made in reply to it.

ART. 411. Any of the members shall have the right to file a complaint with the International Labor Office if it is not satisfied that any other member is securing the effective observance of any convention which both have ratified in accordance with the foregoing articles.

The governing body may, if it thinks fit, before referring such a complaint to a commission of inquiry, as hereinafter provided for, communicate with the Government in question in the manner described in article 409.

If the governing body does not think it necessary to communicate the complaint to the Government in question, or if, when they have made such communication, no statement in reply has been received within a reasonable time which the governing body considers to be satisfactory, the governing body may apply for the appointment of a commission of inquiry to consider the complaint and to report thereon.

The governing body may adopt the same procedure either of its own motion or on receipt of a complaint from a delegate to the Conference.

When any matter arising out of article 410 or 411 is being considered by the governing body, the Government in question shall, if not already represented thereon, be entitled to send a representative to take part in the proceedings of the governing body while the matter is under consideration. Adequate notice of the date on which the matter will be considered shall be given to the Government in question.

ART. 412. The commission of inquiry shall be constituted in accordance with the following provisions:

Each of the members agrees to nominate within six months of the date on which the present treaty comes into force three persons of industrial experience, of whom one shall be a representative of employers, one a representative of workers, and one a person of independent standing, who shall together form a panel from which the members of the commission of inquiry shall be drawn.

The qualifications of the persons so nominated shall be subject to scrutiny by the governing body, which may by two-thirds of the votes cast by the representatives present refuse to accept the nomination of any person whose qualifications do not in its opinion comply with the requirements of the present article.

Upon the application of the governing body, the secretary general of the League of Nations shall nominate three persons, one from each section of this panel, to constitute the commission of inquiry, and shall designate one of them as the president of the commission. None of these three persons shall be a person nominated to the panel by any member directly concerned in the complaint.

ART. 413. The members agree that, in the event of the reference of a complaint to a commission of inquiry under article 411, they will each, whether directly concerned in the complaint or not, place at the disposal of the commission all the information in their possession which bears upon the subject matter of the complaint.

ART. 414. When the commission of inquiry has fully considered the complaint, it shall prepare a report embodying its findings on all questions of fact relevant to determining the issue between the parties and containing such recommendations as it may think proper as to the steps which should be taken to meet the complaint and the time within which they should be taken.

It shall also indicate in this report the measures, if any, of an economic character against a defaulting Government which it considers to be appropriate, and which it considers other Governments would be justified in adopting.

ART. 415. The secretary general of the League of Nations shall communicate the report of the commission of inquiry to each of the Governments concerned in the complaint, and shall cause it to be published.

Each of these Governments shall within one month inform the secretary general of the League of Nations whether or not it accepts the recommendations contained in the report of the commission; and if not, whether it proposes to refer the complaint to the Permanent Court of International Justice of the League of Nations.

ART. 416. In the event of any member failing to take the action required by article 405, with regard to a recommendation or draft convention, any other member shall be entitled to refer the matter to the Permanent Court of International Justice.

ART. 417. The decision of the Permanent Court of International Justice in regard to a complaint or matter which has been referred to it in pursuance of article 415 or article 416 shall be final.

ART. 418. The Permanent Court of International Justice may affirm, vary, or reverse any of the findings or recommendations of the commission of inquiry, if any, and shall in its decision indicate the measures, if any, of an economic character which it considers to be appropriate, and which other Governments would be justified in adopting against a defaulting Government.

ART. 419. In the event of any member failing to carry out within the time specified the recommendations, if any, contained in the report of the commission of inquiry, or in the decision of the Permanent Court of International Justice, as the case may be, any other member may take against that member the measures of an economic character indicated in the report of the commission or in the decision of the court as appropriate to the case.

ART. 420. The defaulting Government may at any time inform the governing body that it has taken the steps necessary to comply with the recommendations of the commission of inquiry or with those in the decision of the Permanent Court of International Justice, as the case may be, and may request it to apply to the secretary general of the League to constitute a commission of inquiry to verify its contention. In this case the provisions of articles 412, 413, 414, 415, 417 and 418 shall apply, and if the report of the commission of inquiry or the decision of the Permanent Court of International Justice is in favor of the defaulting Government, the other Governments shall forthwith discontinue the measures of an economic character that they have taken against the defaulting Government.

Chapter III.—General.

ART. 421. The members engage to apply conventions which they have ratified in accordance with the provisions of this part of the present treaty to their colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing:

- (1) Except where owing to the local conditions the convention is inapplicable, or
- (2) Subject to such modifications as may be necessary to adapt the convention to local conditions.

And each of the members shall notify to the International Labor Office the action taken in respect of each of its colonies, protectorates and possessions which are not fully self-governing.

ART. 422. Amendments to this part of the present treaty which are adopted by the Conference by a majority of two-thirds of the votes cast by the delegates present shall take effect when ratified by the States whose representatives compose the Council of the League of Nations and by three-fourths of the members.

ART. 423. Any question or dispute relating to the interpretation of this part of the present treaty or of any subsequent convention concluded by the members in pursuance of the provisions of this part of the present treaty shall be referred for decision to the Permanent Court of International Justice.

Chapter IV.—Transitory Provisions.

ART. 424. The first meeting of the Conference shall take place in October, 1919. The place and agenda for this meeting shall be as specified in the annex hereto.

Arrangements for the convening and the organization of the first meeting of the Conference will be made by the Government designated for the purpose in the said annex. That Government shall be assisted in the preparation of the documents for submission to the Conference by an international committee constituted as provided in the said annex.

The expenses of the first meeting and of all subsequent meetings held before the League of Nations has been able to establish a general fund, other than the expenses of delegates and their advisers, will be borne by the members in accordance with the apportionment of the expenses of the International Bureau of the Universal Postal Union.

ART. 425. Until the League of Nations has been constituted all communications which under the provisions of the foregoing articles should be addressed to the secretary general of the League will be preserved by the director of the International Labor Office, who will transmit them to the secretary general of the League.

ART. 426. Pending the creation of a Permanent Court of International Justice disputes which in accordance with this part of the present treaty would be submitted to it for decision will be referred to a tribunal of three persons appointed by the Council of the League of Nations.

ANNEX.

First Meeting of Annual Labor Conference, 1919.

The place of meeting will be Washington.

The Government of the United States of America is requested to convene the conference.

The international organizing committee will consist of seven members, appointed by the United States of America, Great Britain, France, Italy, Japan, Belgium and Switzerland. The committee may, if it thinks necessary, invite other members to appoint representatives.

Agenda:

- (1) Application of principle of the 8-hour day or of the 48-hour week.
- (2) Question of preventing or providing against unemployment.
- (3) Women's employment:
 - (a) Before and after childbirth, including the question of maternity benefit;
 - (b) During the night;
 - (c) In unhealthy processes.
- (4) Employment of children:
 - (a) Minimum age of employment;
 - (b) During the night;
 - (c) In unhealthy processes.
- (5) Extension and application of the international conventions adopted at Berne in 1906 on the prohibition of night work for women employed in industry and the prohibition of the use of white phosphorus in the manufacture of matches.

*Section II.**General Principles.*

ART. 427. The high contracting parties, recognizing that the well-being, physical, moral, and intellectual, of industrial wage-earners is of supreme international importance, have framed, in order to further this great end, the permanent machinery provided for in Section I and associated with that of the League of Nations.

They recognize that differences of climate, habits, and customs, of economic opportunity and industrial tradition, make strict uniformity in the conditions of labor difficult of immediate attainment. But, holding as they do, that labor should not be regarded merely as an article of commerce, they think that there are methods and principles for regulating labor conditions which all industrial communities should endeavor to apply, so far as their special circumstances will permit.

Among these methods and principles, the following seem to the high contracting parties to be of special and urgent importance:

First.—The guiding principle above enunciated that labor should not be regarded merely as a commodity or article of commerce.

Second.—The right of association for all lawful purposes by the employed as well as by the employers.

Third.—The payment to the employed of a wage adequate to maintain a reasonable standard of life as this is understood in their time and country.

Fourth.—The adoption of an eight-hour day or a forty-eight hour week as the standard to be aimed at where it has not already been attained.

Fifth.—The adoption of a weekly rest of at least twenty-four hours, which should include Sunday wherever practicable.

Sixth.—The abolition of child labor and the imposition of such limitations on the labor of young persons as shall permit the continuation of their education and assure their proper physical development.

Seventh.—The principle that men and women should receive equal remuneration for work of equal value.

Eighth.—The standard set by law in each country with respect to the conditions of labor should have due regard to the equitable economic treatment of all workers lawfully resident therein.

Ninth.—Each State should make provision for a system of inspection in which women should take part, in order to insure the enforcement of the laws and regulations for the protection of the employed.

Without claiming that these methods and principles are either complete or final, the high contracting parties are of opinion that they are well fitted to guide the policy of the League of Nations; and that, if adopted by the industrial communities who are members of the League, and safeguarded in practice by an adequate system of such inspection, they will confer lasting benefits upon the wage-earners of the world.

Article 312 of the Peace Treaty, which has to do with social and State insurance in ceded territory, is as follows:

PART X, SECTION VIII, OF THE PEACE TREATY.

ARTICLE 312. Without prejudice to the provisions contained in other articles of the present treaty, the German Government undertakes to transfer to any power to which German territory in Europe is ceded, and to any power administering former German territory as a mandatory under article 22 of Part I (League of Nations), such portion of the reserves accumulated by the Government of the German Empire or of German States, or by public or private organizations under their control, as is attributable to the carrying on of social or State insurance in such territory.

The Powers to which these funds are transferred must apply them to the performance of the obligations arising from such insurances.

The conditions of the transfer will be determined by special conventions to be concluded between the German Government and the Governments concerned.

In case these special conventions are not concluded in accordance with the above paragraph within three months after the coming into force of the present treaty, the conditions of transfer shall in each case be referred to a commission of five members, one of whom shall be appointed by the German Government, one by the other interested Government and three by the governing body of the International Labor Office from the nationals of other States. This commission shall by majority vote, within three months after appointment, adopt recommendations for submission to the Council of the League of Nations, and the decisions of the council shall forthwith be accepted as final by Germany and the other Governments concerned.

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The Road to the Eight-Hour Day.¹

By DR. STEPHAN BAUER, BASEL. (TRANSLATED BY ALFRED MAYLANDER.)

1. The International Origins.

IN the last months of the year 1918 the eight-hour day has become the war cry of the masses; the employers retort that it can be introduced only by international action. Thus there arise once more the questions as to the reasons which determine the duration of the hours of labor, the effects of their shortening, and the most efficient methods of their regulation.

The first question is: How many hours must a people work in order to meet their subsistence and cultural requirements? That depends at all times on the productiveness of the labor and its technical equipment on the one hand, and on the nature and extent of the requirements of the people on the other. India and Japan are the most backward countries industrially; they have the longest hours of labor. In the Middle Ages, when the guilds flourished, the workday started at sunrise and ended at sundown; during that period the highly skilled few worked exclusively for the requirements of the landed nobility and their retainers. Humanism raised its voice against this sorage.

The first advocate of a shorter work day was Thomas More (1516). On his happy island, Utopia, work is generally compulsory, just as in the writings of W. Rathenau and in the Soviet Republic. Special overseers, the syphogrants, supervise all work. "They see to it and take heed that no man sit idle, but that every one apply his own craft with earnest diligence; and yet for all that not to be wearied from early in the morning to late in the evening with continual work, like laboring and toiling beasts. For this is worse than the miserable and wretched condition of bondmen; which, nevertheless, is almost everywhere in the life of workmen and artificers, save in Utopia. For they, dividing the day and the night into 24 just hours, appoint and assign only six of those hours to work; three before noon, upon the which they go straight to dinner, and after dinner, when they have rested two hours, then they work three; and upon that they go to supper. About 8 o'clock in the evening they go to bed. Eight hours they give to sleep. All the void time they give to study, music, and sports, but not to dice-play and such other foolish and pernicious games."²

¹ Authorized translation by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of *Der Weg zum-Achtstundentag*. Zurich, 1919. 31 pp.

² More, Sir Thomas. *The Utopia*. Edited by William Dellam Armes. New York. 1912. pp. 100 ff.

With the eight-hour day the world draws nearer to the dream of Thomas More, who himself had declared that he wished, rather than expected, its realization. In what manner has this historical process taken place?

The cradle of the eight-hour day is to be found in five countries: In Germany, England, Australia, America, and France. Its origins are international.

From the fourteenth to the end of the sixteenth century, Germany was the classic country of mining. Up to the end of the fifteenth century mining was carried on in four six-hour shifts. In 1467 the miners of Freiberg went on strike because their shift was increased to eight hours. On Saturdays and on days preceding holidays the six-hour shift remained in force.¹ These miners were highly skilled workers. However, since the influx of peasant bondmen into mining, which since the eighteenth century has been especially a factor in coal mining, and still more since the declaration of freedom of trade in the middle of the nineteenth century, the eight-hour shift has been disappearing. Through overtime work, and finally by agreement, it has been lengthened to a 12-hour shift.

During the first third of the nineteenth century, the daily hours of labor in English factories were from 12 to 14. The change to a 10-hour day began with the legal restriction of child and juvenile labor through the law of 1833, which also introduced factory inspection. In 1834 the hours of labor of children 9 to 13 years of age were reduced to eight. However, the law did not change the hours of labor of adult persons. The failure of the law to do so was made the subject of a protest by two social reformers, Robert Owen, active since 1815 in the interest of labor legislation and of the trade-union movement, and John Fielden, member of Parliament for Oldham, both of them cotton-goods manufacturers. They initiated a movement for an eight-hour day, which came to naught. But why?

Col. R. Torrens, member of Parliament for Bolton and a political opponent of Fielden, gives us information on this subject.² Fielden wanted to secure, through an alliance of employers and workers, the eight-hour day with continuance of the earnings then obtaining, 5 shillings per week, as a minimum wage. He believed that this would cause a decrease in production; however, the price of the smaller output would be as high as that of the former larger output. In other words, it was an attempt to prevent, by a shortening of the hours of labor, a fall of prices in times of crisis, a combination of protection of labor with that of capital; similarly the French manufacturer Boucart of Gebweiler, in 1828, had tried to justify the demand for a 12-hour law

¹ Otto Hue. *Die Bergarbeiter*, vol. 1, 1910, pp. 264, 265, 402.

² On wages and combinations. 1834.

in France. This justification of the attempt caused its failure, for Col. Torrens could easily prove that a rise in prices of cotton prints in England would lead to an increase in the indebtedness of the country, and thus would be lost the advantage which the British workers, owing to their greater efficiency, had gained over their continental comrades. Only by increased productivity of the English workers could their hours of labor be shortened and their wages increased. The most urgent step to bring this about would be the abolition of the duties on grain, for cheaper bread would increase the purchasing power of the wages.

Several manufacturers, led by Fielden and Wood, actually introduced the eight-hour day in 1834. But the workers did not bestir themselves. They wanted higher wages, and not an increase of 50 per cent in prices.

At the parliamentary inquiry of 1834 the textile manufacturers stated that the 12-hour day was absolutely necessary if a sufficient yield on the capital invested in industry were to be obtained. When the eight-hour day for children came into force in 1836, children employed in factories were dismissed in large numbers. Hence it must be considered an enormous achievement when Lord Shaftesbury and John Fielden, by means of a compromise, succeeded in securing a 10-hour day for juvenile workers under 18 years of age and for female labor, through enactment of the law of June 8, 1847.

In 1867, Karl Marx, in his book "Kapital," designates this success as the beginning of the physical and moral regeneration of the English factory workers.¹ In 1901 the hours of labor in textile factories were shortened to 55½ per week, averaging very nearly 9 a day. In Bolton and Oldham the weekly wages of adult cotton-mill workers rose from 5 to 32 shillings between 1834 and 1906.² The great-grandfathers of the spinners of to-day thus had more common sense than have their present leaders. Through organization of very strong trade-unions two generations have carried on a policy of minimum wages and legal protection of labor and it seems to be reserved to the third generation to pick the ripe fruit of the eight-hour day.

In Australia, the third country of origin of the eight-hour day, the eight-hour movement was initiated by the trade-unions. The modern economic history of this continent begins with the discoveries of gold in 1851. Several years later the yield of the gold fields decreased and as a consequence wages also fell.³

¹ In chapter 13, 3 c. of his book Marx has predicted the hygienic necessity of further shortening the workday to eight hours.

² Fifteenth Abstract of Labor Statistics in the United Kingdom, 1912, p. 101.

³ See: Bauer, Stephan, "Arbeiterfragen und Lohnpolitik in Australien" in Conrad's Jahrbücher für National-Ökonomie, 1891, pp. 648 and 649; Rae, John, "Der Achtstundentag," Weimar, 1897, p. 212; and particularly, Dilke, Sir Charles, "Problems of Great Britain," 1890.

The workers most exposed to wage fluctuations, and particularly affected by decreases and increases of the population, were those in the building trades. For their economically precarious and exhausting work in the warm climate of Australia they sought compensation in the shortening of the workday to eight hours. Many of them may have remembered the unsuccessful strike of the London building trades of 1853, the first labor dispute in which a demand was made for the eight-hour day. By the end of March, 1856, a movement for an eight-hour day was under way in all building trades at Melbourne; an eight-hour league carried on the propaganda. The movement was powerfully promoted by Mr. James Stephen, an employer, who stated that experiments carried out in his brick kilns had shown that his workmen performed as much work in eight hours as in ten. Serious opposition on the part of the employers was not to be feared, for they had been made to feel the indispensableness of the workers when, at the outbreak of the gold fever, a number of buildings had been left in an unfinished condition. The only employer willing to risk a strike, the architect of the parliamentary building at Melbourne, was compensated by the Government for losses caused by the eight-hour day. At the same time the building-trades workers declared that they would consent to eventual wage reductions made necessary by the state of the building market but would insist on the maintenance of the eight-hour day. After three weeks of agitation the eight-hour day proposed by the league was realized without a strike. On April 21, 1856, the building trades of Melbourne established the eight-hour day by peaceful means and in 1859 they secured its permanency through a four months' strike. The colony annually celebrates the return of that memorable day with parades, banquets, and public fairs; the Government has acknowledged its importance by decreeing it a legal holiday.

Trade-union after trade-union secured the eight-hour day. In 1873 the Parliament of New Zealand took the initiative in giving legal force to the principle that no child or woman should work longer than eight hours.¹ Victoria followed in 1874. A half-holiday on Saturday afternoons was introduced in both States. Since 1901 the eight-hour law in New Zealand (Factories Act, articles 18 and 19) has regulated the hours of labor as follows: Adult men, maximum per week 48 hours, per day 8 $\frac{3}{4}$ hours; women, maximum per week 45 hours, per day 8 $\frac{1}{4}$ hours.

The causes for the early successful introduction of the eight-hour day in Australia may be summarized briefly as follows:

1. The warm climate, on account of which masons and furnace workers were the first to write the eight-hour a day on their banner.

¹ Reeves, Wm. Pember. *State Experiments in Australia and New Zealand.* Vol. II, p. 37.

2. The tenacity with which the eight-hour trades held on to this achievement even in the face of wage reductions.

3. The barring of immigrants used to longer hours of labor and a lower standard of living.

4. The absence of any considerable export of manufactured products and the high cost of imported articles owing to high freight rates.

5. The increasing connection of parliamentary and trade-union power; as a matter of fact the central labor organizations of the metropolitan towns are a kind of advisory labor council, which influence Parliament but do not encroach upon its rights.

The following statistical data will serve to illustrate the present-day characteristics of this eight-hour country:

1. The natural increase of the population during the period 1861-1915 was 2,900,000 and the excess of immigrants over emigrants only 500,000. The country therefore has maintained its national character.

2. The increase in population was nearly twice as large as in Switzerland; the same holds true of the frequency of marriages; the general mortality was one-third lower, and mortality from tuberculosis more than one-half lower.

3. The number of factory workers rose from 198,000 to 321,000 during the period 1901-1915, or nearly in the same ratio as in Switzerland during the period 1895-1911 (from 200,000 to 329,000).

4. Owing to greater exploitation of water power the number of motive horsepower is considerably greater in Switzerland (730,000) than in Australia (505,000).

5. Figures giving, for 1911, the distribution of the workers among small establishments (employing up to 20 workers), medium size (employing 21 to 100 workers), and large (employing over 100 workers) show that 7 per cent in Switzerland and 28 per cent in Australia were employed in small establishments, 22 per cent in Switzerland and 34 per cent in Australia in medium-size establishments, and 71 per cent in Switzerland and 38 per cent in Australia in large establishments.

6. The per capita value of exports was £14 11s. 2d. (\$70.85) in Australia and £14 10s. 11d. (\$70.79) in Switzerland, or nearly the same in both countries.

7. During the period 1906-1913 the membership of trade-unions rose in Australia from 147,049 to 497,925, and in Switzerland from 68,535 to 89,398.

8. In Australia at the end of 1916 an adult male full-time worker earned 8 shillings (\$1.95) per day of eight hours, and an adult female full-time worker, 4½ shillings (\$1.16). In the large cities of Switzer-

land at that time the daily average wage for 10 hours' work may be assumed to have been 6 francs (\$1.16) for male workers and 3.75 francs (\$0.72) for female workers.¹

These comparisons are intended exclusively to show the importance of the two factors—organization and legislation.

In the United States, Ira Steward, a machinist and social reformer, in 1850 initiated an agitation for the eight-hour day. He was essentially a man of one idea, and in fact was sometimes called the "eight-hour monomaniac."² Steward's idea was afterwards taken up by George McNeill, a former textile worker, and by Prof. Gunton and F. A. Sorge. The chief argument of his agitation was that a reduction of the hours of labor would make it possible to give employment to the surplus of the unemployed. His theory that in case of the adoption of the eight-hour day equal production would require the employment of more hands is the counterpart of the manufacturer's doctrine that reduced production means higher prices. Both theories are based on a reduction of output. This conventional doctrine was soon replaced by the theory that a higher standard of living of the working class would furnish a new basis for the formation of wages. Shorter hours of labor, therefore, would mean higher wages. In 1863 a trade-union convention at Boston, convoked by Ira Steward, resolved to agitate on this basis for the eight-hour day. The Labor Reform Association, founded in 1864, and the Grand Eight-Hour League of Massachusetts, organized in 1865, became the centers of this agitation. The flooding of the labor market after the termination of the Civil War brought home to all workmen's organizations the realization of the need of united action. A national labor congress was called to meet in Baltimore on August 20, 1866. The eight-hour day was the main subject under discussion. On the motion of Schlägel, a German follower of Lassalle, the congress resolved to form a National Labor Party, the first object of which should be to secure legislation making eight hours a legal day's work. The result was disappointing. Six States enacted laws pseudo (Scheingesetze) which were not intended to be enforced, or, like that of Connecticut (1867), merely provided that eight hours should be considered a day's work unless other than eight hours had been agreed upon contractually. In 1868 the National Labor Union secured the legal introduction of the eight-hour day for workmen and employees of the Federal Government.³ Attempts were made to nullify this reform

¹ It is to be regretted that since the wage investigation made in 1895 by Fridolin Schuler no reliable data are available for Switzerland; social statistics, the record of the development of national prosperity, are being somewhat neglected in that country. The excellent official statistical yearbook of the statistician G. H. Knibbs has been used as the source for the data on Australia.

² Commons, John R. and associates. *History of Labor in the United States*, Vol. 2. p. 88. New York, 1918.

³ An account of this legislation appears in the *MONTHLY REVIEW* for October, 1916, pp. 116 to 133, in an article entitled "Federal limitation of hours of labor on public works."—[Ed.]

through wage reductions, frustrated by President Grant, however, in 1872. Various sorry experiences in the field of legislation caused the trade-unions to redouble their efforts; after 1869, new eight-hour leagues were founded, and in May, 1872, the building trades of New York secured for themselves the eight-hour day after a four [three] months' strike. The entire American trade-union system was, however, disorganized by the crisis of 1873. A wave of revolutionary syndicalism swept the decade 1873-1883. It was not until the foundation of the American Federation of Labor that matters came to a turning point. Under the influence of its leaders, Adolph Strasser and Samuel Gompers, both skilled cigar makers, the American trade-union movement returned to the principles of the British trade-unions. In 1884, the new labor federation resolved to call a general strike on May 1, 1886, for the eight-hour day. The strike brought the desired success temporarily to about 13,000 workers. Not until 1888, however, at its congress at St. Louis, did the American Federation of Labor, on the urgent solicitation of the wood-workers, resolve to make a new general eight-hour-day demonstration on May 1, 1890. After that the eight-hour-day movement spread also in Europe.

The centennial celebration of the French Revolution brought the International Socialist Congress to Paris in July, 1889. At this congress the representatives of the labor parties met for the first time since the Franco-German War. Among the subjects under discussion was the international legislation concerning which Switzerland had taken the initiative. The proposal of the Swiss Federal Council was particularly acclaimed by Cunninghame Graham, the British representative, and the Belgian, Caesar de Pape. The most important act of the congress was the adoption of the following motion of the National Federation of French Syndical Chambers and Corporative Groups made by its secretary Lavigne:

International Demonstration on May 1, 1890.

The Congress resolves that a great international demonstration shall be organized in such a manner that on a fixed date the workers in all countries and cities shall simultaneously present to the public powers the demand that the duration of the working day be fixed at eight hours and the other resolutions of the International Congress of Paris be enacted into law.

In view of the fact that the holding of such a demonstration on May 1, 1890, has already been resolved by the American Federation of Labor at its congress of December 1888, at St. Louis, this date is herewith fixed as the day for the international demonstration.

The workers of the various nations shall organize such a demonstration in a manner best suited to the conditions in their country.¹

¹ Protokoll des Internationalen Arbeiterkongresses zu Paris, abgehalten vom 14 bis 20 Juli, 1889. Deutsche Übersetzung mit einem Vorwort von Wilhelm Liebknecht. Nürnberg, 1890, p. 123. [Two international congresses of the socialists were convened, that of the Marxists and that of the Possibilists. The resolutions here in question were adopted by the principal, or Marxist, congress.—Ed.]

This "Bastille assault" of the proletariat has now lasted 28 years. It has cost punishment, bloody strikes, and heavy sacrifices. Let us see whether and how the eight-hour movement is nearing its termination.

First, a personal reminiscence. My sojourn in London for studies enabled me to be present at the first English May-day celebration. At the entrance to Hyde Park I waited for the labor parade. A marshal dressed in a red coat rode at its head. A police officer tried to induce him to dismount, but when the marshal refused to do so, saying proudly: Am I not a free Briton? the officer respectfully retired. Behind the gate of the park a meeting of a religious sect was assembled in a circle around a preacher. They peacefully continued their psalm singing without being disturbed by the standard bearers of the new times.

Of the speakers to be seen on the stands a conspicuous figure, a man with smooth white hair and flashing eyes, attracted attention. His speech grew more and more violent. "The day must come," he shouted, "when the capitalists will beg you on their knees to work eight hours." But the masses were incredulous, there was no applause, and an old English labor-union member standing in front of me muttered something like "bloody nonsense." The speaker was Paul Lafargue and next to him sat his wife, a daughter of Karl Marx.

Why do I mention this episode? Because a comparison of the past and present makes us conscious of three facts: The enormous change that has taken place, the indescribable hardships with which each step forward was achieved, and the invincible power of ideas.

II. The Age of International Experiments with the Eight-Hour Day.

In the decade following the first May-day celebration the great capitalistic press reported with much complacency each decrease in the number of participants and each increase in the number of workshops which did not close down on May 1. The belief in the eight-hour day was met with a shrug of shoulders and a greater display of armed force. But such delusion and consciousness of power could not prevent, though it might conceal, two things: First, the transition to the legal ten-hour day and a far-reaching curtailment of the hours of labor on days preceding Sundays or holidays; and second, the voluntary introduction of the nine-hour and eight-hour day in a number of large establishments and entire industrial groups. As to the progress of ten-hour legislation it suffices to quote some data showing in what year the ten-hour day was adopted by law in each country. Great Britain comes first on the list with the coming in force on May

1, 1848, of the ten-hour law, to which is dedicated one of Macaulay's famous speeches. France followed on March 31, 1904, Serbia on July 1-14, 1911, Germany on April 1, 1912, Greece on May 6, 1912, the Netherlands on January 1, 1913. During the war Portugal (Jan. 22, 1915) and Bulgaria (Feb. 7, 1917) were added to the list; in Switzerland the ten-hour day has been in force since November 15, 1917. Norway adopted the nine-hour day (54 hours per week) on January 1, 1916. Only Austria-Hungary, Belgium, and Italy are behind Switzerland, which in 1877 was leading in labor legislation on the Continent.

Faster than the legislative machinery trade-unions and liberal-minded employers have brought about far-reaching curtailment of the hours of labor. A beginning was made by the English mining industry. In South Yorkshire it returned to the eight-hour shift in 1858.¹ Production increased. Thanks to the progress of organization this example led in 1872 to the introduction of the seven-hour shift in Durham, Northumberland, and in the ore mines of Cleveland. In Germany the eight-hour day was introduced in the State coal mines in 1890; at first this innovation had unsatisfactory results, but improved hoisting apparatus led to increased production later. In Austria a coal-mining company which in 1891 had introduced the nine-hour shift and thereby secured greater output reported this result to a social statistician. To the annoyance of the coal magnates an article on the subject was published in a chamber of commerce report. The services of technical experts were at once secured to belittle in trade journals the importance of the results achieved in that mine. It required an extensive strike with all its horrors to cause Austria, in 1901, to adopt by law the nine-hour shift for coal mining below ground. Thus the ice was broken; Belgium and Spain soon followed Austria's example, and the Netherlands adopted the eight-and-a-half-hour shift. France was the first country in Europe to introduce the eight-hour shift, June 29, 1909, Great Britain, Norway, Finland, and Portugal following suit. In Germany mining legislation was reserved to the individual States. This fact, and the rôle of a State within the State which the mining and iron and steel industries played, explains the lagging behind of Germany's legislation. In the United States the labor organizations have overcome the obstacles of the Federal Constitution. By a collective agreement the eight-hour shift was introduced in all American coal mines² on May 5, 1916.

To-day three-fourths of all the coal of the world is being mined in eight-hour shifts.

¹ Rae, J: *Der Achtstundentag*, 1891, p. 39.

² Anthracite mines only. See *Productivity of labor in the anthracite coal mines*, in the MONTHLY REVIEW of August, 1917, pp. 37-43.—[Ed.]

Coal is the food, iron and steel are the backbone, of industry. What are the hours of labor in iron and steel? Furnaces and rolling mills have everywhere been given by law a franchise to operate with twelve-hour shifts, and very similar conditions prevail with respect to glass works. Inclusive of overtime, workmen in Germany may be employed in such plants for 16 hours and workmen in France for 14 hours. There are two reasons for this exceptional situation. First, the dominating and, in case of war, the important position of these establishments, and second, on the part of the workmen, the employment of great masses of unskilled and unorganized workers, mostly of east and southeast European origin.

In spite of this, England, the United States, and Belgium have successfully introduced the eight-hour three-shift system in these industries. In Belgium the engineer L. G. Fromont, during the period 1892-1904, made observations in the zinc smelters of Engis on the efficiency of this system of operation and the results were printed in the publications of the Institut Solvay de Sociologie.¹

Until 1888 the 24-hour shift prevailed, followed by a 24-hour rest. Alcoholism and carelessness in work were the result. In 1888 the 12-hour shift, with one rest period of one hour and two of half an hour, was introduced. A new and more complicated blast-furnace system demanded the whole attention of the workers. The smelting of 1,000 kilograms (2,204.6 pounds) in place of 583 kilograms (1,285.3 pounds) of sulphide of zinc had now to be done in 12 hours, but in the new shift of 24 hours at shift changes only 1,000 kilograms (2,204.6 pounds) instead of 2,000 kilograms (4,409.2 pounds) were smelted. Notwithstanding the changes the establishment sick fund had a deficit; the exhaustion during the heat of summer caused the applications for relief to increase. In 1893 the system of three 8-hour shifts was adopted, in all of which combined a rest period of only 1½ hours was allowed, making a gain in time of about 10 per cent. One hundred and ten kilograms (242.5 pounds) were produced per hour instead of 100 kilograms (220.5 pounds). Six months after the beginning of this experiment the worker produced in 7½ hours of actual working time as much as he formerly produced in 10 hours; his earnings for 8 hours were the same as for 12 hours under the old conditions. The establishment sick fund, which showed a deficit in 1892, had assets. Alcoholism disappeared, while self-respect and discipline increased.

The introduction of the eight-hour day in the British iron and steel works is especially due to Mr. John Hodge, organizer of the trade-unions in this industry and late Minister of Labor, who made a report on it to the special commission on hours of labor of the Inter-

¹ Fromont, J. G. *Une expérience industrielle de réduction de la journée de travail*. Brussels, 1906. (Institut Solvay.) Digest in Goldmark's *Fatigue and efficiency*. New York 1912. Pp. 144-155.—[Ed.]

national Association for Labor Legislation on June 11, 1912.¹ As to the conditions under which in 1906 the eight-hour shift was introduced, we quote Mr. Hodge himself:

So anxious were the workmen to obtain an eight-hour day in these works that the higher paid men came to the determination, so as to remove every argument of the employers, that they would pay a percentage out of their own wages so as to give the lower paid classes of labor an eight-hour day with themselves, and so to get rid of the argument of increased cost of production; but added to this was a proviso that the average output of the melting shop should be ascertained, and such taken as a basis, and for every extra ton of output over that average a bonus should be given to the higher paid men, so that what they had given to the lower paid men would come back to them in greater volume as the output increased. To-day, I believe, the contribution of the higher paid men is very small, if not entirely wiped out, as a result of increased output.

I should like now to deal again with South Wales. In the tin-plate trade of South Wales—and they have an enormous foreign export trade—the eight-hour day is universal. In the sheet-mill trade in South Wales the eight-hour day is also in operation. That probably paved the way for us to a considerable extent, as in our agitation for an eight-hour day in that district with the steel makers, we have met with less opposition from the employers than has been the case in other districts; in fact, I might say a much more generous consideration than that shown by the employers in any other district.

Questioned on the results of the eight-hour day in South Wales, mill managers agreed that there has been an increase of output in rolling mills of at least 20 per cent; but so far as the open hearth melting process is concerned they would not place the output at more than 12½ per cent greater.

As to the social effects, Alderman P. Walls made the following statement:²

When the question of eight hours was first raised, it was argued that if a man got shorter hours, it would only mean more time for drinking, but the effect has been exactly the opposite. We have had the eight-hour shift over 21 years in one district in the North of England, and over 14 years in another, and the moral effect is marvelous. The men take an interest in social and economic problems, and are now citizens in every sense of the term. They are in their allotment gardens, out with the wives and children for a walk, or out on their bicycles.

In France the introduction of the eight-hour shift in place of the 12-hour shift has had the same results; each eight-hour shift produces as much as formerly each of the two 12-hour shifts, without entailing increased costs of production and at the same piece rates. "The earnings of labor have remained the same in the last 10 years, but four hours have been gained. Instead of leaving the factory at midnight all fagged out the workmen go home at 4 or 8 p. m. Their strength is not exhausted. They work in their gardens or attend their vineyards. Others go fishing or go hunting in the mountains."³

¹ Conditions in British Iron and Steel Works, I. Speech of John Hodge (Publications of the International Association for Labor Legislation, British section), 1912. 8 pp.

² Conditions in British Iron and Steel Works II. Speech of Alderman P. Walls (Publications of the International Association for Labor Legislation, British section), 1912. 2 pp.

³ L'Ouvrier Metallurgiste, May 1, 1906; Marcel Lecoq. "La journée de huit heures," 1907, p. 178; Francois Delaisi. "La journée de huit heures dans les forges du Jura," in "Pages libres" August 28, 1906. Raoul Jay. "La protection legale des travailleurs," Paris, 1910, p. 356.

The German mining and iron and steel industries manifested the strongest opposition to the introduction of the eight-hour shift. Computations were made showing that its introduction in iron and steel mills would mean the employment of 57,000 more workers, an additional expenditure of 85,000,000 marks (\$20,230,000), and an increase of 3 to 4 per cent in the price per ton.¹

The machinery industry is one of the industries which most extend the hours of labor through overtime work. This practice of systematic overtime work has been combated in the English machinery industry through experiments of the Salford works of Mather & Platt, who already in 1883 employed 1,200 men and in that year changed from the nine-hour day to the eight-hour day. The result was twofold: Increased production and a decrease from 2.46 to 0.4 per cent in time lost on account of absence from work. On the initiative of Campbell-Bannerman, Secretary of War, the eight-hour day was introduced in the cartridge factory at Woolwich and one year later also in the gun factory. Not a single workman was added to the working force of these establishments, which employed 16,000 men.

In France, in the arsenal at Tarbes, where the eight-hour day had been adopted on September 1, 1903, in place of the ten-hour day, the nine-hour day was introduced on June 1, 1904, because there was not a sufficiently larger output or increase in saving of material to make up for the decrease in production, which could have been prevented only by large expenditures for machinery. The directors of the arsenals of Rochefort and La Rochelle, on the other hand, stated that the transition from a workday of 9 hours and 35 minutes to an eight-hour day did not result in decreased production; in the case of La Rochelle the increase in production was estimated at 10 per cent.²

In Germany the private arsenals of Krupp have opposed the eight-hour shift at all times and even as late as October, 1918. On the other hand Germany can point to one of the most thorough experiments with the eight-hour day, made in the Zeiss Optical Works at Jena. English experiments described by John Rae in 1894 induced Prof. Franz Abbe, the director of the Zeiss works, to make some experiments himself. During the course of years he had gradually shortened the hours of labor from 12 to 9 hours. After the nine-hour day had been effective for 10 years he introduced the eight-hour day in the spring of 1900. One year later Abbe published the results of his experiment.³ The results, based on careful observation of 233 persons, are briefly the following:

¹ Wieher, Franz: Die Arbeitszeit in ununterbrochenen Betrieben der Grosseisenindustrie. Duisburg, 1912. p. 57.

² France. Bulletin de l'Office de Travail, vol. 14, 1907, p. 29.

³ Die volkswirtschaftliche Bedeutung der Verkürzung des industriellen Arbeitstages. Jena, 1901. Sozialpolitische Schriften. Jena, 1906, p. 203.

1. With equal piece rates the hourly earnings increased 16.2 per cent (instead of 12.5 per cent as would have been the case if the output in 9 and in 8 hours had been equal). This is equivalent to a 10 days' excess output.

2. This increase in output was observed in the case of old and young workers without marked differences.

3. The increase is somewhat larger in the case of workers employed at coarse work, such as machine hands (machine grinders, turners, drillers), than in the case of those employed at finer work.

4. The increase in output is effected through unconscious adaptation of the worker to the higher speed of the machine.

5. A lessening of output in the case of longer hours of labor is due to fatigue. This increases with the number of manipulations, the rapidity with which they have to be executed, and the duration of the passive presence in a noisy workshop. Abbe calls this factor the waste of energy through unnecessary and unproductive effort (*Kraftverbrauch durch Leergang für Nichtarbeit*). This waste of energy through useless human effort takes place at the cost of the cooperation of intelligence and activity, and means that the valuable capital which Germany possesses in the natural intelligence of her working classes remains largely unused because the conditions are lacking under which this intelligence can come into full play.

This great scientist has made it his life task to counteract such waste of intelligence.

The most important accessory materials of modern industry are furnished by the chemical factories, the working forces of which are exposed to great danger from accidents and poisoning. The shorter their hours of labor the lower is their accident and sickness rate;¹ hence the curtailing of the hours of labor is in their instance a hygienic requirement. Yet until now hardly one-third of the workers in the chemical industry have worked less than 10 hours per day. Not until January, 1911, did the Baden aniline and soda works at Ludwigshafen, which employ 8,000 workers, introduce an actual working day of 8 hours 20 minutes, "in order to permit of a longer night rest for workers living at some distance."² England and Switzerland, the former of which manufactures chiefly quantity products (acids, alkalis) and the latter quality goods (dyestuffs, etc.), were the first to shorten the hours of labor in the chemical industry. In England the firms of Charles Tennant & Co., Burroughs, Wellcome & Co., and Brunner Mond & Co. first introduced the eight-hour shift. All of them have reported that the transition from the nine-hour to the eight-hour shift has caused little or no reduction

¹ Schneider, H. *Gefahren der Arbeit in der chemischen Industrie*. Hannover, 1911, p. 86.

² *Jahresberichte der Gewerbeaufsichtsbeamten für das Jahr 1911*. Berlin, 1912. Vol. II, pp. 2, 64.

of output. On inquiry by Sidney Webb and Harold Cox as to whether piece rates were in use the firm of Burroughs replied: "None of our employees are paid in this manner. We rely upon their honor to do the best they can for our business during the eight hours of work per day."¹

On February 7, 1895, the firm of Brunner Mond & Co. issued the following report on the success of the eight-hour-shift system:

The cost of labor per ton of products has annually decreased, and is now the same as at the beginning of the experiments with the eight-hour shift. Improvements in the process of production were introduced to a considerable extent during this period, but the firm does not consider them sufficiently important to explain this remarkable result. It rather believes that this result is largely due to the fact that its employees work more steadily and more intensively.

Sir John Brunner says:

The appearance of the workers, and particularly their bearing when they leave the factory after the close of work, has strikingly improved. No less has the steadiness of their work increased. Permanently employed factory workers having regular attendance to their credit are being granted an annual leave of one week with full pay. They lose this leave if during the year they have been absent 10 days without leave. Before the introduction of the eight-hour shift the percentage of chemical workers who had earned a week's leave was 43 in 1888, in 1891 it rose to 78, and in 1893 to 92, while the percentage of other workers was 59 in 1888, 67 in 1891, and 76, in 1893. In addition, under the old system the manager had to be present in the factory on the morning after pay day in order to choose substitutes for the missing workers and to remove those that were drunk. To-day this is hardly necessary. The workers arrive at their shift regularly and sober. To be sure this eight-hour shift in chemical factories applies to seven days in the week and only to chemical workers employed at piece rates, while all other workers who receive time wages are still working nine hours per day.²

In the chemical industry of Switzerland, which is concentrated at Basel, the hours of labor up to 1897 varied between 9 and 9½ hours. At that time a local labor organization presented demands to the factories and secured an 8½-hour day. The weekly wage of adult male workers was 21 francs (\$4.05). In 1905 the workers went on strike and obtained a minimum wage of 24 francs (\$4.63) and a maximum wage of 27 francs (\$5.21). In 1906 two firms agreed to introduce the eight-hour day and the other firms followed suit.

The effect of these reforms may be observed from the following data showing the number of workers in the chemical industry in 1900 and in 1910:

	1900.	1910.
Chemical workers (skilled and unskilled).....	1, 030	1, 366
Auxiliary workers and laborers.....	238	510
Apprentices and other workers.....	36	35
Total.....	1, 304	1, 911

¹ Webb, Sidney and Cox, Harold. "The Eight Hours Day." London [1891], p. 255.

² Rae, John. "Neue Fortschritte der Achtstunden-Bewegung in England" in Braun's Archiv für Soziale Gesetzgebung und Statistik. Vol. 12, 1898, pp. 18 and 19.

Concerning recent curtailments of the hours of labor one of the largest firms made the following report to the Swiss factory inspection service:

Our process of manufacture requires daily rest periods for the workers so as to give them time to change their clothes, bathe, and wash. For this reason we have to reckon with gross and net hours of labor, i. e., the hours during which the workers are present at the working place and the hours they put in at actual work.

On the request of the workers their hours of labor were gradually reduced in the course of years. In May, 1917, they were reduced to 52 gross and 46½ net hours; in December, 1918, to 51 gross and 46½ net hours.

This curtailment in May, 1917, had been effected through the grant of a half-holiday on Saturday afternoon, which for some time had been among the most frequent demands of labor.

The loss of 3½ gross hours of labor on Saturday afternoon made it necessary, if production was not to be curtailed too much, to work seven hours in the forenoon (from 6 a. m. to 1 p. m.) on Saturday in place of the eight gross hours usual in the past.

The most recent curtailment of the hours of labor to 51 gross hours was also effected on request of our employees through reduction from 15 to 10 minutes of each of two daily rest periods used for changing clothes and bathing.

Observations as to the effect of the shorter hours of labor upon the health of the workers could not be made because the steadily increasing cost of living brings with it consequences which may vitiate or nullify the effect of shorter hours of labor.

Likewise the effect upon the intensity of production can not be determined in view of the extremely complex as well as important factors arising from war-time conditions.

The successes of the eight-hour day in the chemical industry are not restricted to large establishments. The report of the Swiss factory inspection service for the years 1910 and 1911 quotes the following example as to the successful introduction of the eight-hour day in a small establishment:

The owner of a small chemical laundry, who for the last two years has introduced the eight-hour day, made the following statement as to the success of this measure in a Swiss trade meeting: Beginning with the introduction of the eight-hour day the hourly wages were so computed that the earnings of the workers were equivalent to those made by them on the former nine-hour basis, in addition most of the workers were granted a wage increase of 10 per cent. What were the results of this somewhat risky movement? The turnover of the business for 1910 as compared with that for 1909 increased by 2,940.44 francs and the net profit by 1,910.26 francs. The total amount of wages disbursed, on the other hand, decreased by 414.55 francs. I wish to emphasize that the prices charged in the steam laundry as well as in the chemical cleaning and dyeing department had remained exactly the same. Thus the result can not be ascribed to increased prices.¹

In the textile industry it seems that outside of Australia the eight-hour day has not yet been introduced to any large extent. If the weekly average of the hours of labor is considered, the nine-hour (United States, Great Britain, and Norway) and the ten-hour day prevail at present. In Austria a lace factory in Lettowitz introduced

¹ *Berichte der eidgenössischen Fabrik- und Bergwerksinspektoren, 1912.* pp. 191, 192.

the eight-hour day about 30 years ago, but after a few years returned to the nine-hour day. Nevertheless, it may be assumed that after the World War, progress in the methods and technique of manufacturing will permit curtailments of the hours of labor at shorter intervals than formerly. If, for instance, we are informed by a leading ribbon factory that in the last 10 years the production of the factory has increased 30 per cent and the number of workers employed decreased, a reduction of the weekly hours of labor from 59 to 48, or by 18.6 per cent, would within five or six years have been counterbalanced, even if the efficiency of the workers had not increased. But that the efficiency of the workers is increasing, through attendance of several looms, etc., is a fact that can not be disputed.¹

In the food products industry overtime work prevails to a large extent, and the granting of permits for overtime work is felt to be justified by the perishable character of the material. The more interesting it is for Switzerland to see that overtime can be abolished and that the eight-hour day is practicable in this industry. Proof of this has been furnished by Mr. Mark Beaufoy, radical member of Parliament, who in June, 1889, introduced this reform in his vinegar and jam factory at London and has since kept up the practice of closing his establishment on Saturday afternoon so that the weekly hours of labor totaled only 45.² As to the effects, Karl Kautsky has made the following statement:

In an interview granted to the writer, Mr. Beaufoy was very enthusiastic concerning the results of the curtailment of the hours of labor in his factory from 9¼ to 8 hours. He said the employees work more willingly, more intensively, without rest periods, and with the greatest punctuality. As to the output, Mr. Beaufoy could not furnish accurate data, the eight-hour day having been introduced only since July of the preceding year, but he was fully convinced that it had increased considerably. In addition a number of overhead costs, such as lighting, heating, etc., had greatly decreased, so that the result of the experiment does not merely signify an improvement in working conditions but also increased profits. And all that was achieved without the least increase of the capital invested in the undertaking. Mr. Beaufoy also informed me that other manufacturing establishments, among them a printing establishment and a chemical factory, had made like experiments with like results. In his opinion the general introduction in England of the eight-hour day is practicable already even without the least danger to industry.³

One of the most important food export industries in France, Germany, and Austria is the sugar industry. We requested one of the most prominent sugar manufacturers to inform us what are

¹ Ample proofs for this assertion may be found in Schulze-Gävernitz, G. von: *Der Grossbetrieb*, 1892; Bernhard, Ernst: *Höhere Arbeitsintensität bei kürzerer Arbeitszeit*, 1909. The introduction of the automatically stopping loom does not alter this fact; it has been estimated that during the one-hour noon rest 50 per cent of the Northrop looms are automatically standing still.

² Webb, Sidney, and Cox, Harold, "The Eight Hours Day," London [1891], p. 26.

³ Kautzky, Karl, *Der Arbeiterschutz, besonders die internationale Arbeiterschutzgesetzgebung und der Achtstundentag*. Second edition. Nurnberg, 1890.

the prospects in Moravia for the introduction of the eight-hour shift. His reply, dated November 27, 1918, is as follows:

The prospective introduction of the eight-hour day will probably have beneficial effects, particularly in the beginning, because more workers will find employment.

I was always in favor of the eight-hour day and am convinced that it will have a beneficial effect upon the worker and that the initial loss in output and increased cost of production will disappear within a short time. The number of workers required for the three-shift system will soon not be larger than that now required for two shifts and in many instances the workers will produce in eight hours as much as now in 10½ hours.

Since the outbreak of the war wages have doubled here, but the output of the workers has decreased considerably. At present we have here a large oversupply of labor, but in spite of this fact nobody thinks of reducing wages, another proof that wages are not governed by the law of supply and demand but rather by the minimum necessary for existence.

I want to assert that all the sacrifices which the workers have made for the social-democratic idea will be repaid through the introduction of the eight-hour day. The eight-hour day will enable them to lead an existence worthy of human beings.

The eight-hour day has also made headway in a luxury industry of the first rank—the diamond industry. The main seat of this industry is Amsterdam; factories are located also in London, Geneva, St. Cloud, and Hanan. Since 1890 the workers of this industry have had an international organization. They have an international secretariat at Amsterdam, and in 1905, in Paris, combined into a world federation of diamond workers. At their congress at Amsterdam in June, 1910, they adopted a resolution to change from the nine-hour to the eight-hour day, beginning January 1, 1912. This success, the greatest ever achieved by an international secretariat, was realized on the date named.

In commercial establishments in Switzerland the office employees have recently secured a half-holiday on Saturdays and in large cities the eight-hour day.

In the field of transportation, particularly in that of railroads, there still exists great diversity in all Europe in the gross and net hours of labor. In this field Switzerland took the initiative in 1890 by limiting the daily hours of labor to 12 and by granting a minimum of from 8 to 10 hours off duty. Since then the tasks of railroad employees have greatly increased and the endeavors to secure an eight-hour day for the entire working staff have not come to a standstill.

Such endeavors, for the first time, met with success in the United States. In 1916, in view of a threatened nation-wide strike and of a refusal to arbitrate, President Wilson called the representatives of the workers and of the railroads to Washington and in person submitted to the Senate the results of the conference, proposing at the same time the enactment of an eight-hour law. This law, the

Adamson Act, was passed on September 5, 1916, and has been in force since January 1, 1917.¹

The total number of establishments operated on the eight-hour-day system and the number of workers employed in them are known for only a few countries. The census of manufactures of the United States (1913) gives the number of workers working eight hours per day as 625,652, or 7.9 per cent of all wage-earners in manufacturing. Of the quarter million printers employed in printing and newspaper establishments 53.7 per cent had secured the eight-hour day.² Of the countries which are neighbors of Switzerland, data are available for Austria,³ where in 1907, 8.8 per cent of the factory workers worked nine hours or less (20 per cent in Vienna, 15.9 per cent in Prague, and 59.2 per cent in Trieste) and for Upper Italy,⁴ where the factory inspection service reported that in 1909 in the inspection district of Milan 7.95 per cent of the workers worked from 9 to 9½ hours per day, and in that of Brescia 4.3 per cent.

In Switzerland in 1911 only 6.2 per cent of all factory workers had a working week of less than 54 hours.⁵ The eight-hour day has been introduced in the ore mines of Delsberg, and anyone who sees how these miners strike at the hard rock with the utmost exertion of their strength must know that in their case even eight hours of work is exhausting and injurious to health. As in Germany, municipal gas and water works in Basel adopted the eight-hour shift on January 1, 1910. As already mentioned, the most important industry with eight-hour operation in Switzerland is the chemical industry. Beginning with 1919, the shoe factory Bally at Schönenwerd, the largest on the continent, employing about 5,000 workers, will introduce the 48-hour week. In this factory the weekly hours of labor have been 55½. A thorough study of the results of these experiments seems very desirable; their importance rests upon the assuring of the permanency of shorter hours of labor. The experiment itself must not take place under the influence of political high tension. It must appeal to the conscience of the worker to secure through the greater efficiency of himself and others the republic of the workman founded on prosperity.

The experiments with the eight-hour day, of which a very incomplete selection has been presented here, and which will be supple-

¹ Robbins, E. C. "The Trainmen's Eight-Hour Day," in *Political Science Quarterly*, New York, September, 1917, p. 142; and *Bulletin des Internationales Arbeitsamtes*, 1916, Vol. XV, p. 51.

² U. S. Department of Commerce, Thirteenth Census, Vol. VIII, *Manufactures*, General Report. Washington, 1913, p. 316.

³ K. K. *Arbeitsstatistisches Amt. Die Arbeitszeit der Fabriksarbeiter Oesterreichs*. Vienna, 1907.

⁴ *Ufficio del Lavoro. Rapporti sulla ispezione del lavoro*. Rome, 1909. Table No. 73.

⁵ *Schweizerische Fabrikstatistik*. Bern, 1912, p. 263.

mented by an international investigation, permit the following conclusions:

1. A gradual transition from the nine-hour to the eight-hour day is essential for the success of the experiment.

2. The success of the experiment manifests itself, after a period of adaptation lasting about three months, in an equal or larger output during eight hours than formerly during nine hours by the same groups of workmen.

3. In mechanical establishments this success will be promoted through greater speed of the machines and through innovations in technique and organization.

4. Equal production by the same working force will result neither in a rise of prices nor in greater employment of the unemployed.

5. The advantages of the eight-hour day will specially benefit the juvenile workers whose instruction in continuation schools after 10 or 9 hours of industrial labor becomes worthless. For this reason Bulgaria and 18 States of the American Union prescribe a legal maximum working day of 8 hours for workers under 16 years of age and the United States of Mexico prescribes one of 6 hours. The eight-hour day will make it possible for women in industry to take care of their children and to contribute to the lowering of infant mortality. The rate per 1,000 births is 72 in Australia, 123 in Switzerland, 137 in Italy, and 150 in Japan. It will also lead to better care of the household and to greater interest in the securing of suffrage. To adult men the eight-hour day means greater opportunity for physical development and attention to gardening as well as mental culture, fulfilment of their civic duties and extension of their knowledge of politics.¹

¹ It is to be regretted that no special investigations exist, at least not to our knowledge, as to the working hours of great intellectuals. Of Alexander von Humboldt it is known that he could work 18 hours; in the case of Mommsen, however, such overwork and lack of sleep led periodically to a slackening of creative power (L. M. Hartmann, Theodor Mommsen, Gotha, 1908, p. 147). Goethe forced the resisting body to follow the mind, but he admits that in poetry certain things can not be forced and that one must wait for happy hours to achieve what can not be done through will power (Eckermanns Gespräche mit Goethe, Mar. 21, 1830). Balzac wrote about 100 works in 25 years and died at fifty. Generally he worked nights and frequently in daytime and nights, as a rule 7 to 8 hours; "an enormous figure, if one considers what a real hour of literary work means" (Emile Faguet, Balzac, 1912, p. 27). Great mathematicians seem to be subject to special moods with respect to the overcoming of unwillingness for work. Of Henri Poincaré it is reported that he worked two hours in the forenoon and two hours before supper and slept from 10 p. m. to 7 a. m. (Dr. Toulouse, Henri Poincaré, Paris, 1910, pp. 40, 144). He allowed his mind complete rest. When not in working mood he quit working, in contrast to Zola who overcame this resistance by will power. "If intellectual work can not be measured by calories and may be kept up longer than physical labor, it nevertheless is an established fact that from the point of view of fatigue there exists only a difference in degree between the two kinds of work, so that mental fatigue which more or less accompanies every industrial work, must also be taken into consideration" (Jules Amar, *Le Moteur Humain*, Paris, 1914, p. 590).

III. Social Revolutions and International Solutions.

The storm signal of the social revolution of our times was given by Russia in 1905. The attempted revolution failed at that time, but the leaders and parties of the revolution of 1905 are in part those of to-day; the idea of workmen's councils originated in those days and the eight-hour day was proclaimed in St. Petersburg at that time. In spite of the defeat by Japan, revolutionary ideas could not yet gain any foothold in the army; the revolution collapsed and with it the eight-hour day.¹

The next act of the revolution was played in Mexico: The flight of the military autocrat Porfirio Diaz from the social revolutionist Madero initiated the civil war. Not only had the old régime permitted the working-off by peons of wages advanced, but in addition it had undertaken the forceful deportation of agricultural workers, which had been justly criticized in the United States. In the summer of 1912 the Diaz Government replied through memoranda in which American criticism was refuted and Mexico's own workers described as inefficient individuals who could be managed only by coercive measures. However, a government which indulges in constant polemics and insults and is not creatively active bears the mark of death on its front. After misery beyond description, Mexico in 1917 adopted a constitution which introduced the eight-hour day in all its Federal States. As to the circumstances under which this was done and as to its results nothing can so far be learned. If, however, the Mexico of to-day has become a social and radical State it is in a great measure due to the wise noninterference of the United States in the internal disturbances of their neighbor. The jingoism of the stock jobber party was also effectively opposed by the inviolable peace policy of the American and Mexican labor organizations. Uruguay, in 1917, followed the example set by Mexico. The reaction of the revolution in that country, the transition to the eight-hour day, seems to have taken place as peacefully as in Australia and in six American States which possess the eight-hour day for women—Arizona, California, Colorado, Montana, Nevada, and Washington—and the District of Columbia.

A revolutionary consecration was again placed upon the eight-hour day by the Russian revolution which in Finland in 1917 and in Russia in 1918 proclaimed the legal eight-hour day at the time of the collapse of a corrupt government and of the helplessness and dispiritedness of the masses.

The introduction of the eight-hour day in Russia fell in a period of very serious disorganization of the food supply and of daily civil

¹ See Stephan Bauer, *Arbeiterschutz und Völkergemeinschaft*. Zurich, 1918, p. 83, footnote 9.

war. It is clear that such is not the atmosphere in which intensive labor thrives. It is not to be wondered at that after political dissension, fighting in the streets, hunger, the usual consequences of long wars appear, and men become unaccustomed to labor and dislike work. The Soviet Government did not in the least disavow this fact; it stated that the situation was hopeless unless the productivity of labor were increased through greater discipline of labor. As to the ways and means of achieving such an increase N. Lenin has expressed himself in his work, "The Next Tasks of the Soviet Power" (pp. 34 to 36), in the following remarkable manner:

The most discerning vanguard of the Russian proletariat has already set itself the task of raising the discipline of labor. The central committee of the Metal Workers' Federation and the Central Soviet of the Trade-Unions, for instance, have begun the preparation of corresponding measures and the drafting of bills. This work must be supported and hastened with might and main. The following measures must be made the order of the day, and be practically applied and experimented with: Piece-work wages, the application of all that is scientific and progressive in the Taylor system, the adjustment of earnings according to the net profits arising from production or from services as in the case of transportation by rail, waterways, etc.

The Russian is a poor workman as compared with more advanced nations. Under the régime of Czarism and while remnants of serfdom were still in existence this could not be different. To learn to work—this task the Soviet Power must make the people grasp in its full extent. The last word of capitalism in this respect, the Taylor system, combines in itself—like all capitalistic progress—a refined cruelty of capitalistic exploitation together with a number of the richest scientific achievements in the field of analysis of mechanical movements of the worker, the doing away with superfluous and awkward movements, the working out of correct working methods, the introduction of better systems of cost accounting and control, etc. The Soviet Republic must at any cost take over all that is valuable of the achievements of science and technique in this field. The realization of socialism will depend upon our success in the combining of soviet power and soviet organization in administration with the latest improvements of capitalism. The study of the Taylor system, and instruction therein, its systematic examination and application, must be exploited in Russia. While trying to increase the output of labor one must take into consideration the peculiarities of the period of transition from capitalism to socialism, which require on the one hand that the basis of socialistic organization for productive competition be created, but which on the other hand require the use of compulsion, and this in such a manner that the liberation under the dictatorship of the proletariat does not become sullied through the internal decay of the proletarian power.

At the same time, March, 1918, at which Lenin preached this gospel of work drill, Irving Fisher, an American economist and scholar, expressed his doubts as to the beauties of the piecework and Taylor systems. He said that it is not merely the instinct of self-preservation which forces the laboring man to work; he is driven by a number of other instincts, those of workmanship, self-respect, the home-making instinct, the instinct of solidarity, the belief in a future. A scheme like the Taylor system, which plays only upon the material instincts and, figuratively speaking, is trying to hold out a bale of hay for the donkey and, as he approaches it, making

him walk the faster to reach it, rouses the instinctive dislike of the worker.

Irving Fisher contrasts these experiments with those of Robert B. Wolf, a wood-pulp manufacturer, who, after failure with the Taylor system, appealed to the instinct of workmanship of his workmen. He gave to his men charts of their individual output and of the total output of their department. On the charts furnished them were recorded daily by a series of curves the work performed by them.¹ Within a period of eight years, in which the equipment of the plant remained the same, the output was doubled; wages were increased 40 per cent; there were no strikes; all the workers are organized. It is the development of these spiritual instincts which may now be observed in America, the promotion of knights of labor instead of beasts of burden, the perception that the building up of a new society on the helotry of an old one is unthinkable.

The Russian revolution of October, 1917, was followed in November, 1918, by the German and Austrian revolution. The provisional Governments of these two countries decreed on November 19 and December 28, respectively, that beginning with January 1, 1919, the eight-hour day should be introduced in all industrial establishments.

Switzerland has experienced a considerable increase of its national wealth during the war. War profits and savings of the farming population on the one hand are offset by undernutrition of the urban workers and underpayment of salaried employees on the other. This class conflict has been the culture medium for the general strike. There exists a Bolshevism of the parvenus, the junk and munition barons, which has a more inflammatory effect than all the brochures of Lenin and Trotzki. It is in the nature of democracy that it will generate in its robust veins an antidote against the ravages of these pests. This antidote, this rejuvenating elixir, is social reform.

If Switzerland intends to introduce the eight-hour day it will have in its favor the facts that its building trades have almost secured the nine-hour day through collective agreements, that in its machinery industry the nine-hour day is in force, and that its chemical industry, power works, and office employees have secured the eight-hour day. The only opposition comes from the textile industry. This industry is essentially dependent upon export trade and repeatedly has complained about German, Italian, and American competition.

¹ "Health and War," in *The American Labor Legislation Review*, Vol. VIII, No. 1, New York, March, 1918, p. 15. See also Jules Amar, "Organization physiologique du travail," Paris, 1917, pp. 10 to 12. At the time of Taylor's death (1915) of 107 establishments in America employing 43,000 workers which had introduced the Taylor system, 58 reported complete success, 15 partial success, and 34 failure. Only in one instance was failure due to opposition of the workers; all other cases of failure must be ascribed to faulty management, "experts," or financial causes. C. Bertrand Thompson, "Scientific Management in Practice," in *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, February, 1915, pp. 262-307.

If Germany and America adopt the eight-hour system will Switzerland be able to keep its skilled workers from emigrating? When its competitors make technical improvements will it not have to introduce more intensive operation and consequently shorter hours?

That "international competition" should for Switzerland be the decisive argument for introducing the eight-hour day by international agreement only can not be seriously asserted. What international competition could that be? Surely not that of Switzerland's neighboring countries, which after the World War will have their hands full in restoring their industries to a peace basis. One must, therefore, look to America and Japan in order to find such competition. In America the hours of labor are already shorter than in Switzerland and after the war the burdens of insurance and taxation will surely not be lighter than those of Switzerland. There remains only Japan. But experts of all countries who have investigated at first hand the industries of Japan are unanimous as to the low efficiency of Japanese industry. "Japanese spinning mills are hardly one-half as efficient as European mills." The Japanese, writes the "Economist" in 1911, are wholly incapable of handling textile machinery. Japanese machinists are described by engineers of their own country as mere coolies, the lowest kind of day laborers who work for a bare living. In the manufacture of silk goods mixed with cotton, France and the United States overtook Japan as long ago as 1906.¹ Undernutrition and fatigue have caused this indifference of the Japanese worker to greater efficiency. It would, therefore, show gross ignorance of facts to close the road to social reforms by further reference to that deplorable phrase, "the yellow peril."

Danger to national industry from foreign competition does not seem important as an argument that the eight-hour day should be introduced through international regulation only. Introduction by international action has, however, certain advantages over extraordinary national procedure which should not be underestimated. An international treaty, unlike a law, can not be provided with loopholes in the shape of technically unjustified exceptions and special privileges. The national honor becomes more involved through the charge of having broken a treaty than through violations of the law by a fellow citizen. For this reason the enforcement of a protective labor treaty encounters less resistance from local interests, crowned and uncrowned industrial magnates, than a law. The international treaty increases the national State power and strengthens the feeling of the masses that they are defending a common human right. Participation in this supernational posses-

¹ Heber, E. A. *Japanische Industriearbeit*, Jena, 1912, pp. 163 to 170, and K. Kuwata (Tokyo), *Die Arbeiterbewegung in Japan*, in Grünberg's *Archiv für die Geschichte des Sozialismus und der Arbeiterbewegung*, 1915, p. 89.

sion teaches them to stand above village and sectional interests. In widening the intellectual horizons and the social interests it also strengthens those community instincts without the culture of which national life withers away.

For all these reasons the introduction of the eight-hour day may already be proposed at the peace conference. Dante calls world peace the greatest of all possessions required for the happiness of humanity. The masses must not be kept from creative participation in the fruits of this peace. The author has no mandate to express himself here as to the form in which the international eight-hour bill should be submitted. Personally he believes that immediate transition to the 54-hour week, as it exists in Norway, and within two years to that of 48 hours as in Australia, with a limited number of overtime hours, and after a few years with overtime permitted in exceptional cases only, would be a practical solution of the problem.

Thus great progress will have been made in social history, the greatest since 1848. Not as a mute witness but as an active helper a new generation must face the great problems of organization, regulation of income, guidance of young persons and of education. The securing of eight hours devoted to cultivation of the mind and to recreation, the creation of the equal right of all peoples to internal and external progress, is the safest pledge of common resistance against a repetition of the crime of 1914. Neither faint-heartedness nor hesitation can lead to the removal of the unspeakable pressure of race-hatred which as a sad heritage of this criminal war burdens the souls of men. In a year (1901) of the profoundest peace Ernst Abbe said of those who opposed the curtailment of the hours of labor: "If maintenance of this point of view on the part of our bourgeois classes has hitherto been due to lack of common sense and to folly, any further adherence to this point of view must be classed as criminal."¹

That which the great scientist and democratic employer had foreseen had happened in Russia and Germany: The collapse in war and revolution of the master-in-my-house doctrine and of the system resting upon the greed of industrial barons. In the greatest conceivable contrast to this attitude stands the declaration made in August, 1916, by the President of the United States to the railroad workers: "The eight-hour day now undoubtedly has the sanction of the judgment of society in its favor and should be adopted as a basis for wages even where the actual work to be done can not be completed within eight hours." To the protest by the president of the National Manufacturers Association he replied "that the whole

¹ Abbe, E., *Sozialpolitische Schriften*, Jena, 1906, p. 245.

economic development seems to point to the eight-hour day." Through his general insight and firmness he saved the country in August, 1916, and in March, 1917, from general strikes and brought it about that 400,000 railroad employees secured the [basic] eight-hour day without recourse to a strike.

This is the state of affairs at the present hour—and now the old democracies have the word. They will have to take to heart the words of the French factory inspector:¹ "We have wished for an era of justice; let us beware of an era of exhaustion."

¹Hamp, Pierre. *La victoire de la France sur les Français*, 1916, p. 71.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS.

Social Reconstruction Program of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America.

THE Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, representing 30 Protestant denominations in the United States, issued in July, 1919, a very comprehensive pronouncement on the relation of the church to the problems of social reconstruction, touching specifically upon many subjects of vital and intimate concern to workingmen, including unemployment, vocational training, higher wages, women in industry, housing, Americanization, etc. The text of this statement is as follows:

I. Introduction.

The church finds itself this May of 1919 in the midst of profound unrest and suffering. The entire social fabric of some of the most advanced nations is in chaos and their people menaced by starvation, while other powerful nations, of which the United States is one, have experienced loss of life, material, and capital in the great war, and serious industrial disorganization and unemployment. It is, moreover, a world suffering from overstrain and agitated by conflicting programs of reorganization.

In the midst of the confusion, stout-hearted men and women are working with abundant courage to avert famine, to put the internal affairs of the nations in order again, and to reconstruct international relations on a basis which shall tend to assure cooperation, disarmament, and permanent peace. Surely this hour, which puts supreme obligations upon every social institution, is one which calls to the church to give its utmost, both of the ministries of personal religion and of unselfish public and social service.

Fortunately the church itself has undergone, within the last decade and especially during the war, an enlargement of scope which amounts to a transformation. The churches to-day recognize, as they did not a generation ago, that the Kingdom of God is as comprehensive as human life with all of its interests and needs, and that they share in a common responsibility for a Christian world order. They are convinced that the world is the subject of redemption; that the ethical principles of the Gospels are to be applied to industry and to the relations of nations; that the church is to devote itself henceforth assiduously to these purposes along with the individual ministries of religion.

In taking this position the church realizes that it is on historic ground. It recalls the words of Isaiah: "Is not this the fast that I have chosen; to loose the bonds of wickedness, to undo the bands of the yoke, and let the oppressed go free, and that ye break every yoke? Is it not to deal thy bread to the hungry, and that thou bring the poor that are cast out to thy house?" It knows that the second of the two Commandments, which our Savior interpreted by the parables of the Good Samaritan, the Lost Sheep, the Sheep and the Goats, and by His own ardent social ministry, leads straight

into the struggle for social justice and for the larger life of humanity, here in this world. The Lord God has spoken to us, in this our day, and has lifted the vision of the church to this broader horizon of the Kingdom of God.

II. Social Reconstruction.

The Social Creed of the Churches was formulated seven years ago as a statement of the social faith of the Protestant churches of the United States. Although necessarily general in its terms, it has been understood, and has had far-reaching influence, especially in crystallizing the thought of Christian people. It has stood the test of these years, and we now reaffirm it as still expressing the ideals and purposes of the churches. But this earlier statement of social faith now requires additional statements to meet the changed world which has come out of the war. The declarations that follow may be considered as corollaries of these long-standing articles of faith. They should read in connection with the statements on reconstruction of the various denominations in the United States and Canada, and the significant monograph of the archbishop's fifth committee of the Church of England.

The Method.

In some respects, the most urgent question before the world at the present time is the method of social reconstruction; shall it be by constitutional and peaceable methods, or by class struggle and violence? Shall we be willing to suddenly overturn the social order according to untried theories of industrial and political organization; or beginning where we are, and conserving what has been achieved in the past, shall we proceed by social experimentation, going as far and as fast as experience demonstrates to be necessary and desirable? In America, where, as in England, the people hold political power and freedom of discussion and association, and can do finally whatever they will, there is every reason for following the second method.

The supreme teachings of Christ are of love and brotherhood. These express themselves, in a democracy, in the cooperation of every citizen for the good of each and all. This results ideally in a noble mutualism and in equal and world-wide justice, which constitute the highest goal of human endeavor. The doctrine of the class-conscious struggle is opposed to this ideal. It is a reversion to earlier forms of competitive struggle. It not only strikes at injustice by greater and more savage injustice, but tends in practice to the breaking up of society, even of radical groups, into bitterly antagonistic factions, thus defeating its own ends. The dictatorship of the proletariat in practice is a new absolutism in the hands of a few men, and is as abhorrent as any other dictatorship. The hope of the world is in the cooperation of individuals and classes and the final elimination of classes in the brotherhood of a Christian society. To build up this cooperation should be the supreme endeavor of the churches.

Tendencies to Violence.

Class consciousness and the use of violence are not confined to revolutionary groups. The possession of wealth and education tend to the formation of classes, and industrial ownership and management to a class-conscious ruling group. We observe also with regret and deep concern numerous resorts to mob action in which returned soldiers and workmen have sometimes participated, frequently without police restraint, the continuing incitement to riot by certain public officials and periodicals, especially the partisan press with its misrepresentation and inflaming spirit, and the unfortunate and dangerous tendency of many State and municipal officials to deny fair hearings to radical offenders, and to use unnecessary and provocative brutality during strikes.

While conspiracy and violence must be restrained by the police and military forces of the State, these should be used to maintain public peace and safety, and with due regard to the established rights of freedom of speech and peaceable assembly. It is

undesirable that private citizens or groups of vigilantes should be allowed to take the law into their own hands. Legislators, judges, and officials should act firmly but justly, without bluster and without unnecessary violence. Workingmen believe that they do not get an equal chance before the law, and it is highly important that whatever real basis there is for this conviction should be removed.

A deep cause of unrest in industry is the denial to labor of a share in industrial management. Controversies over wages and hours never go to the root of the industrial problem. Democracy must be applied to the government of industry as well as to the government of the nation, and as rapidly and as far as the workers shall become able and willing to accept such responsibility. Laborers must be recognized as being entitled to as much consideration as employers and their rights must be equally safeguarded. This may be accomplished by assuring the workers, as rapidly as it can be done with due consideration to conditions, a fair share in control, especially where they are directly involved; by opportunity for ownership, with corresponding representation; or by a combination of ownership and control in cooperative production.

Trade agreements between employers and labor organizations can make provision for joint settlement of grievances, for joint responsibility, for guarantees against aggression by the employer or the men, and willful limitation of output, for a shop discipline that shall be educative and shall make for efficiency by promoting good will. The various movements toward industrial councils and shop committees have not only an economic but a spiritual significance, in that they are or may be expressions of brotherhood, and recognize the right of the worker to full development of personality.

Rights and Obligations.

One high value which comes with the participation of labor in management is that it makes possible again the hearty cooperation of all engaged in an industry and a new era of good will. Therefore, along with the rights involved in social justice go corresponding obligations. With the development of industrial democracy, the evidences of which are all about us, and the coming of the short work day, the importance of a genuine cooperation in industrial processes and efficient production must be impressed upon large numbers of workers. As the worker tends to receive approximately what he produces, it must become apparent that what he has for himself and family, and the social surplus upon which depend the great common undertakings of society, are directly related to the productivity of his own labor, as well as finally to the length of the working day.

Industry as Service.

The Christian and modern conception of industry makes it a public service. The parties of interest are not only labor and capital, but also the community, whose interest transcends that of either labor or capital. The State, as the governmental agency of the community, with the cooperation of all involved, should attempt to secure to the worker an income sufficient to maintain his family at a standard of living which the community can approve. This living wage should be made the first charge upon industry before dividends are considered. As to excess profits: After a just wage, and fair salaries, interest upon capital and sinking funds have been provided, we commend the spirit and the conclusions of the twenty British Quaker employers in awarding the larger part of excess profits to the community, to be devoted voluntarily to public uses, or returned by taxation.

High Wages.

The hoped-for reduction in the cost of living has not yet materialized, and it is now evident that we are on a permanently higher price level. The resistance of labor to general wage reductions, even when accompanied by reduced hours of work, should

therefore receive moral support from the community, except where the demand is clearly unreasonable. Wage levels must be high enough to maintain a standard of living worthy of responsible free citizenship in a democracy. As was pointed out in the statement on social reconstruction by the National Catholic War Council,¹ a considerable majority of the wage earners of the United States were not receiving living wages when prices began to rise in 1915. Real wages are also relative to the cost of living and vary with the purchasing power of the dollar. Actual wages, that is, wages reckoned in power to purchase commodities, have been decreasing for several years in spite of wage increases. There is urgent need of provision by industry, under the guidance of the Government, for some regular method of adjustment of wages and salaries to the purchasing power of money.

High wages are desirable as a general principle, since they mean, or should mean, a fairer share of the industrial product, greater purchasing power, and consequently, stimulated trade and greater happiness, health and hopefulness for the workers and their families. It should be kept in mind that under machine production, with a proper method of distribution, all might work and all might share in comparative plenty. Employers who plead a falling market, aggravated competition, increased hazard, or exceptional conditions in justification of low wages or wage reductions, should support their contentions by opening their books and submitting their figures to public scrutiny.

Unemployment.

Unemployment is one of the tragedies of the present industrial order, which the war has demonstrated can be controlled, or at least effectively reduced, by the Government and cooperating voluntary agencies. Any adequate attempt to meet the problem of unemployment should include:

(a) Rehabilitation and permanent maintenance of a coordinated nation-wide employment service.

(b) Reorganization of seasonal trades, wherever practicable, so as to make continuous employment possible.

(c) A policy of public works and land settlement framed with particular reference to the absorption of unemployed labor.

(d) A guarded extension of provisions and opportunities for social insurance to cover unemployment due to industrial conditions, or to ill health, accident or old age. To offer work is much more valuable than unemployment insurance.

(e) The rehabilitation of industrial cripples under the direction of the State and at the expense of industry. The possibilities of such rehabilitation have been demonstrated in relation to the cripples of war.

Vocational Training.

The provision made by the Federal Government for the vocational training of large numbers of soldiers and sailors, including all participants in the war who suffered any considerable disability, should be the beginning of a general policy of vocational training, not merely in the interest of industrial efficiency, or primarily for private profit, but as part of a sound educational policy. It should include the human relations and social responsibilities of industry, and the general principles of industrial democracy. Secondary higher and professional education should be made more generally available to those who can not meet their high cost, so that the best training shall be placed effectively within the reach of the aspiring youth of the humblest household.

¹ This statement was published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for June, 1919, pp. 44-52.

Paying for the War.

The American war debt, while not comparable with that of European belligerents, will yet be very large. Powerful influences are organized to shift the burdens of this debt upon the public, while the public itself is unorganized and practically unable to protect itself. A beginning has been made in direct taxes, some of which have been levied upon the minor luxuries of the people, and a revolt has already taken place against this policy throughout the country. These taxes are now likely to be charged up to producers, and they in turn will recoup themselves by indirect charges, the fairness of which the public will not be in a position to estimate.

Perhaps no greater or more perplexing problem of fair distribution of wealth has ever been faced in this country. It is very necessary that a policy in the matter shall be carefully worked out in the interest of public welfare, to maintain, and, if possible, to advance the general standard of living; and that it shall not be settled by a selfish struggle of interests. While the cost of the war should fall in a fair measure upon all, resolute use should be made of the now accepted graduated income and inheritance taxes, as a just method for placing the heavier burdens of the debt upon those most able to bear them, and lifting them correspondingly from the shoulders of those least able to carry them.

Freedom of Discussion.

The inevitable special restrictions, during the war, upon speech, assembly, and the press, should be removed with the signing of the peace covenant. While immunity can never be granted to one who speaks or acts knowingly against the public safety, censorship is essentially abhorrent in a democracy, and can be tolerated only in a compelling emergency. To those imprisoned for conscientious reasons, whose offenses were prompted by motives that were beyond a reasonable doubt honest and disinterested, general amnesty should be granted as soon as peace is established. The continued imprisonment of such persons can result only in a sense of injury that makes for discontent, and in depriving the communities to which they belong of that service which, the war being over, they may safely be counted upon to render.

Democratic Rights of Women.

The importance of the democratic rights of women is not as yet comprehended by public opinion. Their freedom, their right to political and economic equality with men, are fundamental to democracy and to the safety of the future. The church stands also for adequate safeguards to industrial women, for a living wage, the eight-hour day as a maximum requirement, prohibition of night work, equal pay for equal work, and other standard requirements of industry in which women are engaged.

The necessity for protective legislation, such as the limiting of hours and the prohibition of night work, is shown by the survey of women's labor in one of the States, submitted to the governor by the Director of the Women in Industry Service of the Federal Department of Labor, which reveals that out of 112 large plants studied only 10 per cent have an eight-hour day, and one-third of the employers of plants worked women as long as 65, 73, 75, 84 and 88 hours and 40 minutes a week. Five States have as yet no legislation governing the working hours of women.

While taking these positions, the church believes that home making and motherhood will always be the great profession of womankind; and to this end, the church should use its great influence to secure for woman in the home economic independence, the control of her own person, and a professional standing in her work equal to that of men in any service which they render.

Justice to the Negro.

The splendid service of the colored soldiers in the war, and the unanimous loyalty and devotion of the colored people of the Nation, reinforce the justness of the demand that they should be recognized fully as Americans and fellow citizens, that they should be given equal economic and professional opportunities, with increasing participation in all community affairs, and that a spirit of friendship and cooperation should obtain between the white and colored people, North and South. The colored people should have parks and playgrounds, equal wages for equal work, adequate and efficient schools, and equal facilities and courtesy when traveling, adequate housing, lighting and sanitation, police protection, and equality before the law. Especially should the barbarism of lynching be condemned by public opinion and abolished by rigorous measures and penalties.

Housing.

The housing situation in the cities and industrial communities of the Nation has become serious because of the cessation of building during the war, and is resulting in overcrowding and marked increase of rents. The war-time housing projects of the Government, where they are well located and clearly needed, should be completed. Above all, the housing standards set by the Government during the war should never be lowered. In the emergency we urge persons who have free capital to invest in homes for the workers, first, however, studying the problem of housing in its modern aspects. It is especially necessary to watch effort in the various State legislatures to break down protective legislation.

The ideal of housing is to provide every family with a good home, where possible an individual house, at reasonable rates, with standard requirements of light, heat, water, and sanitation; and to encourage home owning by securing a living wage, permanence of employment, cheap transit to and from work, and by ending the speculative holding of lands in and around cities and towns.

Menacing Social Facts.

The war has brought to the knowledge and attention of the Nation certain menacing social facts. We have learned that one-tenth of our people are unnaturalized aliens; that on an average, 25 per cent of the men of the training camps were not able to read a newspaper or to write a letter home; that one-third of the men of the selective draft were physically unfit; that there are approximately 2,000,000 mental defectives in the United States; that there is an alarming prevalence of venereal infections.

Nation-wide movements are now in formation, under the leadership of departments of the Government, but including the cooperation of the entire social organization of the country, to meet these problems, concentrating especially at this time upon the Americanization of immigrants, and upon sex morality and the control of venereal diseases. All of these movements appeal strongly to the churches and will receive their energetic cooperation.

Americanization.

The church is in a position to render great service in Americanization because of its extensive missions to immigrants and because thousands of our churches in crowded areas now reach the foreign born. The contribution of the churches has especial value, since in addition to instruction in English, they are able to interpret the religious and moral ideals of America, and since they work in an atmosphere of brotherliness, with an appreciation of what these peoples are bringing from the old world to enrich American life. The church is also deeply concerned that the living conditions of these people shall, as soon as possible, approximate our American standards. If they are underpaid, or poorly housed or otherwise neglected or exploited, we shall not only fail in their Americanization but they will drag down the standards of American labor.

It should be recognized also that an effective shop management, in which labor is given its proper responsibility, is difficult to organize when the men do not understand each other's speech, and represent divergent national labor experiences. Americanization is therefore necessary to the development of industrial democracy.

A New Social Morality.

The church has also certain manifest functions and duties in the cooperative effort which is being organized by the Public Health Service for sex morality and the control of venereal diseases. Its most important function is the instruction of children and young people in the spiritual ideals of love and the relations of the sexes; the training of young men to be good husbands and fathers as well as of young women to be good wives and mothers; personal watchfulness by pastors, teachers, and leaders of clubs over young people, especially over those who manifest tendencies to indiscretion; educational assistance to parents in the training of their children.

State legislation requiring certificates of freedom from venereal infection before marriage is in an experimental stage. Such laws require careful formulation and a thorough education of public opinion. They should be made a part of regulations aiming to prevent the marriage of persons unfitted to become the parents of children because of these or other infections, or because of other physical or mental disqualifications. In the absence of such laws, or of their effective enforcement, parents should look carefully into these matters before the marriage of their children.

The churches should cooperate in community efforts to abolish segregated vice districts, to make humane provision for prostitutes, and for clinical treatment of infected persons. While favorable to the establishment of clinics for the treatment of infected persons, the church cannot advocate prophylaxis. Treatment to prevent infection is likely to result finally in an increase of social immorality, and, as has been demonstrated by the experience of segregation, in an increase of venereal diseases. The church must use its utmost educational influence to strengthen self-control and to preserve the religious sanctions of marriage and the integrity of the home.

Repressive and curative measures are inadequate without also a simultaneous attempt to secure a freer scope for normal sex expression through all grades of association between men and women, from comradeship to marriage. To this end it is important to provide abundant wholesome opportunities for the association of the sexes, possibility for earlier marriages through economic freedom, and the encouragement of love and unselfish devotion of men and women to each other in the home. The church, which brings both sexes and all ages into normal relations, is admirably fitted to provide for this wholesome association of the sexes, and to do so should become an object of definite endeavor.

Substitutes for the Saloon.

Prohibition has now become a part of our basic law. That it should fail of enforcement through apathy, or in consequence of the influence of special interests, is inconceivable in a democratic country. Whatever vigilance is necessary to make the law effective will surely not be lacking.

The passing of the saloon, which with all its pernicious influences, was yet a social center to a multitude of men, creates a new obligation to replace it with wholesome equivalents. Community centers, the church as a social center, fraternal orders and private clubs, public recreation, education in the use of leisure time,—all these should be developed rapidly and with great power and attractiveness. Especially should our churches be opened seven days in the week, with helpful religious, educational and social activities. But let us remember that the best equivalent is the home, and that whatever makes homes possible and renders them beautiful surpasses every other method.

III. The Church in the Social Movement.

When the church enters upon the actual tasks of social reconstruction, it undertakes problems that are highly technical, often controversial, and difficult for an organization which is composed of men of all parties and movements. But a hesitant policy will get nowhere in the present crisis, nor will general statements or casual service avail. The ordinary preacher can not be an economist or sociologist, nor is he, as a rule, familiar with industrial management. But the moral issues of reconstruction are confused and difficult, and it is concerning these that the minister may be presumed to have technical knowledge. The church which does not show the way here is derelict to its duty.

The Church's Distinctive Program.

The right policy for the church is therefore to study social problems from the point of view of the spirit and teachings of Christ, and, acting loyally and unselfishly upon these teachings, to exert its vast educational influence and use its institutional organization for human happiness, social justice, and the democratic organization of society. This looks toward a positive program, which may here coincide with social movements and tendencies, there oppose them, but in which the church knows its own mind and has the power of united action. Within this cooperation liberal and even radical positions may be held with propriety by leaders and minority groups in the church, for the broadest liberty and fellowship are desirable. It is only necessary that all should remember that they represent a wide and generally conservative membership, which must be led, not driven, and which responds to wise, patient and educative leadership.

A New Social Force.

It is important also at this time, that the churches, and especially ministers, should be conscious of the fact that they are part of a corporate entity and that the public should realize that there is available in the churches, in a sense, a great new social force. This is evidenced by the fact that there are in the United States 135,000 ministers, priests and rabbis in charge of congregations, who minister to 42,000,000 actual communicants. In the Protestant churches there are 115,000 ministers in charge of congregations, 25,000,000 communicants, an influential religious press, a great system of educational institutions, and large numbers of social agencies, such as hospitals and child-caring foundations.

The value of the church for national causes is one of the outstanding discoveries of the war, and its assistance is now being sought by every great movement. The church should respond with all its power, especially through pastors and the church press, bringing into action all its educational facilities, and taking its place in the community organization to which all such movements finally come for their main effort.

The church is both an educational force and an institution organized for neighborhood and community service. Its buildings are important social centers, capable of great enlargement of activities. If directed intelligently and with public spirit, so that it can never be truthfully charged with self-seeking, or the desire to control the State, it may become one of the potent and beneficent factors of a turbulent era. The religious bodies have learned to act together during the war, and it is now possible, to a considerable extent, to use them as a united force for such purposes as are expressed in these statements.

A Ministry of Education.

The period of readjustment requires above all else patient, honest and critical thought. The problems pressing for solution have a spiritual phase which the church should interpret and emphasize. More than ever the training of ministers should

include economics, sociology and politics. The preacher should take seriously his teaching office and be a leader of thought among his people. He should induce the employers of his church to make conscientious study of their problems and duties; and the wage earners, likewise, seeking also to bring the groups together in sympathetic understanding.

A signal service may be done by the church in developing community ideals by means of the forum method of discussion. A service of worship in the morning and a forum service in the evening for the study and emphasis of the social phase of religious experience and obligation, constitute a well balanced Sunday program. Worship and discussion can be combined simply and appropriately. In this way many a church may also redeem its Sunday night service.

Community Relations.

Community relations and responsibility will henceforth bulk large in the work of local churches. A pastor is not only a citizen but the leader of a disciplined force, with, therefore, a double obligation to public service. It is a false idea that the churches are only concerned with religious, educational, and charitable enterprises. They are, or should be, vitally concerned with civic, economic, and other social interests. And what is here said refers not only to churches in towns and cities, but with especial force to rural churches because of the limited social resources of rural communities.

In a comprehensive statement of this kind, it is also necessary to say that local churches can never constitute a powerful social force, until they are effectively federated and intelligently related to the social movement of their community. The next ten years should see the Protestant churches working unitedly in every community, and Catholic, Hebrew, and Protestant churches cooperating in social effort. Here is one field in which theological and historical differences need not figure, in which religion may become a uniting, and not, as too often at present, a divisive force.

We advise church people and pastors to take sympathetic interest in the community center movement in their own community, to assist in its development, to keep it out of the control of the politicians, and under the control of public spirited citizens, and to avoid needless duplication of buildings and effort. It is very important that such centers should be well supervised by trained workers.

The Church and Working People.

One of the important tasks of the next ten years is to bring the church into closer relations with the wage earners of the nation. We have been negligent in this matter and have suffered a rude awakening in needless estrangements. The main features in this task are as follows:

(a) The creation, as rapidly as possible, of many hundreds of powerful, highly socialized and democratically organized churches in working class neighborhoods of cities and industrial centers, and the development of special methods for problems which require distinctive treatment, such as those encountered in logging camps, company towns, and among night workers and submerged populations.

(b) The development by the seminaries and by special training methods of ministers who know how to administer such churches, men who know economics and social problems as well as theology, and who desire to devote their lives to the welfare of the masses.

(c) A powerful effort by the whole church, but concentrating in these churches, and in alliance with the workers themselves, to achieve the great objects for which the workers are struggling, such as living wages, reasonable hours, safe conditions of labor,

equal opportunities and pay for women, participation in management and ownership and abolition of child labor.

(d) Surveys of the working class resident districts of our cities and industrial centers, in order to lay out, with common consent, large noncompeting parishes for these churches, and to secure, as rapidly as possible, the closing out of competing churches and the placing of their financial equities in other noncompeting centers. This will require the cooperation of city missionary societies and federations of churches, and also of home mission boards.

Moral Reconstruction.

The experiences of the war, revealing, as they do, reversion to barbarous practices by highly civilized peoples, the nearness to the surface of savage instincts and deep selfishness in vast numbers of men, the willingness to profiteer on the part of workers as well as employers, the intensity of racial, national, and religious antagonisms—these experiences have demonstrated anew that the progress of humanity is dependent not alone upon social organization, but upon the strength of the moral emotions and the discipline of character. Whether the work that is to be done in reconstruction, beginning with the peace treaty itself, shall yield satisfaction or disappointment, will depend mainly upon the working capital of moral character among the peoples who undertake the tasks.

Now that the war is over the church should return to its historic functions of Christian nurture, evangelism, and religious education, with new sanctions and a sure knowledge that its ministry to the inner life and to the building of character are after all its greatest contribution to social welfare. If the governments of the world have learned the lesson of the war, they will encourage the church in these vital undertakings, and they will themselves turn with renewed energy to the work of education. They will drive hard at that moral discipline which alone can fortify our democratic ideals. Every movement of social reform will be partial and disappointing until a powerful work of education, both general and religious, has been accomplished.

IV. Conclusion.

It must not be forgotten that in social reconstruction we are dealing with matters that vitally affect the welfare and happiness of millions of human beings, and that we have come upon times when people are not submissive to injustice or to unnecessary privation and suffering. They are deeply and justly in earnest. As has been said, we are laying the foundation of a new world. If those who are the actual industrial, political, and social leaders of the Nation will not act upon the principle that the greatest shall be the servant of all, then the people themselves, with indignation and bitterness, are sure to take their destiny and that of the world into their own hands. The social question can not be dealt with casually. People who are born with unusual ability, of whatever kind, or who receive special advantages, are given them for unselfish service. Large holdings of property can be justified only by devotion to the common good. We are entering upon an era in which the absorbing concern of the world will be for social justice and the greatest well-being of the greatest number. This will animate the religious spirit of the future—a spirit which has found its supreme expression and example in Jesus Christ.

Principles of Industrial Relations Adopted by United States Chamber of Commerce.

THE Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America¹ has from time to time considered questions respecting relations between employers and employed, having committed itself to the principle of vocational education in the States, having opposed legislative restrictions on industrial efficiency, and having declared that railroads and their employees should settle their controversies without permitting the public service to be impaired. In 1917 the board of directors authorized the appointment of a committee to consider the whole question of industrial relations and the principles which should prevail, and in February, 1918, this committee presented a report upon the labor policy which the United States should follow during the war. It was later requested to formulate principles which it believed should be applied between employers and employed. This task, however, was subsequently referred to a new committee whose report, made in April, 1919, was submitted in the form of 13 definite principles of industrial relations to the membership of the National Chamber (Referendum No. 27) for approval or disapproval. The committee just referred to consisted of nine members, as follows: Henry P. Kendall, chairman, manufacturer, of Boston; Henry Bruere, of New York City; William Butterworth, manufacturer, of Moline, Ill.; Joseph H. Defrees, lawyer, of Chicago; A. Lincoln Filene, merchant, of Boston; John W. O'Leary, manufacturer, of Chicago; L. A. Osborne, engineer and manufacturer, of New York and Pittsburg; F. A. Seiberling, manufacturer, of Akron, Ohio; and Harry A. Wheeler, banker, of Chicago. The report is signed by six² members. The committee did nothing more than indicate principles, and in connection with the submission of the report to the membership of the national chamber there were prepared some outlines of considerations which were regarded as having a bearing in favor or against the principles set out by the committee. These outlines are printed under the heads "Arguments in the affirmative" and "Arguments in the negative." In like manner several appendixes were added to the report as submitted, containing the following material: (a) Declaration of principles by the National War Labor Board; (b) Cooperative boards for British industries; (c) Examples of relatively small labor turnover; (d) Proposals for the settlement of industrial strife.

¹ National headquarters, Washington, D. C.

² Mr. Osborne and Mr. Seiberling, according to a statement issued by the Chamber of Commerce, did not attend the meeting at which the report was prepared and consequently were not called upon to take action with respect to it. Mr. Filene withheld his signature from the report upon the ground that in his opinion it does not go far enough in presenting a constructive program.

Principles of Industrial Relations.

The following is the report of the committee. Each question submitted, except No. 13, was favorably indorsed through the registration of the necessary two-thirds vote. Question No. 13 was, however, indorsed by a majority vote.

1. Industrial enterprise, as a source of livelihood for both employer and employee, should be so conducted that due consideration is given to the situation of all persons dependent upon it.

2. The public interest requires adjustment of industrial relations by peaceful methods.

3. Regularity and continuity of employment should be sought to the fullest extent possible and constitute a responsibility resting alike upon employer, wage earners, and the public.

4. The right of workers to organize is as clearly recognized as that of any other element or part of the community.

5. Industrial harmony and prosperity will be most effectually promoted by adequate representation of the parties in interest. Existing forms of representation should be carefully studied and availed of in so far as they may be found to have merit and are adaptable to the peculiar conditions in the various industries.

6. Whenever agreements are made with respect to industrial relations they should be faithfully observed.

7. Such agreements should contain provision for prompt and final interpretation in the event of controversy regarding meaning or application.

8. Wages should be adjusted with due regard to the purchasing power of the wage and to the right of every man to an opportunity to earn a living at fair wages, to reasonable hours of work and working conditions, to a decent home, and to the enjoyment of proper social conditions.

9. Fixing of a basic day as a device for increasing compensation is a subterfuge that should be condemned.

10. Efficient production in conjunction with adequate wages is essential to successful industry. Arbitrary restriction on output below reasonable standards is harmful to the interests of wage earners, employers, and the public and should not be permitted. Industry, efficiency, and initiative, wherever found, should be encouraged and adequately rewarded, while indolence and indifference should be condemned.

11. Consideration of reduction in wages should not be reached until possibility of reduction of costs in all other directions has been exhausted.

12. Administration of employment and management of labor should be recognized as a distinct and important function of management and accorded its proper responsibility in administrative organization.

13. A system of national employment offices, with due provision for cooperation with existing State and municipal systems, can be made, under efficient management and if conducted with due regard to the equal interests of employers and employees in its proper administration, a most helpful agency, but only if all appointments are made strictly subject to the civil service law and rules. Policies governing the conduct of a national system of employment offices should be determined in conjunction with advisory boards—National, State, and local—equally representative of employers and employees.

Seventh Annual Meeting of Chamber of Commerce.

At the seventh annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, at St. Louis, April 28 to May 1, 1919, resolutions were adopted covering a wide range of subjects, including soldier and sailor employment, Government ownership and operation of public utilities, encouragement of foreign trade and investments, construction, highways, waterways, water power, a National budget, and the President's veto power.

The resolutions pertaining to soldier and sailor employment and to resumption of construction activities, which have a bearing upon questions of particular interest to labor, are as follows:¹

Soldier and Sailor Employment.

Employers generally adopted a policy of reengaging soldiers, sailors, and marines formerly in their employ, and this chamber recommends a continuance of this policy to the end that every soldier, sailor, and marine shall find employment in the community where he was employed when he entered the service.

Prompt reemployment depends upon proper distribution. Proper distribution necessitates the return of a discharged man to the community where employed when he entered the armed forces, at least until such time as he may be better able to obtain elsewhere the kind of work, or the new opportunity, which he may now seek.

The commercial organizations of the country should continue to develop a program of closest cooperation in the field of soldier, sailor, and marine employment, in all cases instructing the official in charge to keep the headquarters of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States closely advised in order that it may serve as a clearing house among local organizations and with the Government.

Construction.

The interests of the public require an immediate resumption of construction activities in order that the housing and other construction needs of the Nation necessarily deferred by the war may be provided and that labor may find ample employment.

The Federal Government, especially the Railroad Administration and the Treasury Department, as well as State, county, and municipal authorities, should proceed with public work wherever possible.

Reports of British Coal Industry Commission on Nationalization and Management.

THE MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for May, 1919 (pp. 109-114), contained a summary of the circumstances leading up to the appointment of the British Coal Industry Commission, and of its interim reports concerning hours and wages in the coal-mining industry. These reports were submitted to Parliament, where that signed by the chairman and the three representatives of employers in general, usually referred to as the Sankey report, was indorsed,

¹ Summary of the seventh annual meeting of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States, St. Louis, April 28 to May 1, 1919. Washington, 1919.

and after some hesitation the miners agreed to accept it. The commission resumed its hearings on April 23, taking up the questions of the nationalization and future organization of the coal mines and the mining industry. Mr. Justice Sankey was retained as chairman, and the six labor representatives on the commission remained unchanged, but on the employers' side Sir Thomas Royden and Mr. J. T. Forgie retired, their places being taken by Sir Adam Nimmo and Sir Allan M. Smith. On June 20, 1919, the commission handed in reports, which are now under consideration by Parliament and by the Miners' Federation. As in the earlier case, there are several reports. One is signed by the chairman, Mr. Justice Sankey, and in this, on the whole, the six labor members concur, though they present a brief memorandum setting forth some points in which they differ from the chairman; another is signed by five of the six employers' representatives, while the sixth, Sir Arthur Duckham, finding himself unable to agree with any of his colleagues, presents an independent report of his own.

The members of the commission had before them three distinct propositions: The ownership of the coal itself, the ownership of the mines, and the management of the mining industry. On the first of these there was complete agreement in principle, though there was some diversity of opinion as to how the principle should be carried into effect. Private ownership of the coal deposits of the nation is admitted to be an anomaly which should no longer be permitted. The chairman's first recommendation is that Parliament should immediately pass legislation for acquiring the coal royalties for the State. In this recommendation the miners' representatives concur entirely; Sir Arthur Duckham declares that "the whole of the mineral rights of Great Britain should be acquired by the State;" and the coal owners' representatives, having discussed at length the difficulties arising from private ownership in coal, conclude:

We have carefully considered the evidence submitted to us and have come to the conclusion that the most effective method of dealing with the problem in the national interest would be for the State to acquire the ownership of the coal. Under State ownership there would be one owner instead of several thousand owners, and the difficulties caused under the present system will be effectively dealt with.

As to the method of acquiring the ownership of the coal, the chairman, the six employers' representatives, and three of the miners' representatives advocate "fair and just compensation" to the present owners of royalties, and provide carefully for safeguarding their interests. Three of the miners' representatives think no compensation should be paid, though they are willing to make "compassionate allowances" in cases in which small owners might be reduced to poverty by the confiscation of their rights.

Ownership of the Mines.

On the question of ownership of the mines divergencies of opinion appear. The chairman's report recommends the immediate acceptance of the principle of State ownership of the coal mines; the continuance of the present system of coal control for three years, during which a system of local administration shall be worked out; and legislation for acquiring the mines for the State after such a scheme shall have been worked for three years, paying fair and just compensation to the present owners. To this the miners' representatives agree, adding the proviso that all coke and by-product plants attached to collieries shall be treated as part of the coal mines and acquired by the State. Duckham is not in favor of national ownership, holding that it involves State management, that this would be "an unprecedented and colossal experiment," and that a mistake "would result in a national calamity," while the other five representatives of employers declare:

We have carefully weighed the whole of the evidence and have come to the conclusion that the nationalization of the coal industry in any form would be detrimental to the development of the industry and to the economic life of the country.

The miners' representatives give no independent arguments for their view, merely indorsing those of the chairman's report, while the Duckham report stresses principally the fact that the whole question is as yet theoretic and that it is unwise to experiment in such a serious matter. The argument, therefore, lies between Mr. Justice Sankey and the five representatives of the mine owners. It is conceded by all that State ownership implies some form of State management. Sankey's argument is, first, that the present system of individual ownership and management is wasteful and inefficient. In the export trade, competition between coal owners to obtain orders is so keen that frequently the industry does not get the full value for the article, while in the retail trade the system of distribution through the hands of many private individuals prevents the consumer getting the article as cheaply as he should. "In other words, there is underselling in the export trade and overlapping in the inland trade."

Again, the lack of capital in some cases and the lack of proper management in others prevent the attainment of the best results. The coal mines are owned by about 1,500 companies or individuals, and there is much unnecessary expense in the duplication of equipment, lack of standardized appliances, etc. "Unification under State ownership makes it possible to apply the principles of standardization of materials and appliances and thereby to effect economies to an extent which is impossible under a system where there are so many individual owners."

These defects of private ownership, Sankey admits, might be overcome by a system of unification falling short of State ownership, but such a system would fail to meet a fundamental difficulty found in the respective attitudes of the coal owners and the coal miners.

The relationship between the masters and workers in most of the coal fields in the United Kingdom is, unfortunately, of such a character that it seems impossible to better it under the present system of ownership. Many of the workers think they are working for the capitalist and a strike becomes a contest between labor and capital. This is much less likely to apply with the State as owner, and there is fair reason to expect that the relationship between labor and the community will be an improvement upon the relationship between labor and capital in the coal fields.

Beyond this antagonism there is a final difficulty in the way of private ownership which Sankey considers insuperable. The workers have developed desires which will not be satisfied with higher wages and shorter hours, no matter how liberal the concessions in these respects. They are manifesting in an ever increasing degree the ambition and the deep desire to take a share in the management, to become in some degree the heads, as well as the hands, of the industry. This desire can not be satisfied under private management; the private owners are definitely unwilling to yield any part of their complete authority. This was made very plain at the hearings.

The attitude of the colliery owners is well expressed by Lord Gainford, who, speaking on their behalf as a witness before the commission, states: "I am authorized to say on behalf of the Mining Association that if owners are not to be left complete executive control they will decline to accept the responsibility of carrying on the industry, and, though they regard nationalization as disastrous to the country, they feel they would in such event be driven to the only alternative—nationalization on fair terms."

Faced, therefore, by these two irreconcilable attitudes, the determination of the miners to have a share in the control of the industry and the determination of the mine owners to keep that control in their own hands, the chairman, backed by the labor members of the commission, considers State ownership and management the only way out. It is admitted that this is an experiment, and that there is a chance that State ownership may stifle incentive, but against that is the fact that the present system involves destructive unrest and industrial strife.

I think that the danger to be apprehended from the certainty of the continuance of this strife in the coal-mining industry outweighs the danger arising from the mathematical fear of the risk of the loss of incentive.

The main argument of the mine owners against nationalization is that State management must necessarily be timid and bureaucratic. The passing on of responsibility from one man to another is, in their opinion, an inseparable feature of governmental management; and such an attitude is fatal to success in industrial undertakings.

It is of the essence of success in industry that those who conduct it should not hesitate to take responsibility and incur commercial risks. When this is done in the coal industry, what is placed at risk is the capital—or profits of capital—made available for the very purpose of being used in a risky undertaking. On the other hand, the only justification for a Government official taking risks is a grave national emergency. * * * Should the State indulge in industry, particularly in the mining industry, which is so vitally connected with the destiny of the Nation, the result would be nothing short of disaster.

Furthermore, the mine owners feel that should the policy of nationalization prevail there is grave danger that the management of the industry might be swayed by political considerations to an extent that would be gravely detrimental to the Nation. They feel that no evidence has been submitted justifying the conclusion that the benefits claimed by its advocates would result from State ownership of the mines, and that there is no ground for belief that nationalization would have the effect of reducing the price of coal. Without cooperation between workers and management, nationalization could not secure an increase of production, but the evidence has shown that strikes are not prevented by State ownership and management. They believe that the opposition between employers and employed in the coal fields has been greatly exaggerated and that all reasonable desires of the workpeople can be satisfied without any change of ownership.

It is regrettable that during the whole of the proceedings emphasis has been laid on a state of antagonism which is alleged to exist between the employers and the workpeople in the coal industry. To such an extent is this feeling alleged to exist that it is stated that the only means of overcoming it is to nationalize the industry and to substitute the State for private enterprise.

From the evidence submitted, which is confirmed by our own knowledge, no foundation exists for such an assertion. In certain cases owing to the action of individuals, few in number but active in agitation, local unrest has been created, but we are convinced that the relations between the employers and the vast majority of the workpeople in the coal-mining industry do not call for the drastic proposals that have been advanced.

The personal and human element which exists under present conditions would be almost entirely eliminated should the State take over the industry.

From the evidence submitted it is clear that the mine owners are prepared to increase the facilities for enabling the workpeople to acquire a greater knowledge of and interest in the industry.

Finally, they feel that the support given to the claim for nationalization "comes mainly from socialists and theorists who seem profoundly convinced that it is their prerogative to lead the Nation in the direction of thought considered by them to be good for the Nation," but that the theorists themselves were often not of one mind on the subject.

Acquisition of Mines.

If the State is to own the mines it must of necessity acquire them, and as to method of doing this Mr. Justice Sankey and the six miners' representatives are in substantial agreement. It is advised that the State should purchase at a fair value all the collieries, and all buildings, plants, machinery, stores, and other effects in and about the collieries. Any expenditure for development, including housing, if incurred with the consent of the controller of coal mines after a fixed date, should be repaid with interest. The State should also assume the power to purchase any real or movable property directly associated with the working of the colliery not covered by the above provisions. It is proposed that most of the present officials engaged in the coal-mining industry, including the managing directors of companies, should be offered an opportunity of remaining at their present salaries on a five years' agreement, with the provision that they shall receive any increases awarded from time to time. Further, any just claims of pioneer boring companies should be recognized, and the State should assume the power to carry out exploratory borings.

Plan of Administration Under State Ownership.

The six miners' representatives, again, are in substantial agreement with the chairman in regard to a suggested scheme of administration for the mines while their ownership is being acquired. It is pointed out that the time at the commission's disposal has been too short to allow of formulating a complete scheme, and that this plan is put forward only as a suggestion of the lines along which the management might be developed. As outlined, the plan provides for a series of mining councils, local, district, and national, in each of which the miners themselves are to be represented, and which are to function under a minister of mines, who is to sit in, and be responsible to, Parliament, and who is to be assisted by a standing committee of 18 members, elected from the national mining council. Each mine is to have its local council of 10 members, consisting of the manager, the under-manager, and the commercial manager as ex officio members, four members elected by the mine workers, and three members appointed by the district mining council. This council shall advise on matters of health and safety, and shall report fortnightly to the minister of mines and to the district mining council any fall in output, and the causes thereof. Should the mine manager refuse to be guided by the advice of this council the matter is to be referred to the district council. One important provision reads as follows:

The contracts of employment of workmen shall embody an undertaking to be framed by the district mining council to the effect that no workman will, in consequence of any dispute, join in giving any notice to determine his contract, nor will he

combine to cease work, unless and until the question in dispute has been before the local mining council and the district mining council and those councils have failed to settle the dispute.

The plan for the district mining council is perhaps the most important part of the whole scheme. Its purpose is to prevent the development of bureaucratic control by causing the industry "to be controlled locally by a council of 14, upon which there is equal representation for the miners, for the consumers, and for persons acquainted with the commercial and technical side of the industry." It is suggested that the coal fields be divided into 14 districts, for each of which there shall be a district council consisting of a chairman and vice chairman, appointed by the minister of mines, four members elected by ballot by the workers, and eight members appointed by the national mining council, of whom four shall represent consumers and four the commercial and technical sides of the industry. This council is to have wide powers:

Subject to the direction of the minister of mines the district mining council shall manage in its district the entire coal extraction, the regulation of output, the discontinuance of or the opening out of mines, trial sinkings, the control of prices, and the basis of wage assessment and the distribution of coal.

The miners' contracts of employment are to contain an agreement not to strike in consequence of any dispute affecting a district unless and until the question in dispute has been before both the district and the national mining councils, and both have failed to settle the dispute.

The national mining council is to be in the main an advisory body designed to work with the minister of mines. A standing committee of 18 members, elected from and by the national mining council, and representing in equal numbers the workers, the consumers, and the commercial and technical side of the industry, shall meet regularly for the purpose of superintending the operations of the district mining councils. No national alteration of wages shall be made without the consent both of the minister of mines and the standing committee.

In regard to this scheme of management, the miners' representatives differ from the chairman in two respects: They feel that there should be a fuller representation of the miners on the district and national councils, and they object to the restriction upon striking.

Whilst fully recognizing the necessity of working rules, and the importance of preventing unnecessary stoppages, we feel that the provisions of paragraphs L, LXIV, and LXXII may be used to impose upon the workers by law a particular form of contract, without their consent—an innovation to which we think it will be difficult to gain agreement, and which we believe to be not the best calculated to attain the object.

Mine Owners' Scheme of Management.

The report of the mine owners' representatives contains a suggested scheme of management differing from the above, especially in the smaller weight given to the miners. The scheme calls for the creation

of a mines department having at its head a responsible official thoroughly acquainted with the mining industry. This department would naturally be the agency for acquiring the coal rights of the country, but it should have other functions in addition.

It should also have administrative functions, including the functions which are at present exercised by the mines department at the Home Office, and it should have jurisdiction over all questions relating to the coal mines except the adjustment of labor disputes and wages, which are appropriate subjects for the jurisdiction of the Minister of Labor. For example, it should deal with questions of safety and technique; should collect and publish statistics relative to accidents, output, export, and consumption; it should be a record office for data relating to the coal industry and should deal with questions affecting new coal fields and the development of existing ones.

In the exercise of its duty the mines department should be assisted by a national advisory council consisting of representatives of (a) the department, (b) the colliery owners, (c) the mine workers, (d) mining engineers, and (e) other scientific experts.

To secure cooperation and harmonious relations between employer and employed, the report recommends the creation of a system of pit committees, district councils, and national councils, somewhat on the line of the Whitley committees. Apparently there is no intention of giving the workers any authoritative voice in these; indeed, this seems to be provided against in the introductory sentence:

While it is essential, even in the interests of the mine workers themselves, that the executive authority of the management should not be impaired, we recommend that full and regular opportunity should be given to each party to bring forward for discussion any question of mutual interest.

Since it is provided in the paragraphs dealing with the creation of the mines department that questions involving the adjustment of labor disputes and wages shall be under the jurisdiction of the Minister of Labor, and since these committees are only for purposes of discussion, no authority being provided for carrying out decisions they may come to and no line of action being indicated in case the two sides fail to come to an agreement, the plan hardly seems to meet the demand of the miners for a voice in the management of the industry.

Related Matters.

The two main reports recommend the improvement of conditions for the workers, both in the mines and outside. Both call for an increase in the number of mine inspectors, for the improvement of housing conditions, the establishment of pit-head baths, etc. Both advocate Government action to further investigation and research in regard to methods of mining and using coal. There is general agreement that the production of coal has fallen off alarmingly, but disagreement as to the responsibility for this situation. Mr. Justice Sankey does not attempt to apportion the blame.

The alarming fall in output has convinced me that at present everyone is not doing his best. I am not able to say whether this is the fault of the management or of the workers or of both. Each blames the other. The cause must be investigated, but whatever it may be it is hopeless to expect an improvement in the present atmosphere of distrust and recrimination.

The miners' representatives touch on this subject in their memorandum, stating that there is no evidence to show that the men are refraining from doing their best, and calling earnestly for an immediate investigation, while the employers' representatives call with equal emphasis for "an immediate and complete investigation" into the causes which have contributed to the fall.

Summary.

Taking up the three main questions before the commission, it appears that on the first, the ownership of the coal rights of the Nation, there is unanimity of opinion that this ownership should vest in the Nation itself. As to the method of acquisition, the commission stands ten to three in favor of compensating the present owners. On the question of State ownership and management of the mines, seven are in favor and six against. The seven in favor are in fairly substantial accord as to the method of management, although differing on the question of how much representation should be accorded the workers, and whether or not they should give up the right of striking without waiting for the action of the various bodies on which the workers are represented. Five of the six opposed favor a scheme of management retaining the authority of the owners, but allowing the workers opportunity to present their view. As the report phrases it:

The authors propose that by means of joint committees of employers and workers full opportunity should be given to the workers in each district and at each colliery to make suggestions with respect to the methods and conditions of their work, without impairing the authority of the owner, agent, or manager of the mine, upon whom the law imposes responsibility for the control, management, and direction of the mine.

These different reports were presented June 20, 1919, and are now before Parliament for consideration and action. The information received in this country seems to indicate that there is likely to be long and earnest debate over them.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

THE retail price of 22 articles¹ of food combined, for which consumption weights are secured by the Bureau, shows a decrease for the United States of less than five-tenths of 1 per cent in June, 1919, as compared with May, 1919. Thirteen of the 43 articles for which prices were secured for June 15, 1919, and May 15, 1919, making comparison possible, were cheaper in June than they were in May. Cabbage declined 20 per cent, butter 7 per cent, chuck roast 5 per cent, rib roast, plate beef, and bananas, 4 per cent each; sirloin steak, round steak, and lamb, 3 per cent each; hens, 2 per cent; pork chops, corn flakes, and baked beans, 1 per cent each.

Flour, rolled oats, Cream of Wheat, canned corn, canned peas, and sugar were the same price in June as in May.

Articles which increased were: Potatoes, 15 per cent; prunes, 9 per cent; onions and coffee, 5 per cent each; lard and Crisco, 4 per cent each; rice, 3 per cent; evaporated milk, oleomargarine, corn meal, and raisins, 2 per cent each; bacon, ham, fresh milk, eggs, bread, macaroni, navy beans, canned tomatoes, and oranges 1 per cent each; canned salmon, nut margarine, cheese, and tea increased less than five-tenths of 1 per cent.

On June 15, 1919, the cost of 22 articles¹ of food for which weights were secured was 14 per cent higher than a year ago. In the year period, coffee increased 41 per cent, potatoes 31 per cent, cheese 28 per cent, eggs 26 per cent, butter 24 per cent, lard 23 per cent, sugar 16 per cent, milk 15 per cent, and flour 12 per cent. Onions and prunes, which are not included in the 22 weighted articles, increased 133 per cent and 53 per cent, respectively. Corn meal decreased 6 per cent, chuck roast and plate beef each decreased 5 per cent, and navy beans 31 per cent during the year period.

¹ Sirloin steak, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, plate beef, pork chops, bacon, ham, lard, hens, flour, corn meal, eggs, butter, milk, bread, potatoes, sugar, cheese, rice, coffee, tea.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE JUNE 15, 1919, COMPARED WITH JUNE 15, 1918, AND MAY 15, 1919.

Article.	Unit.	Average retail price—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (—) June 15, 1919, compared with—	
		June 15, 1918.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15, 1918.	May 15, 1919.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	<i>Cts.</i> 42.6	<i>Cts.</i> 44.4	<i>Cts.</i> 43.1	+ 1	- 3
Round steak.....	do.....	49.6	41.6	40.4	(²)	- 3
Rib roast.....	do.....	33.5	35.2	33.8	+ 1	- 4
Chuck roast.....	do.....	29.5	29.7	28.1	- 5	- 5
Plate beef.....	do.....	22.7	22.5	21.5	- 5	- 4
Pork chops.....	do.....	37.2	43.0	42.4	+ 14	- 1
Bacon, sliced.....	do.....	51.5	56.7	57.2	+ 11	+ 1
Ham, sliced.....	do.....	46.5	54.5	55.2	+ 18	+ 1
Lamb.....	do.....	37.4	39.6	38.4	+ 3	- 3
Hens.....	do.....	37.6	43.5	42.6	+ 13	- 2
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	29.5	31.9	32.0	+ 8	(³)
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	13.0	14.9	15.0	+ 15	+ 1
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	15-16 oz. can.....	15.1	15.1	15.4	+ 2
Butter.....	Pound.....	51.1	67.9	63.3	+ 24	- 7
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	40.4	41.4	+ 2
Nut margarine.....	do.....	35.3	35.4	(³)
Cheese.....	do.....	33.2	42.2	42.4	+ 28	(³)
Lard.....	do.....	32.6	38.8	40.2	+ 23	+ 4
Crisco.....	do.....	33.9	35.3	+ 4
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	42.5	53.1	53.5	+ 26	+ 1
Bread.....	Pound ¹	10.0	9.8	9.9	- 1	+ 1
Flour.....	Pound.....	6.7	7.5	7.5	+ 12	(⁴)
Corn meal.....	do.....	6.7	6.2	6.3	- 6	+ 2
Rolled oats.....	do.....	8.4	8.4	(⁴)
Corn flakes.....	8-oz. pkg.....	14.1	14.0	- 1
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.....	25.1	25.1	(⁴)
Macaroni.....	Pound.....	19.0	19.1	+ 1
Rice.....	do.....	12.5	13.4	13.8	+ 10	+ 3
Beans, navy.....	do.....	17.6	12.0	12.1	- 31	+ 1
Potatoes.....	do.....	2.9	3.3	3.8	+ 31	+ 15
Onions.....	do.....	4.8	10.7	11.2	+ 133	+ 5
Cabbage.....	do.....	9.6	7.7	- 20
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can.....	17.5	17.3	- 1
Corn, canned.....	do.....	19.1	19.1	(⁴)
Peas, canned.....	do.....	19.0	19.0	(⁴)
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	15.8	15.9	+ 1
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound.....	9.1	10.6	10.6	+ 16	(⁴)
Tea.....	do.....	64.7	69.8	70.1	+ 8	(³)
Coffee.....	do.....	30.2	40.5	42.6	+ 41	+ 5
Prunes.....	do.....	16.6	23.2	25.4	+ 53	+ 9
Raisins.....	do.....	15.1	16.5	16.8	+ 11	+ 2
Bananas.....	Dozen.....	38.8	37.4	- 4
Oranges.....	do.....	54.1	54.4	+ 1
22 weighted articles combined.....	+ 14	(²)

¹ Baked weight.² Decrease less than five-tenths of 1 per cent.³ Increase less than five-tenths of 1 per cent.⁴ No change in price.

During the six-year period, June, 1913, to June, 1919, the retail price of the 22 articles of food combined increased 88 per cent.

The following articles increased 100 per cent or over: Lard, 154 per cent; flour, 127 per cent; corn meal, 125 per cent; potatoes, 111 per cent; bacon, 107 per cent; ham, 104 per cent; pork chops, 103 per cent each; and sugar, 100 per cent. Other articles show increases ranging from 67 per cent for sirloin steak and fresh milk to 98 per cent for lamb.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICE AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE IN THE UNITED STATES JUNE 15 OF EACH SPECIFIED YEAR, COMPARED WITH JUNE 15, 1913.

Article.	Unit.	Average retail price June 15—							Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) June 15 of each specified year compared with June 15, 1913.					
		1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919
Sirloin steak.....	Pound....	25.8	26.0	26.0	28.6	32.8	42.6	43.1	+ 1	+ 1	+11	+ 27	+ 65	+ 67
Round steak.....	do.....	22.3	23.4	23.2	25.7	30.1	40.6	40.4	+ 5	+ 4	+15	+ 35	+ 82	+ 81
Rib roast.....	do.....	20.0	20.4	20.2	22.4	26.1	33.5	33.8	+ 2	+ 1	+12	+ 31	+ 68	+ 69
Chuck roast.....	do.....	16.3	17.1	16.4	18.0	22.2	29.5	28.1	+ 5	+ 1	+10	+ 36	+ 81	+ 72
Plate beef.....	do.....	12.1	12.5	12.3	13.4	17.0	22.7	21.5	+ 3	+ 2	+11	+ 40	+ 88	+ 78
Pork chops.....	do.....	20.9	21.8	20.7	23.2	30.9	37.2	42.4	+ 4	- 1	+11	+ 48	+ 78	+103
Bacon.....	do.....	27.6	27.3	27.3	29.3	42.5	51.5	57.2	- 1	- 1	+ 6	+ 54	+ 87	+107
Ham.....	do.....	27.1	26.6	25.8	29.2	39.1	46.5	55.2	- 2	- 5	+ 8	+ 44	+ 72	+104
Lamb.....	do.....	19.4	20.0	21.8	23.9	30.4	37.4	38.4	+ 3	+12	+23	+ 57	+ 93	+ 98
Hens.....	do.....	21.9	22.1	21.0	24.4	28.8	37.6	42.6	+ 1	- 4	+11	+ 32	+ 72	+ 95
Salmon (canned).....	do.....	20.0	20.2	26.3	29.5	32.0
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	9.0	9.0	8.9	9.0	10.6	13.0	15.0	(1)	- 1	(1)	+ 18	+ 44	+ 67
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).	15-16 oz. can.	15.4
Butter.....	Pound....	35.3	33.9	34.9	36.7	46.9	51.1	63.3	- 4	- 1	+ 4	+ 33	+ 45	+ 79
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	41.4
Nut margarine.....	do.....	35.4
Cheese.....	do.....	23.3	24.5	33.8	33.2	42.4
Lard.....	do.....	15.8	15.4	15.1	17.2	28.0	32.6	40.2	- 3	- 4	+ 9	+ 77	+106	+154
Crisco.....	do.....	35.3
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen....	27.5	27.8	26.5	29.5	40.9	42.5	53.5	+ 1	- 4	+ 7	+ 49	+ 55	+ 95
Bread.....	Pound*..	5.6	5.7	6.5	6.4	9.6	10.0	9.9	+ 2	+16	+14	+ 71	+ 79	+ 77
Flour.....	Pound....	3.3	3.2	4.2	3.8	8.1	6.7	7.5	- 3	+27	+15	+145	+103	+127
Corn meal.....	do.....	2.8	3.0	3.1	3.1	5.5	6.7	6.3	+ 7	+11	+11	+ 96	+139	+125
Roiled oats.....	do.....	8.4
Corn flakes.....	8-oz. pkg.	14.0
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.	25.1
Macaroni.....	Pound....	19.1
Rice.....	do.....	9.1	9.1	10.8	12.5	13.8
Beans.....	do.....	7.6	9.6	19.5	17.6	12.1
Potatoes.....	do.....	1.8	2.3	1.7	2.9	6.4	2.9	3.8	+28	- 6	+61	+256	+ 61	+111
Onions.....	do.....	4.0	5.4	7.0	4.8	11.2
Cabbage.....	do.....	7.7
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can	17.3
Corn, canned.....	do.....	19.1
Peas, canned.....	do.....	19.0
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	15.9
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound....	5.3	5.1	6.9	8.7	9.3	9.1	10.6	- 4	+30	+64	+ 75	+ 72	+100
Tea.....	do.....	55.1	55.1	56.8	64.7	70.1
Coffee.....	do.....	30.2	30.2	30.2	30.2	42.6
Prunes.....	do.....	13.3	13.0	15.7	16.6	25.4
Raisins.....	do.....	12.6	12.7	14.6	15.1	16.8
Bananas.....	Dozen....	37.4
Oranges.....	do.....	54.4
22 weighted articles combined.	+ 2	+ 2	+13	+ 55	+ 66	+ 88

* No change in price.

* Baked weight.

RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, JANUARY, 1913, TO JUNE, 1919.

Year and month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.	Plate beef.	Pork chops.	Bacon.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	Butter.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Potatoes.	Sugar.	All articles combined.
1913.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
1914.....	102	106	103	104	105	105	102	102	99	102	102	94	100	112	104	105	108	108	102
1915.....	101	103	101	101	101	96	100	97	93	97	99	93	99	126	126	108	89	120	101
1916.....	108	110	107	108	107	108	106	109	111	111	109	103	102	130	135	113	155	146	114
1917.....	124	130	126	131	131	152	152	142	175	134	139	127	125	164	211	192	253	169	146
1918.....	153	165	155	166	172	186	196	178	211	177	165	151	156	172	203	227	188	176	168
1913: Av. for year	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
January.....	94	92	95	93	92	89	94	93	97	95	108	107	100	100	100	99	91	106	98
February.....	94	93	95	93	93	90	95	94	98	97	91	108	100	100	100	98	90	100	97
March.....	97	96	98	98	98	97	97	97	98	100	77	108	100	100	100	98	88	99	97
April.....	101	99	101	101	102	103	99	99	100	104	73	106	100	100	100	98	87	98	98
May.....	101	100	101	101	101	100	100	99	100	104	76	94	99	100	101	98	91	97	97
June.....	102	101	102	102	101	99	101	102	100	103	81	92	99	100	101	98	104	97	98
July.....	104	104	102	103	101	103	104	104	101	102	87	91	99	100	101	98	110	100	100
August.....	104	104	102	103	102	104	105	106	102	101	96	92	99	100	100	100	109	102	101
September.....	103	104	101	103	103	108	104	104	102	101	109	98	100	100	100	102	110	104	102
October.....	101	104	101	103	103	107	103	102	101	100	121	100	101	100	99	103	108	101	104
November.....	100	102	100	102	103	102	101	100	101	97	144	101	102	100	99	104	107	99	105
December.....	99	101	100	101	103	97	99	99	100	98	138	104	102	100	99	104	106	98	104
1914: Av. for year	102	106	103	104	105	105	102	102	99	102	102	94	100	112	104	105	108	108	102
January.....	99	102	100	102	103	99	98	98	100	100	126	104	102	110	98	104	108	95	104
February.....	99	102	101	103	103	100	98	99	99	104	106	93	102	110	99	103	108	94	101
March.....	100	103	101	102	103	100	99	99	99	105	90	92	101	110	99	103	107	93	99
April.....	100	103	102	103	103	103	99	99	99	108	74	86	100	110	99	103	105	91	97
May.....	102	105	102	103	104	106	99	99	98	108	77	85	100	110	99	103	112	91	98
June.....	103	106	103	104	104	103	100	100	97	103	82	88	100	110	99	103	132	93	99
July.....	106	109	105	106	105	106	101	103	97	103	87	89	100	110	98	103	155	95	102
August.....	110	113	108	109	108	119	107	108	99	104	96	94	100	112	106	105	111	143	107
September.....	107	110	105	108	108	113	108	108	99	103	107	98	100	114	113	109	105	145	107
October.....	103	107	104	106	107	110	106	105	98	100	113	98	101	114	111	109	89	132	105
November.....	100	105	103	104	106	104	104	102	99	97	131	103	101	114	112	109	83	113	105
December.....	101	103	101	103	104	93	103	100	97	94	139	103	101	116	113	107	84	110	105
1915: Av. for year	101	103	101	101	101	96	100	97	93	97	99	93	99	124	126	108	89	120	101
January.....	100	102	101	101	103	88	101	98	97	95	129	101	101	120	124	109	85	110	103
February.....	98	100	100	99	102	85	99	96	97	97	98	98	100	128	138	110	84	118	101
March.....	97	99	99	98	101	85	98	95	96	99	74	94	99	126	136	110	82	120	98
April.....	99	100	100	99	101	94	98	94	96	100	75	94	99	126	137	109	86	122	99
May.....	101	103	101	101	102	99	98	95	96	101	76	91	98	128	139	109	89	124	100
June.....	103	105	103	103	102	98	99	97	95	98	78	90	98	128	130	109	99	126	100
July.....	105	107	104	103	102	100	100	98	93	97	81	90	98	126	125	108	85	127	100

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August.....	104	107	104	103	102	103	100	98	89	97	88	99	126	124	108	82	123	100	
September.....	104	106	103	102	102	107	100	97	88	97	101	88	99	124	117	108	79	118	101
October.....	103	104	102	101	100	110	101	99	91	97	117	92	100	124	113	108	94	111	103
November.....	101	102	101	99	99	99	101	100	92	95	133	95	100	122	113	107	97	119	104
December.....	99	101	100	99	98	87	101	100	92	95	135	101	100	122	114	107	106	124	105
1916: Av. for year	108	110	107	108	107	108	106	109	111	111	109	103	102	130	135	113	155	146	114
January.....	101	102	101	99	100	89	101	93	101	101	123	100	100	122	120	107	136	123	107
February.....	101	102	102	118	101	92	101	102	94	104	101	99	100	124	125	108	141	125	106
March.....	104	104	104	103	103	104	103	104	96	107	82	105	100	124	120	107	140	137	107
April.....	106	108	106	106	106	107	104	107	100	111	79	108	99	124	119	108	138	145	109
May.....	109	112	110	109	108	109	105	109	106	113	82	97	99	124	119	108	140	156	109
June.....	113	117	113	113	112	110	107	110	108	114	87	95	99	124	117	108	167	158	112
July.....	113	116	112	112	110	111	107	111	110	113	93	93	100	124	116	108	134	160	111
August.....	112	115	111	110	108	116	108	111	111	112	105	95	101	126	134	110	141	155	113
September.....	111	115	110	110	108	125	110	114	118	113	120	102	102	136	148	113	161	141	118
October.....	108	111	108	108	107	118	110	114	123	114	132	109	105	144	155	117	165	149	121
November.....	106	108	106	107	107	111	111	114	135	112	149	114	109	150	174	126	198	157	126
December.....	106	107	106	106	107	106	110	114	137	112	154	118	112	138	167	131	198	151	126
1917: Av. for year	124	130	126	131	131	152	152	142	175	134	139	127	125	164	211	192	253	169	146
January.....	109	111	109	109	109	113	110	114	136	119	158	118	112	140	171	132	225	146	128
February.....	113	117	114	116	117	125	114	118	138	126	147	122	112	142	171	136	290	148	133
March.....	116	119	118	128	122	133	123	125	151	129	101	121	112	144	174	137	297	160	133
April.....	125	130	127	131	133	146	141	136	167	136	112	133	114	150	206	154	339	175	145
May.....	127	133	130	134	136	146	155	144	176	138	116	122	117	170	266	178	352	183	151
June.....	129	135	132	137	138	148	158	145	177	136	119	123	119	170	246	182	366	170	152
July.....	129	137	130	137	138	151	159	147	174	131	122	120	125	176	220	195	246	166	146
August.....	130	138	129	136	135	164	160	147	176	131	134	124	128	182	229	219	206	181	149
September.....	131	133	131	137	136	185	164	152	188	142	152	129	132	176	223	272	172	179	153
October.....	130	138	130	136	138	185	178	159	198	146	160	133	143	176	214	232	178	177	157
November.....	124	133	127	132	135	165	179	159	207	138	168	138	144	176	208	235	183	174	155
December.....	126	134	128	134	135	161	181	161	211	143	184	142	147	166	205	235	178	172	157
1918: Av. for year	153	165	155	166	172	186	195	178	211	177	165	151	156	172	203	227	188	176	168
January.....	129	137	130	138	143	163	180	162	208	154	195	148	151	165	200	233	158	173	160
February.....	131	141	133	142	148	160	179	163	209	170	177	151	151	167	200	233	188	193	161
March.....	133	143	135	145	152	161	181	164	210	178	144	141	151	168	200	240	147	167	154
April.....	144	155	148	159	166	170	183	166	209	178	144	132	148	172	200	237	129	165	154
May.....	157	170	161	174	183	175	187	170	208	178	123	133	148	174	200	233	129	165	158
June.....	168	182	169	184	189	177	191	173	206	177	123	133	146	175	203	223	171	165	162
July.....	166	181	168	182	187	180	194	181	206	178	142	137	148	174	203	223	229	167	167
August.....	163	178	165	177	181	201	209	180	209	181	155	141	153	174	206	227	229	169	171
September.....	164	178	165	178	183	220	208	193	213	185	170	155	161	174	206	230	229	175	178
October.....	161	175	163	174	179	216	214	193	216	183	186	170	166	172	203	227	206	193	181
November.....	159	173	162	172	177	206	216	195	216	185	215	174	173	172	203	217	194	186	183
December.....	159	171	161	171	176	197	217	198	216	180	235	190	176	172	203	213	188	196	187
1919:																			
January.....	162	175	165	175	183	193	217	199	211	188	218	184	175	173	200	207	188	196	185
February.....	162	174	165	174	183	180	205	193	203	186	147	149	174	172	203	200	182	195	172
March.....	165	177	169	178	184	184	203	191	211	193	140	174	168	172	206	197	171	193	175
April.....	172	182	175	184	188	197	212	197	223	202	143	186	169	172	218	200	182	193	182
May.....	175	187	178	186	188	205	210	203	246	204	154	177	167	172	227	207	194	193	185
June.....	170	181	171	176	179	202	212	205	254	200	155	165	169	174	227	210	193	184	184

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Effort is made by the Bureau to secure quotations on similar grades of commodities in the different cities. There are, however, some local customs which must be considered when any comparison is made of the prices in the different cities. The method of cutting sirloin steak in Boston, Mass.; Manchester, N. H.; Philadelphia, Pa.; Providence, R. I.; and Portland, Me., differs from that in other cities. The cut known as "sirloin" in these five cities would be in other cities known as "porterhouse." There is in these cities, owing to the methods of dividing the round from the loin, no cut that corresponds to that of "sirloin" in other cities. There is also a greater amount of trimming demanded by the retail trade in these cities than in others. This is particularly true of Providence, R. I. These, together with the fact that the beef sold in these cities is of better grade, are the main reasons why the retail prices of beef in these cities are higher than in others.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD

[The prices shown in the tables following are computed from reports sent monthly to the Bureau by retail

Article.	Unit.	Atlanta, Ga.						Baltimore, Md.					
		June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
		1913	1914	1917	1918	Cts.	Cts.	1913	1914	1917	1918	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb..	24.0	26.9	31.4	40.0	40.9	40.0	23.3	25.2	32.6	46.8	45.8	44.4
Round steak.....	Lb..	21.4	23.4	28.2	37.5	38.3	37.4	22.0	23.8	30.2	45.9	44.3	43.2
Rib roast.....	Lb..	19.6	21.5	24.2	30.1	31.0	32.2	18.7	19.2	24.6	36.8	36.5	35.3
Chuck roast.....	Lb..	15.4	16.9	20.4	26.3	26.3	25.6	15.7	16.2	22.0	31.5	31.0	29.5
Plate beef.....	Lb..	10.4	10.8	16.4	21.3	21.4	19.7	12.8	13.5	18.2	24.8	24.3	22.7
Pork chops.....	Lb..	22.5	24.0	30.3	38.3	41.3	40.2	18.7	18.6	30.8	42.9	42.1	43.3
Bacon.....	Lb..	32.0	30.5	43.0	54.2	59.8	60.0	23.7	24.6	40.5	48.6	51.4	53.0
Ham.....	Lb..	29.0	30.5	39.1	47.0	54.8	54.8	31.0	30.0	42.5	52.0	58.2	58.1
Lamb.....	Lb..	20.0	21.8	30.4	40.0	40.7	39.3	18.5	20.3	30.0	41.1	42.7	40.3
Hens.....	Lb..	20.5	22.4	23.6	35.6	37.4	37.4	22.4	22.3	29.2	40.4	47.0	45.8
Salmon (canned).....	Lb..	22.5	24.9	25.9	26.6	22.3	26.3	28.8	28.7
Milk, fresh.....	Qt..	10.0	10.0	13.9	20.0	20.0	20.0	8.8	8.7	10.8	13.0	14.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	(2)	16.1	16.3	14.9	15.2
Butter.....	Lb..	37.9	34.4	50.5	56.5	70.8	67.8	38.3	36.0	50.6	54.4	73.5	68.8
Oleomargarine.....	Lb..	43.0	43.6	38.0	39.1
Nut margarine.....	Lb..	40.4	40.5	35.0	35.0
Cheese.....	Lb..	34.4	34.3	40.9	40.6	35.0	34.8	42.7	43.9
Lard.....	Lb..	15.5	15.2	28.1	33.3	39.5	41.7	14.1	14.2	26.3	32.2	37.5	38.9
Crisco.....	Lb..	33.5	35.2	33.2	34.6
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	24.2	26.4	40.7	40.4	48.5	48.1	24.7	24.6	39.3	41.5	51.4	50.7
Bread.....	Lb.(⁸)	6.0	5.9	9.8	10.0	10.0	10.0	5.4	5.6	8.9	9.7	9.6	9.6
Flour.....	Lb..	3.8	3.5	7.6	7.1	7.4	7.5	3.2	3.2	7.9	6.7	7.7	7.8
Corn meal.....	Lb..	2.5	2.7	4.9	5.8	5.5	5.6	2.5	2.5	5.4	6.2	5.5	5.5
Rolled oats.....	Lb..	9.9	9.7	7.3	6.9
Corn flakes.....	(⁹)	14.1	14.1	13.1	13.2
Cream of Wheat.....	(⁹)	25.2	24.8	23.7	23.6
Macaroni.....	Lb..	21.9	20.7	16.5	16.6
Rice.....	Lb..	10.1	13.3	13.1	13.6	10.5	12.0	13.1	13.2
Beans, navy.....	Lb..	18.1	19.1	14.4	14.4	18.7	17.9	12.6	12.5
Potatoes.....	Lb..	2.9	3.0	7.1	3.7	4.4	6.0	2.1	2.6	6.4	3.0	3.5	4.3
Onions.....	Lb..	9.2	5.8	12.5	12.2	6.8	4.9	11.0	11.2
Cabbage.....	Lb..	10.2	8.4	9.6	6.0
Beans, baked.....	(⁶)	17.4	17.0	15.1	15.6
Corn, canned.....	(⁶)	19.3	19.9	18.9	18.9
Peas, canned.....	(⁶)	20.1	19.8	18.5	18.7
Tomatoes, canned.....	(⁹)	13.8	13.9	14.6	14.7
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb..	5.4	5.2	10.1	9.2	11.0	11.2	4.5	4.6	8.8	8.8	10.1	10.1
Tea.....	Lb..	76.9	84.2	88.0	88.5	55.0	67.3	72.8	73.9
Coffee.....	Lb..	29.6	29.8	39.7	41.2	23.5	28.5	37.9	39.1
Prunes.....	Lb..	16.6	18.3	20.8	20.4	15.0	16.7	24.1	25.3
Raisins.....	Lb..	15.1	16.1	16.8	16.8	15.0	15.0	16.3	16.4
Bananas.....	Doz.	30.9	30.0	31.7	30.8
Oranges.....	Doz.	55.4	52.3	58.0	60.7

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

² 15-16 ounce can.

FOR JUNE 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, 1919, AND MAY 15, 1919, FOR 19 CITIES.

dealers. As some dealers occasionally fail to report, the number of quotations varies from month to month.]

Birmingham, Ala.				Boston, Mass.								Buffalo, N. Y.					
June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
1913	1914	1917	1918			1913	1914	1917	1918			1913	1914	1917	1918		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	
26.8	29.0	34.5	42.1	45.4	43.9	37.0	34.6	41.2	55.1	62.7	60.4	22.8	23.2	31.7	40.9	40.2	41.4
22.5	23.5	31.3	39.7	42.7	41.1	34.0	34.2	41.0	56.8	59.4	55.8	19.8	21.2	29.8	38.6	37.7	38.8
19.9	21.5	26.3	34.0	36.6	35.3	25.0	24.3	29.0	39.4	42.1	40.3	17.5	17.8	25.0	32.6	33.1	32.7
16.8	17.5	22.4	28.9	31.3	30.1	18.0	16.8	24.5	34.6	33.1	30.3	15.5	16.2	22.8	29.1	28.9	27.1
10.5	12.0	17.5	23.0	23.5	21.8							11.8	12.3	17.3	23.3	22.0	20.7
19.5	22.5	31.5	35.2	41.2	40.1	24.0	22.3	32.0	40.5	44.7	42.9	20.3	20.2	32.2	40.6	44.5	43.8
33.8	34.0	44.5	54.1	62.4	61.9	25.4	25.0	41.8	48.0	52.9	53.9	23.3	22.0	41.6	48.0	49.0	49.3
30.0	33.0	42.5	45.4	55.4	56.5	31.8	30.8	42.6	49.1	56.7	58.3	26.3	26.3	41.8	46.9	53.7	55.6
21.7	21.0	31.7	40.0	44.5	44.4	23.0	24.2	33.5	38.3	41.7	40.9	18.7	17.8	27.1	33.9	34.7	33.9
18.7	19.5	22.9	32.3	37.9	36.7	26.2	26.0	31.7	42.8	45.4	46.2	21.7	21.2	29.6	38.7	42.4	43.0
		25.5	28.8	33.0	33.2			28.7	30.9	31.3	31.0			24.3	28.0	28.7	28.7
10.3	10.0	12.2	15.3	20.0	20.0	8.9	8.8	11.0	14.0	15.5	15.0	8.0	8.0	11.0	13.0	15.0	15.0
				16.5	16.6					15.6	15.8					14.5	14.7
40.0	37.0	50.0	53.5	73.9	69.5	35.3	34.9	47.8	51.6	68.4	63.0	32.9	32.0	45.2	49.6	66.2	59.9
				43.5	43.1					40.8	41.3					39.3	40.7
				39.0	39.0					35.9	35.2					33.4	33.6
		34.5	33.2	42.6	42.7			33.0	33.4	42.1	41.6			32.4	31.5	40.5	40.6
15.4	15.2	28.1	32.0	39.4	40.6	16.0	15.7	28.2	32.9	40.0	41.0	14.2	13.7	26.4	30.7	38.9	39.3
				33.8	35.2					33.8	34.7					31.9	32.8
27.0	29.5	40.0	40.5	48.8	47.2	34.4	33.5	49.8	56.1	66.8	67.6	25.8	26.9	41.5	43.4	53.9	54.1
5.3	5.6	10.6	11.5	9.7	9.6	5.9	6.0	9.1	9.1	9.5	9.5	5.5	5.0	9.5	10.0	9.7	9.7
3.8	3.7	7.8	7.2	7.7	7.8	3.7	3.8	8.8	6.9	8.1	7.9	3.0	3.0	7.9	6.2	7.3	7.1
2.2	2.5	4.9	5.4	5.4	5.6	3.6	3.5	6.8	7.3	6.8	7.0	2.6	2.7	5.6	6.9	5.5	6.0
				10.6	11.0					7.4	7.3					7.0	7.0
				14.7	14.7					13.8	13.6					12.9	12.8
				25.3	25.4					24.8	24.8					24.0	24.1
				22.0	21.5					20.4	21.2					20.2	19.9
		10.5	12.5	13.2	14.0			11.2	12.5	13.8	13.8			10.5	12.3	13.0	13.2
		18.9	17.9	13.6	13.9			19.2	17.8	11.8	11.6			20.0	17.4	10.9	11.0
2.3	2.3	6.4	3.4	4.3	5.3	1.7	2.2	6.9	3.2	3.7	3.1	1.8	1.8	7.4	2.5	3.1	3.2
		9.2	5.1	10.5	10.8			6.8	6.0	12.8	14.2			7.2	5.5	10.9	12.0
				9.3	5.8					10.7	6.9					10.1	6.4
				19.5	19.1					18.3	18.5					13.9	13.9
				19.6	19.9					22.1	21.3					18.2	18.2
				21.2	21.2					21.6	21.3					17.3	17.4
				14.2	14.3					17.4	16.8					15.9	16.5
5.2	5.2	9.8	9.1	11.0	11.0	5.1	5.0	8.9	9.2	10.5	10.4	5.2	5.0	9.2	8.9	10.4	10.3
		71.7	75.8	86.3	86.0			64.3	64.3	66.2	66.1			50.4	59.3	66.0	66.5
		32.3	32.1	42.7	43.8			34.5	34.4	45.5	46.9			29.3	29.3	39.1	40.3
		15.3	15.8	24.8	25.0			16.4	16.8	24.1	25.8			15.0	17.3	24.3	26.8
		16.4	15.4	17.6	17.5			14.7	15.2	16.0	16.2			13.0	14.1	14.9	14.8
				39.2	40.0					45.8	46.3					42.6	42.3
				56.7	58.4					59.1	62.9					58.6	57.0

³ Baked weight.
⁴ 8-ounce package.

⁵ 28-ounce package.
⁶ No. 2 can.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR

Article.	Unit.	Chicago, Ill.						Cleveland, Ohio.					
		June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
		1913	1914	1917	1918			1913	1914	1917	1918		
Sirloin steak.....	Lb.	Cts. 23.4	Cts. 24.5	Cts. 30.3	Cts. 37.9	Cts. 39.5	Cts. 38.5	Cts. 25.2	Cts. 27.0	Cts. 31.5	Cts. 41.6	Cts. 41.4	Cts. 42.4
Round steak.....	Lb.	20.3	21.8	26.9	34.9	36.0	34.6	22.0	23.6	29.6	39.0	38.1	38.8
Rib roast.....	Lb.	20.0	20.2	25.1	31.9	34.1	30.8	20.0	19.7	24.9	32.1	32.8	31.6
Chuck roast.....	Lb.	15.9	16.2	22.0	27.9	28.7	26.3	17.2	17.3	23.2	29.4	29.7	27.5
Plate beef.....	Lb.	11.2	12.1	16.8	21.4	21.0	19.5	12.5	11.9	16.9	22.3	21.7	19.6
Pork chops.....	Lbs.	18.8	19.0	27.9	36.0	38.6	37.5	20.7	21.4	32.5	37.3	44.3	43.7
Bacon.....	Lb.	32.0	31.2	43.6	55.0	59.7	59.7	28.6	26.9	43.1	49.0	56.3	57.6
Ham.....	Lb.	32.4	31.9	41.6	48.8	56.6	57.3	36.0	35.0	43.6	49.1	58.3	58.8
Lamb.....	Lb.	20.2	21.2	29.9	35.6	38.4	35.5	19.2	20.3	31.1	36.5	38.1	38.8
Hens.....	Lb.	20.3	19.3	27.6	34.3	41.2	37.7	22.3	20.9	30.3	36.4	45.5	42.8
Salmon (canned).....	Lb.			27.0	30.3	32.2	32.2			25.1	28.9	30.8	30.6
Milk, fresh.....	Qt.	8.0	8.0	10.0	11.9	13.0	14.0	8.0	8.0	10.0	13.0	13.0	13.7
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened). Butter.....	(1) Lb.					14.4	14.6					15.2	15.5
Butter.....	Lb.	32.7	30.8	43.4	46.8	62.4	57.5	36.2	36.6	48.1	50.8	67.7	62.5
Oleomargarine.....	Lb.					38.9	40.0					42.0	43.1
Nut margarine.....	Lb.					33.8	34.0					34.8	35.3
Cheese.....	Lb.			33.6	34.2	42.4	42.5			32.8	32.3	42.9	43.7
Lard.....	Lb.	15.0	15.0	26.3	31.6	37.6	38.6	16.5	16.1	28.6	31.9	41.0	41.8
Crisco.....	Lb.					33.3	34.2					33.6	34.8
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	24.3	24.4	39.6	39.4	51.2	51.1	27.6	27.1	42.5	43.1	54.8	53.4
Bread.....	Lb. ²	6.1	6.1	11.4	10.2	10.0	10.0	5.5	5.6	10.1	10.0	9.7	9.7
Flour.....	Lb.	2.8	2.9	7.8	6.3	7.4	7.2	3.2	3.2	8.2	7.0	7.8	7.9
Corn meal.....	Lb.	2.9	2.8	5.7	6.8	5.8	5.7	2.7	2.9	5.5	6.8	5.8	5.9
Rolled oats.....	Lb.					6.5	6.5					8.2	8.3
Corn flakes.....	(3)					12.5	12.6					13.6	13.9
Cream of Wheat.....	(4)					23.9	23.9					24.4	24.4
Macaroni.....	Lb.					18.8	18.8					18.8	18.6
Rice.....	Lb.			10.2	12.2	13.6	13.6			10.4	12.0	13.3	13.4
Beans, navy.....	Lb.			20.3	17.5	11.3	11.1			20.9	15.6	11.6	12.0
Potatoes.....	Lb.	1.2	2.0	6.7	2.9	2.8	3.1	1.5	2.1	7.3	3.3	3.2	3.8
Onions.....	Lb.			5.3	4.0	10.8	10.4			5.9	4.8	11.4	11.5
Cabbage.....	Lb.					9.1	5.8					10.2	7.1
Beans, baked.....	(5)					16.3	16.5					16.3	16.2
Corn, canned.....	(5)					17.8	17.3					19.6	19.8
Peas, canned.....	(5)					17.5	17.7					19.2	19.6
Tomatoes, canned.....	(5)					16.1	16.2					15.8	15.9
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb.	4.9	5.0	8.8	8.7	10.0	9.9	5.0	5.2	9.0	9.0	10.8	10.8
Tea.....	Lb.			56.0	58.1	62.8	62.0			49.9	61.6	66.3	67.4
Coffee.....	Lb.			28.7	28.2	36.9	38.7			27.8	29.4	41.3	43.2
Prunes.....	Lb.			15.6	16.9	24.5	26.1			15.8	16.1	23.5	25.8
Raisins.....	Lb.			14.5	14.8	16.6	17.7			13.4	14.7	16.2	16.6
Bananas.....	Lb.					35.8	36.3					45.2	45.3
Oranges.....	Lb.					51.4	50.0					54.0	52.4

¹ 15-16-ounce can.² Baked weight.³ 8-ounce package.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

JUNE 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, 1919, AND MAY 15, 1919, FOR 19 CITIES—Continued.

Denver, Colo.						Detroit, Mich.						Los Angeles, Calif.					
June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
1913	1914	1917	1918			1913	1914	1917	1918			1913	1914	1917	1918		
<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
24.2	23.5	31.1	41.2	41.2	40.8	24.2	25.3	29.2	39.4	42.3	42.8	24.0	23.3	27.7	33.1	35.7	35.2
22.1	22.0	29.4	38.7	38.9	38.7	19.4	21.6	28.1	36.5	38.3	38.3	20.8	21.1	24.5	31.1	32.3	31.8
17.8	17.9	24.5	30.7	31.8	32.4	19.4	20.1	26.5	31.5	34.5	33.4	20.0	19.9	23.2	28.5	30.9	30.6
15.8	16.5	21.9	28.3	28.2	27.9	15.0	16.3	21.8	27.7	28.6	27.0	15.8	16.7	19.0	23.7	24.8	23.8
9.4	9.7	15.1	20.1	19.4	19.1	11.5	11.9	16.6	21.8	22.0	20.4	12.1	13.6	14.7	19.7	20.5	19.3
20.3	20.4	30.8	36.1	41.8	41.0	19.2	20.1	29.0	36.8	42.5	42.0	25.4	25.3	31.9	41.7	45.6	45.0
28.0	27.4	45.0	54.8	60.2	60.7	24.0	23.5	41.6	49.3	55.3	55.6	33.8	33.5	46.1	58.5	66.5	66.3
30.0	30.0	44.5	51.1	58.9	60.4	40.0	40.0	48.2	57.2	57.7	59.3	35.8	35.0	46.5	56.4	63.6	64.4
17.8	19.1	30.6	35.3	34.1	35.1	17.4	19.6	33.4	36.9	40.5	38.7	19.2	19.1	25.8	31.4	33.4	32.6
21.2	21.0	28.3	35.8	40.0	39.7	21.6	21.3	29.3	37.6	41.9	41.3	26.6	27.3	26.8	36.2	47.7	46.9
.....	24.8	28.9	32.4	32.2	24.5	30.4	31.5	31.1	34.3	37.4	40.9	37.5
8.4	8.4	9.8	11.2	12.8	13.0	8.0	8.0	11.0	12.0	15.0	15.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	13.0	14.0	14.0
.....	14.7	15.1	14.8	15.0	13.4	13.6
34.3	29.7	43.3	47.8	64.2	56.1	34.0	32.3	45.5	49.2	66.1	61.2	34.5	34.1	43.2	48.1	65.6	64.5
.....	39.2	40.2	39.8	41.4	42.3	43.3
.....	35.4	35.2	34.2	34.0	35.2	35.2
.....	34.6	35.2	43.3	43.5	31.3	32.0	40.6	41.7	33.1	33.6	44.9	44.8
16.3	15.4	29.2	34.2	39.7	40.6	16.1	15.7	28.0	32.4	39.4	40.5	18.0	16.9	27.4	33.2	36.4	38.8
.....	33.2	35.6	33.0	34.3	35.0	37.2
25.0	25.7	40.7	42.4	49.6	50.4	26.0	26.0	42.7	44.5	53.2	53.0	30.5	30.6	38.2	44.7	57.7	55.5
5.4	5.4	10.2	12.0	11.5	11.4	5.6	5.6	9.1	9.6	10.4	10.4	6.0	6.0	9.1	9.1	9.3	9.4
2.6	2.6	6.6	5.6	6.3	6.4	3.1	3.1	8.1	7.1	7.4	7.4	3.6	3.6	7.9	6.9	7.6	7.5
2.4	2.5	4.8	5.8	5.9	5.8	2.8	3.0	6.0	7.2	6.4	6.4	3.2	3.5	6.1	7.3	7.3	7.4
.....	8.5	8.3	7.6	7.4	9.0	9.0
.....	14.6	14.6	14.3	14.0	13.8	13.4
.....	25.0	25.2	24.9	24.8	24.6	24.5
.....	18.8	19.5	19.3	19.5	16.6	16.2
.....	11.4	13.5	13.9	14.3	10.9	12.7	13.3	13.5	10.3	12.8	14.0	14.4
.....	20.0	17.1	11.9	12.6	20.0	16.1	11.1	11.5	18.7	16.7	10.7	10.5
1.4	2.1	6.0	2.6	2.9	3.2	1.5	2.2	7.5	2.7	2.8	3.5	1.6	1.7	3.8	2.2	3.9	3.9
.....	6.8	4.6	9.9	10.7	7.0	4.8	11.7	11.7	4.0	3.2	7.6	8.4
.....	8.5	6.8	10.5	7.5	5.1	4.1
.....	18.9	18.1	16.2	16.3	19.5	18.7
.....	18.0	18.2	19.6	20.6	18.9	18.5
.....	19.4	19.3	18.5	18.6	18.9	18.9
.....	14.8	15.2	16.9	17.1	15.4	16.1
5.4	4.9	9.2	9.5	11.1	11.0	5.0	5.0	8.9	8.9	10.4	10.5	5.3	5.2	8.3	8.7	10.5	10.3
.....	57.4	60.2	68.9	70.2	50.0	56.5	60.6	62.1	55.0	61.1	70.8	67.2
.....	31.1	30.4	40.6	42.4	29.0	30.1	40.2	41.3	30.5	30.4	39.3	43.0
.....	23.6	24.6	15.6	17.4	23.8	26.5	16.3	16.3	23.8	26.0
.....	17.2	16.8	17.4	17.0	13.9	15.3	16.3	16.5	13.7	13.9	16.4	16.0
.....	14.3	15.7	32.7	32.5	41.3	42.5
.....	45.6	43.6	54.8	53.0	39.3	38.5
.....	52.1	50.6

* 28-ounce package.

6 No. 2 can.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR

Article.	Unit.	Milwaukee, Wis.						New Orleans, La.					
		June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
		1913	1914	1917	1918	1919.	1919.	1913	1914	1917	1918	1919.	1919.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb.	Cts. 22.5	Cts. 23.7	Cts. 30.1	Cts. 38.2	Cts. 40.1	Cts. 39.8	Cts. 22.5	Cts. 23.5	Cts. 28.6	Cts. 34.7	Cts. 36.5	Cts. 35.9
Round steak.....	Lb.	21.0	21.8	28.8	37.6	37.7	37.8	19.5	20.4	24.3	31.4	33.5	33.1
Rib roast.....	Lb.	18.5	18.5	25.0	31.5	33.4	31.6	19.4	20.4	23.8	30.7	32.7	32.0
Chuck roast.....	Lb.	16.5	16.3	22.6	29.0	30.1	27.9	14.5	15.0	20.8	24.4	26.8	25.3
Plate beef.....	Lb.	11.5	11.8	16.4	22.1	22.4	20.3	10.9	12.4	15.4	19.4	21.4	20.0
Pork chops.....	Lb.	19.5	19.7	28.9	35.6	40.1	39.5	21.9	24.3	30.7	38.1	43.9	45.2
Bacon.....	Lb.	27.3	27.5	42.0	50.2	57.1	57.3	29.7	30.0	47.9	53.8	62.0	60.6
Ham.....	Lb.	27.8	27.7	40.6	46.2	54.3	55.3	26.8	27.5	38.3	45.4	52.4	55.3
Lamb.....	Lb.	19.5	19.0	31.8	37.9	39.7	39.0	21.3	21.4	29.7	39.2	43.4	40.7
Hens.....	Lb.	21.5	20.3	28.8	34.3	42.9	38.6	20.0	21.9	28.7	37.7	42.4	42.2
Salmon (canned).....	Lb.			24.4	28.8	33.1	33.7			26.9	31.7	36.2	35.6
Milk, fresh.....	Qt.	7.0	7.0	8.0	10.3	12.0	12.0	10.0	9.7	11.2	14.2	16.5	16.5
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	(²)					15.7	15.9					15.0	15.1
Butter.....	Lb.	32.8	32.2	44.3	47.4	64.2	58.8	35.0	33.9	47.6	50.5	68.7	64.1
Oleomargarine.....	Lb.					40.3	41.6					42.4	42.7
Nut margarine.....	Lb.					33.2	33.6					36.1	36.2
Cheese.....	Lb.			31.8	30.0	40.0	40.6			33.1	31.8	42.1	42.1
Lard.....	Lb.	15.4	15.8	28.1	32.2	40.0	40.8	14.9	14.4	26.7	32.5	37.9	40.9
Crisco.....	Lb.					34.0	34.0					34.1	35.3
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	22.2	22.8	38.8	38.0	49.3	46.7	25.6	25.9	38.4	35.9	45.9	48.2
Bread.....	Lb. ³	5.6	6.0	11.4	9.2	9.2	10.0	5.2	4.8	9.1	9.5	9.2	9.2
Flour.....	Lb.	3.1	3.1	8.2	6.5	7.7	7.7	3.8	3.7	8.5	7.3	7.6	7.7
Corn meal.....	Lb.	3.0	3.3	6.8	7.0	5.8	5.6	2.6	2.8	5.2	6.1	5.2	5.3
Rollod oats.....	Lb.					7.4	7.6					8.3	8.5
Corn flakes.....	(⁴)					14.1	13.9					14.1	14.3
Cream of Wheat.....	(⁵)					24.9	25.1					24.7	24.8
Macaroni.....	Lb.					19.1	19.5					11.9	11.4
Rice.....	Lb.			11.2	13.2	14.6	14.7			9.8	11.4	12.2	12.9
Beans, navy.....	Lb.			21.0	15.2	11.1	11.5			17.8	16.6	10.8	10.8
Potatoes.....	Lb.	1.1	2.4	7.1	2.0	3.0	3.1	2.0	2.0	6.3	1.8	4.5	4.3
Onions.....	Lb.			6.0	4.5	10.5	11.6			5.9	3.1	8.2	8.8
Cabbage.....	Lb.					10.6	6.5					4.7	3.8
Beans, baked.....	(⁶)					16.5	16.6					17.8	17.6
Corn, canned.....	(⁶)					18.4	18.3					17.6	17.5
Peas, canned.....	(⁶)					17.9	17.8					19.0	18.9
Tomatoes, canned.....	(⁶)					16.7	17.4					14.9	14.8
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb.	5.3	4.9	8.9	8.8	10.6	10.6	5.1	4.9	9.3	8.8	10.3	10.3
Tea.....	Lb.			57.1	61.2	66.0	65.9			60.0	60.1	69.8	68.6
Coffee.....	Lb.			27.5	27.0	38.3	40.5			26.6	24.9	36.6	37.8
Prunes.....	Lb.			16.0	15.6	22.8	23.9			16.1	16.2	23.7	27.0
Raisins.....	Lb.			14.5	15.0	16.7	16.9			14.8	15.7	17.1	17.0
Bananas.....	Doz.					38.6	38.1					25.7	16.7
Oranges.....	Doz.					54.8	55.1					60.4	58.8

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

² 15-16-ounce can.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

JUNE 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, 1919, AND MAY 15, 1919, FOR 19 CITIES—Continued.

New York, N. Y.					Philadelphia, Pa.						Pittsburgh, Pa.													
June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.							
1913	1914	1917	1918		1913	1914	1917	1918		1913	1914	1917	1918		1913	1914	1917	1918		1913	1914	1917	1918	
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
26.3	26.8	32.3	44.1	45.6	42.2	130.0	130.9	136.5	153.9	154.3	150.1	27.2	28.0	34.9	49.4	48.9	48.3	48.3	48.3	48.9	48.3	48.3	48.3	48.3
25.3	25.8	32.5	45.2	46.9	44.4	25.4	27.2	33.7	49.8	40.4	46.8	23.7	24.7	32.2	46.4	44.9	44.4	44.4	44.9	44.9	44.4	44.4	44.4	44.4
22.5	22.0	27.6	38.2	40.9	37.8	22.3	22.2	27.8	39.7	41.2	39.3	22.7	21.7	27.0	37.6	38.4	36.8	36.8	38.4	38.4	36.8	36.8	36.8	36.8
16.4	16.9	21.8	31.3	32.1	28.9	17.6	18.2	24.0	34.6	33.9	31.0	17.0	17.0	24.3	33.7	32.9	31.4	31.4	32.9	32.9	31.4	31.4	31.4	31.4
15.3	14.9	20.2	28.5	28.1	25.9	12.3	11.9	16.4	23.6	22.4	20.3	11.5	12.8	17.2	24.8	23.4	21.6	21.6	23.4	23.4	21.6	21.6	21.6	21.6
21.5	22.4	32.2	39.7	45.0	44.5	20.8	22.7	34.2	41.0	47.2	46.6	22.0	23.3	32.4	39.7	44.8	42.9	42.9	44.8	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.9
26.0	25.8	42.0	48.4	52.7	50.0	27.1	26.4	41.3	51.1	56.2	55.8	29.0	29.8	43.8	52.9	52.0	52.0	52.0	52.9	52.0	52.0	52.0	52.0	52.0
29.5	30.0	44.1	34.1	58.1	59.0	31.6	30.1	45.0	52.2	59.9	59.5	31.4	43.6	51.5	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0	62.0
17.2	17.2	26.7	33.6	33.9	32.8	21.4	21.3	31.1	39.5	43.1	42.8	21.4	22.0	35.8	39.6	42.2	41.0	41.0	42.2	41.0	41.0	41.0	41.0	41.0
22.1	21.8	29.8	40.3	42.6	43.1	23.2	23.8	30.8	42.9	46.5	46.0	24.8	27.2	34.7	42.8	41.0	41.0	41.0	42.8	41.0	41.0	41.0	41.0	41.0
-----	-----	30.0	35.2	36.6	37.4	-----	-----	24.0	26.9	29.0	28.9	-----	-----	27.3	31.1	32.0	31.7	31.7	32.0	31.7	31.7	31.7	31.7	31.7
9.0	9.0	10.9	12.8	15.7	15.0	8.0	8.0	9.0	12.0	13.0	13.0	8.6	9.2	10.3	12.5	14.3	13.3	13.3	14.3	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3	13.3
34.5	32.8	45.6	50.8	67.2	61.4	39.7	38.1	52.8	56.7	73.3	68.4	36.7	34.9	47.5	52.0	68.6	64.1	64.1	68.6	64.1	64.1	64.1	64.1	64.1
-----	-----	-----	-----	39.5	41.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	42.3	43.5	-----	-----	-----	40.5	-----	-----	-----	40.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
-----	-----	-----	-----	33.5	33.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	36.5	36.7	-----	-----	-----	34.8	35.7	35.7	35.7	34.8	35.7	35.7	35.7	35.7	35.7
16.1	15.7	27.3	32.6	33.9	43.1	43.0	-----	-----	-----	46.8	45.2	-----	-----	-----	41.7	42.4	42.4	42.4	41.7	42.4	42.4	42.4	42.4	42.4
-----	-----	-----	-----	38.7	41.3	15.3	14.8	27.9	32.7	38.1	39.2	15.5	15.4	28.0	32.5	39.4	40.5	40.5	32.5	40.5	40.5	40.5	40.5	40.5
32.8	34.6	44.7	50.3	59.6	62.0	27.7	28.8	43.3	46.4	51.8	53.4	-----	-----	-----	33.6	35.2	35.2	35.2	33.6	35.2	35.2	35.2	35.2	35.2
-----	-----	-----	-----	62.0	27.7	28.8	43.3	46.4	54.7	55.3	55.3	25.5	26.3	42.5	43.7	54.3	54.3	54.3	43.7	54.3	54.3	54.3	54.3	54.3
6.2	6.1	9.9	9.9	8.8	10.0	4.8	4.8	8.9	9.5	9.4	9.4	5.4	5.3	10.4	9.8	10.0	10.0	10.0	9.8	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
3.3	3.2	8.3	7.2	7.8	7.8	3.2	3.1	8.0	7.1	7.5	7.5	3.2	3.2	7.9	6.7	7.6	7.7	7.7	6.7	7.6	7.7	7.7	7.7	7.7
3.5	3.5	6.7	8.0	6.9	6.9	2.7	2.8	4.9	6.8	5.3	5.5	2.7	3.0	6.1	6.9	6.2	6.3	6.3	6.9	6.2	6.3	6.3	6.3	6.3
-----	-----	-----	-----	7.5	7.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	7.7	7.7	-----	-----	-----	8.8	8.8	8.5	8.5	8.8	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5	8.5
-----	-----	-----	-----	12.0	12.0	-----	-----	-----	-----	12.9	12.2	-----	-----	-----	13.4	13.9	13.9	13.9	13.4	13.9	13.9	13.9	13.9	13.9
-----	-----	-----	-----	24.0	24.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	24.2	24.3	-----	-----	-----	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1	25.1
-----	-----	-----	-----	19.7	19.6	-----	-----	-----	-----	20.7	20.5	-----	-----	-----	18.0	17.4	17.4	17.4	18.0	17.4	17.4	17.4	17.4	17.4
-----	-----	10.5	12.2	13.2	13.7	-----	-----	10.8	13.1	14.3	14.5	-----	-----	10.4	12.4	14.1	14.3	14.3	10.4	14.1	14.3	14.3	14.3	14.3
-----	-----	19.0	17.8	12.4	12.5	-----	-----	18.3	17.7	11.8	11.7	-----	-----	19.7	17.4	11.9	12.1	12.1	19.7	11.9	12.1	12.1	12.1	12.1
2.8	2.9	7.9	3.8	4.3	5.4	2.5	3.1	5.3	3.7	4.1	5.0	1.7	2.7	7.1	3.8	3.2	4.2	4.2	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2	4.2
-----	-----	5.9	5.6	11.6	13.0	-----	-----	6.3	4.9	11.6	13.3	-----	-----	6.6	5.0	12.6	12.4	12.4	5.0	12.6	12.4	12.4	12.4	12.4
-----	-----	-----	-----	9.4	7.5	-----	-----	-----	-----	10.5	8.2	-----	-----	-----	11.3	7.9	7.9	7.9	11.3	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9	7.9
-----	-----	-----	-----	15.7	15.2	-----	-----	-----	-----	14.3	14.2	-----	-----	-----	17.3	17.0	17.0	17.0	17.3	17.0	17.0	17.0	17.0	17.0
-----	-----	-----	-----	19.6	19.8	-----	-----	-----	-----	18.4	18.3	-----	-----	-----	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1	19.1
-----	-----	-----	-----	18.1	18.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	18.4	18.4	-----	-----	-----	18.3	18.2	18.2	18.2	18.3	18.2	18.2	18.2	18.2	18.2
-----	-----	-----	-----	14.7	15.3	-----	-----	-----	-----	14.3	14.7	-----	-----	-----	15.0	16.2	16.2	16.2	15.0	16.2	16.2	16.2	16.2	16.2
4.8	4.5	8.4	8.8	9.9	10.0	4.9	4.5	8.3	8.7	10.0	10.0	5.5	5.5	9.4	9.5	10.6	10.7	10.7	9.5	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.7	10.7
-----	-----	50.9	55.5	55.0	56.6	-----	-----	56.6	60.3	61.5	61.4	-----	-----	65.7	73.8	78.0	80.0	80.0	65.7	73.8	80.0	80.0	80.0	80.0
-----	-----	26.3	27.9	36.7	39.5	-----	-----	27.4	27.3	36.2	38.4	-----	-----	28.5	29.8	40.6	43.4	43.4	28.5	29.8	43.4	43.4	43.4	43.4
-----	-----	15.9	17.3	26.9	29.4	-----	-----	15.3	16.8	24.2	29.4	-----	-----	15.4	17.7	24.7	26.5	26.5	15.4	17.7	26.5	26.5	26.5	26.5
-----	-----	14.1	15.1	15.9	16.2	-----	-----	13.4	14.3	14.9	15.6	-----	-----	14.4	14.3	15.9	16.9	16.9	14.4	14.3	16.9	16.9	16.9	16.9
-----	-----	-----	-----	36.4	36.1	-----	-----	-----	-----	36.0	36.6	-----	-----	-----	42.5	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.5	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.9	42.9
-----	-----	-----	-----	57.6	56.3	-----	-----	-----	-----	55.3	53.2	-----	-----	-----	58.5	56.0	56.0	56.0	58.5	56.0	56.0	56.0	56.0	56.0

3 Baked weight.
 4 8-ounce package.
 5 28-ounce package.
 6 No. 2 can.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR

Article.	Unit.	St. Louis, Mo.					San Francisco, Calif.						
		June 15.				May	June	June 15. ^{mi}				May	June
		1913	1914	1917	1918	1919.	1919.	1913	1914	1917	1918	1919.	1919.
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb.	23.7	27.3	31.5	38.4	41.3	39.7	20.7	20.7	22.5	32.7	32.3	31.0
Round steak.....	Lb.	22.2	24.3	30.5	37.9	41.1	39.4	19.0	19.7	21.9	32.0	31.3	29.6
Rib roast.....	Lb.	18.3	20.0	25.9	31.2	33.9	32.1	21.0	22.0	21.6	30.1	30.4	29.5
Chuck roast.....	Lb.	14.3	15.9	21.7	26.5	27.7	26.0	14.6	15.6	15.5	23.4	23.1	22.3
Plate beef.....	Lb.	10.7	14.1	16.1	21.2	23.1	20.8	13.3	14.7	14.8	21.5	21.1	19.7
Pork chops.....	Lb.	18.2	19.8	29.1	35.2	40.4	38.3	23.7	24.7	30.6	39.8	45.5	45.5
Bacon.....	Lb.	26.0	26.0	41.7	49.2	56.0	55.5	33.9	33.9	44.1	56.0	62.8	63.0
Ham.....	Lb.	27.3	27.5	41.2	47.7	59.1	60.0	30.0	33.0	41.8	49.4	58.1	59.6
Lamb.....	Lb.	18.0	19.3	31.6	37.9	39.9	38.8	16.7	18.0	23.8	32.1	33.4	34.0
Hens.....	Lb.	18.5	19.0	25.6	33.8	40.5	38.1	23.4	24.0	26.1	37.9	51.2	49.9
Salmon (canned).....	Lb.	26.3	29.7	30.4	31.2	23.4	26.3	27.7	29.0
Milk, fresh.....	Qt.	8.0	8.0	10.0	12.0	13.3	13.3	10.0	10.0	10.0	12.1	14.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	Qt.	14.6	14.9	13.1	13.7
Butter.....	Lb.	34.4	31.8	47.3	50.3	67.3	61.3	34.6	31.4	43.6	50.7	66.3	64.7
Oleomargarine.....	Lb.	37.7	37.9	35.9	39.1
Nut margarine.....	Lb.	34.5	34.3	34.5	34.8
Cheese.....	Lb.	33.4	31.6	40.6	41.0	30.1	31.4	41.2	40.9
Lard.....	Lb.	13.6	12.5	25.3	29.2	38.6	38.7	18.4	16.8	28.5	33.9	36.2	36.6
Crisco.....	Lb.	33.7	34.7	35.5	35.8
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	21.4	21.9	37.0	37.4	48.9	45.1	29.6	30.7	37.1	45.6	56.3	54.8
Bread.....	Lb. ²	5.5	5.6	10.4	10.0	10.0	10.0	5.9	5.9	9.3	10.0	10.0	10.0
Flour.....	Lb.	3.0	2.9	7.6	6.2	7.2	7.1	3.4	3.5	7.3	7.2	7.4	7.5
Corn meal.....	Lb.	2.2	2.5	5.0	5.7	5.2	5.3	3.4	3.5	6.5	7.5	6.5	6.8
Rolled oats.....	Lb.	6.0	6.3	7.8	8.0
Corn flakes.....	(³)	14.0	14.0	14.2	14.3
Cream of Wheat.....	(⁴)	24.1	24.1	24.8	24.9
Macaroni.....	Lb.	14.0	16.4
Rice.....	Lb.	9.9	12.6	13.3	13.6	10.2	13.1	13.1	13.7
Beans, navy.....	Lb.	20.5	17.2	11.1	11.7	19.2	15.9	9.9	10.0
Potatoes.....	Lb.	1.7	1.7	6.3	3.8	3.0	3.4	2.1	2.5	4.2	2.6	3.2	4.0
Onions.....	Lb.	6.3	4.3	10.0	9.6	3.6	2.3	5.6	5.9
Cabbage.....	Lb.	7.7	4.2
Beans, baked.....	(⁵)	16.0	15.7	19.3	19.4
Corn, canned.....	(⁶)	16.1	16.5	19.2	19.5
Peas, canned.....	(⁶)	16.2	16.3	18.2	18.3
Tomatoes, canned.....	(⁶)	14.3	14.6	14.0	14.2
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb.	5.0	4.9	9.0	8.8	10.4	10.4	5.3	5.1	8.1	8.8	10.3	10.3
Tea.....	Lb.	56.5	68.8	72.3	73.6	51.9	53.3	56.0	58.5
Coffee.....	Lb.	28.0	27.5	37.7	40.8	30.0	30.6	37.3	40.8
Prunes.....	Lb.	16.7	16.8	24.3	26.3	14.5	14.3	21.9	23.9
Raisins.....	Lb.	17.0	16.3	16.3	16.7	13.8	13.3	15.6	15.7
Bananas.....	Doz.	32.6	33.3	39.4	40.7
Oranges.....	Doz.	45.8	47.4	53.6	53.2

¹ 15-16-ounce can.² Baked weight.³ 8-ounce package.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

JUNE 15, 1913, 1914, 1917, 1918, 1919, AND MAY 15, 1919, FOR 19 CITIES—Concluded.

Seattle, Wash.						Washington, D. C.					
June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	June 15.				May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
1913	1914	1917	1918			1913	1914	1917	1918		
<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
23.8	24.0	27.0	38.0	40.5	40.0	27.5	28.8	34.4	51.1	52.0	49.9
21.5	21.0	25.8	36.2	37.8	37.8	23.9	25.0	33.3	49.2	48.7	46.5
20.0	18.6	23.3	31.3	33.8	32.8	21.6	21.7	27.7	39.7	41.5	40.0
16.8	15.0	19.5	26.6	27.4	26.3	17.9	17.6	24.3	34.9	35.5	32.6
13.0	12.6	16.1	22.5	23.1	21.9	12.1	13.4	18.8	24.2	23.2	21.2
24.2	24.6	32.6	40.0	48.6	48.4	20.9	22.3	35.5	46.4	47.8	49.1
31.7	31.7	46.1	55.4	63.6	64.0	26.8	25.3	41.0	51.2	55.0	55.1
30.8	30.0	40.7	49.7	58.8	59.2	30.0	29.0	42.6	50.4	58.7	59.0
20.8	20.0	27.4	37.6	40.3	39.2	20.9	22.4	33.1	44.3	47.7	45.7
24.3	23.8	26.3	39.7	46.6	46.0	22.6	23.9	31.0	43.4	48.0	48.0
.....	24.8	28.7	31.3	31.5	24.7	28.6	32.2	32.8
8.5	8.6	11.3	12.5	12.0	13.0	8.0	8.0	10.0	14.0	14.0	14.0
.....	13.7	14.3	15.7	15.7
35.0	32.2	43.9	49.6	65.0	63.5	37.4	35.9	49.2	55.0	74.3	68.6
.....	40.5	41.6	39.5	39.4
.....	36.2	36.3	35.6	36.1
.....	31.1	31.3	43.6	44.0	34.5	33.4	48.5	43.1
17.7	16.3	27.9	33.1	37.7	38.3	14.8	14.1	27.2	33.8	38.3	40.0
.....	35.7	37.1	34.5	36.2
28.5	28.5	40.4	49.6	54.8	56.0	25.6	25.4	42.9	44.3	53.3	54.5
.....
5.5	6.0	10.1	10.8	10.4	10.5	5.7	5.6	10.4	10.0	10.0	10.0
2.9	2.9	6.9	6.1	6.8	6.8	3.8	3.8	8.4	6.5	7.6	7.9
3.1	3.2	6.3	7.5	7.0	7.1	2.5	2.5	5.1	6.1	5.4	5.4
.....	8.0	8.1	9.6	9.7
.....	14.9	14.9	14.0	13.8
.....
.....	27.1	26.3	24.5	24.6
.....	16.3	16.9	21.0	20.6
.....	10.3	13.7	14.2	14.7	10.8	12.5	14.6	14.8
.....	20.3	17.6	10.8	10.5	20.4	18.8	13.2	13.1
1.1	1.8	5.2	1.8	2.6	2.7	1.9	2.8	7.3	3.3	3.2	4.5
.....
.....	4.6	3.3	7.2	7.8	6.2	5.5	12.8	12.6
.....	8.9	7.7	10.8	6.3
.....	22.4	22.3	15.5	15.1
.....	20.6	20.0	20.1	20.2
.....	19.6	20.1	20.0	20.6
.....
.....	17.5	16.9	16.2	16.9
5.9	5.4	9.2	9.1	10.8	10.8	4.9	4.9	8.7	8.9	10.2	10.3
.....	50.8	58.0	62.8	63.2	57.8	69.9	79.1	78.9
.....	30.8	31.7	40.0	43.6	28.6	29.5	39.4	40.3
.....
.....	13.9	15.4	20.2	23.7	16.6	17.6	23.3	25.4
.....	14.1	14.2	17.2	17.5	13.8	15.3	15.8	16.5
.....	50.0	52.2	43.5	44.3
.....	59.6	58.0	61.2	54.6

* 28-ounce package.

† No. 2 can.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES

Article.	Unit.	Bridgeport, Conn.		Butte, Mont.		Charleston, S. C.		Cincinnati, Ohio.		Columbus, Ohio.	
		May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb.	52.1	48.6	39.5	39.2	40.8	40.0	39.0	37.8	42.5	41.2
Round steak.....	Lb.	49.8	46.2	36.8	36.8	40.3	39.7	37.7	37.2	40.8	39.4
Rib roast.....	Lb.	39.6	36.1	32.3	31.9	34.9	34.2	33.7	32.3	36.2	34.2
Chuck roast.....	Lb.	32.7	29.9	26.5	25.8	28.8	28.1	26.7	25.5	31.2	29.8
Plate beef.....	Lb.	20.5	18.6	19.7	19.1	22.2	21.6	24.0	21.0	24.6	23.1
Pork chops.....	Lb.	43.8	40.6	41.0	43.7	44.7	46.1	40.7	39.6	40.3	38.9
Bacon.....	Lb.	58.2	58.2	63.1	65.0	58.1	60.3	53.0	53.7	54.7	54.5
Ham.....	Lb.	61.2	61.2	58.7	61.1	55.0	56.2	54.3	56.7	56.6	57.1
Lamb.....	Lb.	40.1	39.6	37.4	36.3	40.8	40.8	38.0	37.6	37.5	32.5
Hens.....	Lb.	44.9	45.6	42.9	42.8	48.8	49.2	44.7	40.8	41.7	41.3
Salmon (canned).....	Lb.	35.2	34.9	42.8	43.1	30.4	30.5	28.5	28.7	29.2	29.6
Milk, fresh.....	Qt.	15.0	15.0	15.5	15.5	20.3	20.3	14.0	14.0	14.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	(²)	15.5	15.7	15.0	15.4	15.1	15.2	14.5	14.5	14.6	14.8
Butter.....	Lb.	67.9	61.8	65.4	62.4	72.2	67.1	64.8	60.3	65.8	59.8
Oleomargarine.....	Lb.	39.4	40.4	41.5	42.7	40.6	41.9	40.9	41.4
Nut margarine.....	Lb.	34.3	34.5	41.0	43.0	35.1	34.7	35.0	35.5
Cheese.....	Lb.	43.4	42.4	41.6	42.0	42.7	42.2	42.6	43.0	41.2	42.0
Lard.....	Lb.	39.0	40.4	38.4	40.5	38.4	40.3	37.5	39.1	37.7	37.8
Crisco.....	Lb.	33.7	35.1	37.1	38.1	33.7	34.5	31.9	34.3	32.9	34.5
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	62.6	65.8	52.3	58.8	52.7	54.4	47.9	44.3	47.2	41.9
Bread.....	Lb. ³	10.0	10.0	10.0	9.9	10.7	10.0	9.8	9.9	9.8	9.7
Flour.....	Lb.	7.5	7.5	7.6	7.5	7.7	7.8	7.6	7.7	7.4	7.5
Corn meal.....	Lb.	8.3	8.3	7.5	7.7	5.0	5.0	5.0	5.1	5.9	5.8
Rollod oats.....	Lb.	9.2	8.9	8.7	8.7	9.2	9.5	6.7	7.7	8.2	8.0
Corn flakes.....	(⁴)	13.8	13.7	14.6	14.6	14.9	14.9	13.8	13.3	14.0	14.2
Cream of Wheat.....	(⁵)	24.1	24.2	30.0	29.7	25.0	25.0	25.2	24.7	25.0	25.0
Macaroni.....	Lb.	22.9	22.9	19.2	18.5	21.4	21.2	17.1	15.9	18.8	18.6
Rice.....	Lb.	13.8	14.0	12.9	13.2	11.9	12.1	13.3	13.5	12.8	13.2
Beans, navy.....	Lb.	12.2	12.0	11.6	11.8	13.9	13.9	11.1	11.2	10.5	11.2
Potatoes.....	Lb.	3.7	3.6	2.2	2.1	4.1	5.1	3.4	4.8	3.2	3.2
Onions.....	Lb.	12.3	12.6	5.9	8.2	12.5	14.5	9.9	9.2	11.4	13.1
Cabbage.....	Lb.	10.2	8.4	8.3	7.1	7.2	5.8	10.1	6.9	11.3	7.1
Beans, baked.....	(⁶)	16.7	16.5	22.9	22.9	15.3	15.1	15.3	15.1	16.4	15.9
Corn, canned.....	(⁶)	21.5	21.6	18.5	18.7	21.2	21.0	17.1	16.8	15.8	15.6
Peas, canned.....	(⁶)	20.9	20.7	17.9	18.1	21.3	21.2	17.2	17.2	16.1	16.6
Tomatoes, canned.....	(⁶)	16.0	15.8	17.5	16.9	15.9	15.5	14.7	14.6	13.4	14.6
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb.	10.2	10.1	12.0	12.1	10.4	10.5	10.4	10.4	10.6	10.6
Tea.....	Lb.	64.4	64.2	76.8	76.6	78.4	77.1	75.8	74.4	81.5	81.7
Coffee.....	Lb.	39.3	41.8	50.8	51.7	41.2	41.4	37.6	40.0	40.8	42.6
Prunes.....	Lb.	25.3	27.3	21.6	23.4	24.9	25.1	22.7	23.8	22.3	22.3
Raisins.....	Lb.	16.2	17.0	17.3	17.6	15.9	16.2	17.1	18.1	15.7	16.4
Bananas.....	Doz.	37.7	37.9	49.0	47.5	41.8	41.0	35.4	38.2	38.0	38.3
Oranges.....	Doz.	56.6	57.5	53.7	53.4	61.0	60.0	45.4	47.1	52.2	49.4

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "sirloin" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "rump" steak.

² 15-16-ounce can.

OF FOOD FOR 31 CITIES ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1919.

Dallas, Tex.		Fall River, Mass.		Houston, Tex.		Indianapolis, Ind.		Jacksonville, Fla.		Kansas City, Mo.	
May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
42.2	39.2	160.3	158.5	38.7	37.1	41.2	39.7	43.0	43.3	40.8	39.4
40.8	38.3	50.6	48.3	38.7	37.1	40.6	39.2	40.0	39.8	38.1	37.3
35.0	34.7	37.6	36.1	32.5	30.3	29.7	29.1	34.1	34.1	30.8	29.7
31.8	31.0	30.9	29.1	29.5	27.5	28.6	26.7	28.1	27.7	26.3	24.9
26.4	25.8			26.1	24.4	23.1	19.8	22.4	21.1	21.0	20.0
41.7	41.5	41.6	41.6	40.5	41.4	42.4	40.5	42.3	43.3	39.3	38.0
62.1	64.9	51.8	53.2	61.0	63.8	54.9	55.8	56.7	58.3	58.8	58.9
59.0	57.0	54.1	55.6	50.6	51.5	58.4	58.8	55.9	56.8	56.2	56.8
43.9	44.3	39.1	38.6	40.0	40.0	45.8	42.0	38.6	36.7	34.3	32.5
37.8	37.8	45.8	46.3	43.3	38.3	39.0	38.2	41.0	41.1	39.0	38.0
31.6	30.7	29.9	30.2	31.4	30.8	26.7	26.9	31.7	32.8	32.9	32.2
18.0	18.0	15.0	15.0	17.5	17.8	12.7	12.7	18.0	18.0	15.0	15.0
16.0	16.6	15.7	15.7	15.7	16.0	15.4	15.6	15.3	15.6	15.3	15.8
62.3	60.6	68.7	62.1	67.0	63.5	63.8	58.9	71.5	68.1	66.6	63.3
35.9	36.4	39.5	40.1	39.8	41.6	41.5	43.2	40.6	41.7	38.2	39.1
36.4	36.2	36.9	36.8	37.5	37.5	35.4	35.4	35.8	37.0	35.4	35.4
42.8	43.5	42.7	43.2	40.8	40.3	41.9	43.0	42.2	42.1	42.9	43.4
37.3	38.2	39.4	41.0	35.0	37.3	39.8	39.9	37.4	38.2	40.8	42.4
39.6	37.1	33.9	36.1	34.1	33.1	34.4	36.3	33.4	34.3	35.9	37.7
44.0	46.1	63.5	68.2	44.1	46.0	48.4	44.8	49.1	53.3	49.7	47.8
10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	8.9	8.9	9.5	9.7	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
7.4	7.6	7.9	7.9	7.8	7.8	7.6	7.6	7.7	8.0	7.0	7.0
6.7	6.7	8.4	8.2	6.0	6.1	5.3	5.6	5.4	5.4	6.7	6.6
9.7	10.3	9.5	9.4	7.3	9.4	8.0	7.7	10.4	10.5	10.1	9.8
14.6	14.6	14.2	14.2	14.2	14.3	14.5	14.5	14.4	14.7	15.0	15.0
25.5	24.8	25.2	25.1	24.7	25.5	26.2	26.1	25.3	25.3	24.6	25.0
19.4	21.2	22.2	22.2	15.3	19.2	20.0	20.3	21.8	19.9	18.5	19.0
12.9	13.3	13.4	14.0	11.8	12.6	13.7	13.9	12.9	13.4	13.3	12.9
12.7	12.7	12.3	11.8	11.9	12.2	11.6	11.8	13.3	13.5	13.1	12.5
3.8	4.9	3.8	3.9	3.8	4.2	2.9	3.2	4.6	5.3	3.2	3.0
9.2	11.1	12.3	14.1	8.4	8.2	11.1	11.8	9.4	11.8	11.4	10.5
7.6	4.4	11.9	8.3	5.9	4.9	9.9	6.8	5.9	5.9	9.4	5.6
19.8	19.2	17.3	16.9	18.6	18.8	17.8	18.1	18.2	17.5	16.7	16.4
19.4	19.0	19.9	20.1	16.9	17.5	18.2	18.3	20.4	20.7	16.8	16.3
20.0	21.5	19.7	20.1	17.9	17.6	17.8	17.2	20.2	21.5	17.5	17.2
14.7	14.8	15.1	14.9	12.6	13.6	15.5	16.4	14.6	15.0	16.4	16.1
11.3	11.2	10.7	10.5	10.8	10.9	11.0	11.0	10.6	10.6	11.1	11.0
78.4	83.0	57.6	55.3	64.2	64.4	83.3	81.8	85.4	83.7	81.4	78.9
45.5	49.6	41.2	43.2	36.9	38.8	42.3	45.2	44.3	47.7	40.6	44.8
22.7	24.0	21.9	24.6	23.0	23.8	24.1	25.8	23.0	25.2	21.5	23.3
16.6	16.5	16.6	17.2	16.3	16.2	18.9	18.7	18.1	18.5	18.2	18.7
39.2	39.5	40.2	40.0	34.3	35.9	30.4	30.6	38.6	37.5	42.9	42.8
49.6	50.2	53.5	52.5	52.4	51.8	48.6	47.9	63.3	70.0	56.1	53.5

³ Baked weight.

⁴ 8-ounce package.

⁵ 28-ounce package.

⁶ No. 2 can.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF

Article.	Unit.	Little Rock, Ark.		Louisville, Ky.		Manchester, N. H.		Memphis, Tenn.	
		May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
		<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
Sirloin steak.....	Lb.	41.1	40.3	39.3	39.1	156.0	154.0	42.3	41.5
Round steak.....	Lb.	39.4	38.2	38.1	38.1	51.1	49.0	40.5	39.0
Rib roast.....	Lb.	35.6	34.5	32.2	32.1	34.7	33.3	33.3	33.8
Chuck roast.....	Lb.	28.3	28.8	28.8	27.9	31.2	29.6	29.4	29.3
Plate beef.....	Lb.	24.0	22.8	24.1	23.0			24.0	22.8
Pork chops.....	Lb.	41.6	41.5	40.1	39.6	42.3	40.1	40.7	40.9
Bacon.....	Lb.	59.4	59.4	57.6	58.3	52.8	52.0	60.0	60.7
Ham.....	Lb.	55.3	55.9	57.5	57.4	52.9	52.4	56.2	58.2
Lamb.....	Lb.	40.9	41.9	40.8	40.0	39.4	38.1	42.5	41.2
Hens.....	Lb.	37.5	34.7	43.7	40.4	45.8	46.4	39.0	38.8
Salmon (canned).....	Lb.	32.6	33.2	29.3	29.9	31.3	31.2	33.7	33.0
Milk, fresh.....	Lb.	16.0	16.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	18.0	18.0
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	(2) Lb.	16.2	16.5	14.9	15.3	16.5	16.6	16.2	16.8
Butter.....	Lb.	67.3	64.1	66.3	63.5	73.3	67.9	70.6	64.6
Oleomargarine.....	Lb.	41.0	43.5	41.6	42.7	38.8	39.9	42.4	41.1
Nut margarine.....	Lb.	38.1	38.3	35.0	35.4	34.0	34.8	40.6	40.6
Cheese.....	Lb.	42.1	42.8	41.4	41.6	40.5	40.8	41.9	42.1
Lard.....	Lb.	37.6	40.7	39.2	39.8	39.5	40.6	40.2	41.8
Crisco.....	Lb.	34.5	36.0	34.1	34.7	34.8	35.8	32.9	35.8
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	46.5	49.9	48.4	45.1	60.8	65.5	48.5	47.9
Bread.....	Lb. ³	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	9.3	9.3	10.0	10.0
Flour.....	Lb.	7.5	7.6	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.8	7.8
Corn meal.....	Lb.	5.8	5.9	5.2	5.6	7.1	7.1	5.3	5.4
Rolled oats.....	Lb.	10.8	10.6	7.4	8.6	8.7	8.7	9.3	9.9
Corn flakes.....	(4) Lb.	14.7	14.8	13.7	14.1	14.8	14.8	14.4	14.3
Cream of Wheat.....	(5) Lb.	24.9	24.9	25.2	25.2	24.9	25.1	24.5	24.8
Macaroni.....	Lb.	18.0	18.9	18.6	17.6	23.4	23.5	20.2	19.2
Rice.....	Lb.	12.7	13.5	13.3	13.6	13.2	13.3	12.3	13.3
Beans, navy.....	Lb.	13.3	13.4	12.0	12.1	11.8	11.7	12.9	13.5
Potatoes.....	Lb.	3.6	4.2	3.1	4.1	3.7	3.3	3.4	4.2
Onions.....	Lb.	11.4	11.0	11.0	8.9	10.8	14.2	9.5	9.3
Cabbage.....	Lb.	9.8	5.4	9.7	5.4	12.3	8.2	8.5	5.8
Beans, baked.....	(6) Lb.	17.5	17.3	16.8	16.6	19.1	18.5	18.9	19.3
Corn, canned.....	(7) Lb.	17.6	18.0	18.0	18.0	21.8	22.2	18.3	18.3
Peas, canned.....	(8) Lb.	18.5	18.1	18.8	18.8	20.5	20.6	18.0	18.1
Tomatoes, canned.....	(9) Lb.	15.4	15.4	14.9	14.8	15.1	18.8	15.2	15.1
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb.	11.2	11.2	10.7	10.8	10.6	10.5	10.9	10.8
Tea.....	Lb.	86.0	88.1	78.9	80.1	60.4	60.4	84.9	87.8
Coffee.....	Lb.	43.9	47.0	42.0	43.9	42.6	43.6	41.1	45.8
Prunes.....	Lb.	21.3	23.7	21.4	24.0	22.4	23.5	25.2	26.1
Raisins.....	Lb.	18.5	19.2	17.0	17.4	16.8	17.0	17.2	17.7
Bananas.....	Doz.	40.0	37.7	37.9	38.6	37.5	38.8	39.6	41.0
Oranges.....	Doz.	57.2	57.9	47.9	49.0	55.5	55.1	53.5	52.2

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

² 15-16-ounce can.

FOOD FOR 31 CITIES ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1919—Continued.

Minneapolis, Minn.		Mobile, Ala.		Newark, N. J.		New Haven, Conn.		Norfolk, Va.		Omaha, Nebr.	
May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
38.9	38.4	38.3	37.1	48.2	45.6	56.2	53.9	48.5	47.8	43.6	42.1
36.7	36.6	38.3	35.8	48.6	46.2	50.8	49.1	43.2	43.2	40.9	39.4
32.4	32.6	32.5	31.5	39.8	36.7	40.9	39.6	37.1	37.7	32.9	30.9
26.8	24.8	27.9	27.3	33.1	29.6	35.7	33.7	31.9	31.3	28.3	27.3
20.4	18.4	24.0	21.9	23.6	21.2	-----	-----	22.0	21.1	21.0	20.1
40.1	39.6	47.3	47.1	44.7	44.6	42.3	40.1	41.7	42.1	39.4	38.9
58.8	59.8	61.4	61.7	50.4	51.4	57.4	59.4	54.1	55.5	59.7	60.9
56.6	57.3	54.6	53.6	55.0	55.0	60.3	61.7	49.4	54.5	58.1	58.8
33.8	32.6	40.0	36.9	41.2	41.4	42.1	41.3	47.0	43.0	40.5	36.2
38.4	35.3	44.2	44.5	44.4	44.2	45.7	47.0	47.1	46.4	39.4	37.1
36.9	37.3	31.2	31.8	34.2	34.3	33.0	33.1	30.5	30.4	31.9	31.9
12.0	12.0	17.5	17.5	15.5	15.7	14.8	14.4	22.5	22.5	13.5	13.3
15.5	16.0	16.5	17.1	14.4	14.4	15.0	15.2	15.3	15.3	15.9	16.2
62.0	56.7	71.9	66.1	68.1	63.1	68.5	63.1	74.1	69.4	65.9	61.1
39.0	38.5	41.8	42.8	40.2	40.9	41.3	42.4	43.8	46.2	41.4	43.1
31.6	31.8	39.1	40.6	34.6	34.9	36.2	36.3	38.3	39.0	35.6	36.0
39.6	40.1	41.6	42.2	43.9	43.8	42.3	42.4	42.3	42.6	40.8	41.3
38.9	40.5	38.3	41.9	39.0	40.9	39.8	40.9	36.8	39.5	40.3	43.1
33.5	35.0	33.1	34.1	31.9	33.0	34.1	35.2	33.9	36.0	34.9	35.0
48.2	42.7	50.4	50.9	60.2	62.7	61.0	65.2	53.3	54.4	49.6	48.1
9.2	9.6	9.7	9.7	9.8	9.8	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.9	10.0	10.0
7.2	7.2	7.6	7.7	7.8	7.8	7.6	7.6	7.8	7.8	7.2	7.3
6.1	6.3	5.9	6.0	7.2	7.2	7.5	7.4	6.2	6.1	6.1	6.3
6.2	6.3	10.7	10.5	8.1	8.7	8.8	8.8	10.1	9.7	8.2	8.8
14.3	14.6	14.7	14.7	12.5	12.5	13.8	13.9	14.5	14.1	14.9	15.0
25.2	25.3	26.3	26.2	23.4	23.6	24.6	24.5	25.3	25.5	25.2	25.5
20.4	19.2	19.5	19.3	19.9	19.8	20.9	21.0	21.3	19.8	15.4	19.5
13.5	13.8	12.7	13.1	13.8	13.9	13.7	14.3	14.5	14.2	14.1	14.1
10.0	10.6	13.5	13.5	12.6	12.4	12.9	12.6	12.5	12.5	12.5	12.7
2.7	2.8	4.2	4.8	3.8	4.6	3.9	3.8	3.7	4.0	3.0	3.1
10.9	11.0	11.3	11.4	12.8	13.6	13.4	12.7	11.6	12.8	12.3	10.1
9.8	8.2	7.0	3.4	10.8	7.5	11.3	8.2	8.9	5.7	8.3	7.3
18.8	18.6	17.6	17.3	15.4	15.2	18.5	18.4	14.5	14.5	20.6	20.9
16.7	16.8	19.3	19.9	20.4	20.5	21.8	22.0	21.5	21.6	17.0	17.2
17.6	17.6	19.6	20.1	18.6	18.9	21.7	21.3	22.0	22.2	17.8	18.0
16.6	17.0	15.1	14.7	14.5	15.1	20.0	17.2	15.5	17.5	17.1	17.2
10.7	10.7	10.9	11.0	10.1	10.1	10.2	10.3	10.4	10.4	10.9	10.9
61.1	61.5	76.8	76.3	55.8	56.3	61.2	60.8	82.6	80.1	77.2	77.1
41.7	43.9	37.3	38.4	38.2	40.6	41.5	43.7	41.8	44.9	44.6	45.0
25.3	26.4	21.7	23.9	25.1	28.6	26.1	27.2	23.0	25.4	24.4	25.6
16.1	16.5	18.3	18.0	15.3	15.4	16.5	16.5	16.7	16.8	18.0	19.1
43.9	43.3	31.2	30.4	39.2	38.8	36.2	36.3	38.9	38.8	42.5	40.0
58.1	57.1	56.8	57.5	60.6	60.6	57.3	58.1	58.2	58.2	50.3	50.0

♣ Baked weight.
♠ 8-ounce package.

♢ 28-ounce package.
♣ No. 2 can.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF

Article.	Unit.	Peoria, Ill.		Portland, Me.		Portland, Oreg.		Providence, R. I.	
		May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak.....	Lb..	38.7	37.9	¹ 63.0	¹ 59.4	34.9	34.5	¹ 66.8	¹ 64.9
Round steak.....	Lb..	38.4	37.4	54.7	50.4	33.3	32.4	54.7	52.4
Rib roast.....	Lb..	29.6	29.6	36.7	33.8	31.4	31.6	43.9	40.6
Chuck roast.....	Lb..	27.2	25.7	30.4	27.5	25.9	25.0	38.0	35.8
Plate beef.....	Lb..	21.3	19.8			20.5	19.2		
Pork chops.....	Lb..	39.0	38.9	43.3	41.9	44.7	45.0	45.2	43.7
Bacon.....	Lb..	58.9	58.9	52.3	52.4	59.3	59.5	54.0	54.4
Ham.....	Lb..	56.9	56.6	54.8	55.2	56.8	57.8	62.0	63.4
Lamb.....	Lb..	39.4	37.9	39.2	38.6	37.0	35.1	44.4	44.6
Hens.....	Lb..	40.2	38.9	46.5	47.1	44.0	41.2	46.6	47.6
Salmon (canned).....	Lb..	30.6	31.3	29.4	29.4	35.2	36.2	34.9	35.1
Milk, fresh.....	Qt.	11.9	11.8	13.6	14.0	14.6	14.4	15.5	15.0
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).....	(²)	15.6	16.1	15.9	16.2	15.0	15.0	15.6	15.5
Butter.....	Lb..	64.2	58.9	72.4	68.7	64.7	62.9	70.1	65.3
Oleomargarine.....	Lb..	41.9	43.1	41.6	42.5	40.0	40.1	37.5	38.0
Nut margarine.....	Lb..	36.1	36.3	35.7	35.8	35.3	35.0	33.8	34.0
Cheese.....	Lb..	43.2	43.5	43.4	43.7	44.2	44.2	43.2	42.2
Lard.....	Lb..	39.0	39.7	40.6	42.0	37.0	39.4	39.7	41.7
Crisco.....	Lb..	35.0	35.2	34.2	36.1	34.7	38.3	34.1	35.0
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Doz.	48.6	43.1	60.4	65.4	49.6	51.8	64.1	67.9
Bread.....	Lb. ³	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	9.9	9.9	10.0	10.0
Flour.....	Lb..	8.0	8.1	7.7	7.7	6.5	6.5	8.2	8.0
Corn meal.....	Lb..	6.1	6.2	6.5	6.4	7.3	7.4	5.8	5.9
Rolled oats.....	Lb..	8.7	9.1	7.5	7.3	8.2	8.5	8.6	8.4
Corn flakes.....	(⁴)	14.9	14.9	14.2	14.1	14.6	14.5	13.9	13.9
Cream of Wheat.....	(⁵)	26.8	26.7	24.9	24.9	28.3	28.3	24.7	24.6
Macaroni.....	Lb..	15.1	15.5	23.1	23.0	17.6	17.5	20.6	20.5
Rice.....	Lb..	14.2	14.1	13.9	13.9	13.8	13.9	13.4	13.3
Beans, navy.....	Lb..	12.1	12.5	12.5	12.3	10.6	10.6	11.8	11.9
Potatoes.....	Lb..	2.9	3.1	3.4	3.1	2.3	2.4	3.9	3.2
Onions.....	Lb..	12.4	12.0	11.8	14.0	5.5	7.8	10.7	13.2
Cabbage.....	Lb..	9.9	7.3	9.9	7.3	8.4	6.4	11.1	7.3
Beans, baked.....	(⁶)	19.2	19.8	19.3	18.9	23.8	23.1	17.1	17.0
Corn, canned.....	(⁶)	16.6	17.6	21.2	20.8	21.7	22.5	20.3	20.6
Peas, canned.....	(⁶)	18.8	18.9	20.5	20.5	21.1	21.5	20.1	20.2
Tomatoes, canned.....	(⁶)	16.3	15.8	19.3	19.7	18.6	19.3	16.4	15.8
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb..	11.1	11.0	10.3	10.3	10.6	10.6	10.5	10.5
Tea.....	Lb..	70.8	72.8	62.8	63.9	60.5	63.3	61.9	59.9
Coffee.....	Lb..	39.0	41.4	42.0	44.7	42.5	44.6	45.3	47.2
Prunes.....	Lb..	26.1	27.6	21.8	23.8	17.1	19.8	24.6	28.8
Raisins.....	Lb..	16.8	17.2	15.1	15.9	15.5	16.3	15.6	16.2
Bananas.....	Doz.			37.5	36.4	43.8	45.0	43.8	41.3
Oranges.....	Doz.	53.3	50.3	62.9	62.5	58.3	58.8	62.2	62.5

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

² 15-16-ounce can.

FOOD FOR 31 CITIES ON MAY 15 AND JUNE 15, 1919—Concluded.

Richmond, Va.		Rochester, N. Y.		St. Paul, Minn.		Salt Lake City, Utah.		Scranton, Pa.		Springfield, Ill.	
May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.	May 15, 1919.	June 15, 1919.
<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
45.4	45.0	41.6	42.0	40.6	40.6	36.0	36.1	48.6	47.8	38.8	38.0
42.7	42.2	39.9	39.2	36.7	37.1	33.3	33.3	44.1	43.3	37.6	37.6
36.9	35.9	34.0	32.3	34.9	34.0	28.1	27.8	38.6	37.7	30.9	29.9
31.7	31.9	31.1	29.0	29.2	28.3	25.3	25.1	32.9	31.6	27.4	26.3
25.4	25.6	23.5	20.6	20.5	19.4	20.0	19.5	22.8	21.2	23.0	21.6
43.4	43.3	44.1	44.2	39.9	39.9	42.8	42.7	46.3	45.8	40.1	39.1
51.8	53.6	48.1	49.6	56.4	58.2	60.6	61.2	60.7	58.1	54.4	54.1
51.8	53.5	53.5	55.1	55.9	57.8	55.7	56.7	58.8	60.0	53.4	54.5
41.4	42.9	39.0	35.9	36.5	34.2	34.4	33.0	44.9	43.3	39.5	38.0
46.2	45.2	45.1	45.5	37.5	35.2	38.3	40.0	46.5	48.4	38.0	36.2
26.6	26.7	30.8	30.2	31.5	31.6	32.8	31.4	34.6	34.7	32.1	32.1
15.5	15.7	13.5	13.5	11.7	11.7	12.5	12.5	13.0	13.0	14.3	14.3
15.8	16.2	15.3	15.2	15.1	15.5	13.4	14.1	15.1	15.1	16.8	17.3
76.0	70.3	67.7	64.1	63.2	58.4	65.1	61.1	68.3	64.1	65.6	60.2
40.3	40.9	41.1	41.2	38.1	38.8	40.0	40.6	41.3	42.3	43.4	44.4
37.4	36.3	33.6	33.6	34.0	34.2	39.2	40.1	35.8	35.9	36.6	37.2
43.1	42.9	41.1	41.2	39.0	39.8	40.4	43.6	42.2	42.3	42.3	45.0
37.8	38.9	38.4	40.3	38.8	41.7	39.3	42.6	39.4	40.7	39.4	40.7
34.7	35.4	32.8	34.3	34.9	36.5	37.9	40.4	34.4	35.3	36.1	38.8
51.5	53.8	52.4	55.4	48.5	46.3	46.6	48.8	54.2	57.3	49.2	43.9
10.4	10.9	10.0	10.0	9.0	9.2	10.2	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0	10.0
7.7	7.6	7.5	7.5	7.2	7.2	6.2	6.0	7.9	7.9	7.5	7.6
5.9	6.0	6.3	6.4	6.0	6.2	7.3	7.4	8.4	8.1	6.6	6.8
10.2	10.1	6.7	6.9	6.8	7.1	8.8	8.4	10.1	10.1	9.7	9.9
14.5	14.8	13.6	13.7	14.5	14.7	14.7	14.8	14.1	14.2	15.0	15.0
25.2	25.4	24.6	24.9	25.7	25.9	25.6	26.3	25.4	25.1	26.9	26.9
18.6	18.4	18.9	19.1	16.9	16.8	16.3	17.2	21.3	21.5	15.4	17.7
14.4	15.2	13.5	13.5	13.6	14.1	12.7	13.7	13.3	13.6	13.5	14.0
13.1	13.3	11.8	11.8	10.3	10.7	12.0	12.3	13.9	14.3	12.5	12.8
3.3	5.0	3.2	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.3	3.8	3.1	3.4	2.9	3.0
11.1	8.7	12.5	12.4	8.5	11.7	13.6	13.1	10.1	11.3	10.4	11.5
9.6	3.1	10.9	7.9	10.4	6.7	9.2	9.8	10.5	7.7	9.5	6.4
15.0	15.0	15.3	14.9	19.8	19.0	16.9	18.4	16.8	16.8	19.3	19.1
18.4	18.8	19.6	19.4	17.5	18.0	17.9	18.7	20.1	20.5	17.2	17.2
21.8	21.9	19.0	19.1	16.5	16.9	17.5	18.1	18.9	19.3	17.3	18.2
17.9	17.3	16.7	16.5	16.3	17.0	16.8	16.8	17.3	17.1	16.5	17.1
10.9	10.8	10.3	10.4	10.9	11.1	11.0	11.0	10.3	10.5	11.0	11.1
83.2	81.3	59.8	60.3	62.0	60.7	68.5	68.5	65.3	64.7	80.0	83.6
39.8	41.2	37.7	39.3	41.5	42.9	47.4	47.9	40.9	44.3	39.1	43.8
22.5	24.5	22.4	23.9	23.4	23.9	18.2	19.3	22.2	22.6	22.9	26.9
16.4	16.6	15.3	15.4	16.3	16.5	15.6	15.4	14.9	15.8	19.1	19.9
42.1	44.1	40.2	40.8	43.8	51.0	35.6	36.2	39.2	43.0
53.8	54.4	58.3	54.8	56.6	56.3	52.5	52.1	56.2	56.1	55.7	52.9

³ Baked weight.⁴ 8-ounce package.⁵ 28-ounce package.⁶ No. 2 can.

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 50 Cities in the United States.

THE table following shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost in June, 1919, of 22 food articles,¹ combined, compared with the cost in 1913, in June, 1918, and in May, 1919. For 11 other cities, comparisons are given for the one-year and the one-month periods, because these cities have been scheduled by the Bureau at different dates since 1913.

The average family expenditure is based on the prices sent to the Bureau by retail dealers and on the average family consumption of these articles in each city.

The amounts given as the expenditures in June, 1918, and in May and June, 1919, represent the amounts necessary to buy a year's supply of these 22 food articles, when purchased at the average retail prices charged in the months specified. This method makes it easier to compare the increase with the year 1913. This year has been selected for the comparison because it was the last year before the war, when prices were normal.

No attempt should be made in this table to compare one city with another as the average number of persons in the family varies according to the cities and these 22 food articles represent a varying proportion of the entire food budgets according to locality. This table is intended to show merely comparisons in the retail cost of these 22 food articles for each individual city. Effort is made to secure prices on similar grades of commodities in all cities. Local customs, however, must be taken into consideration. For example:

1. In Boston, Mass.; Fall River, Mass.; Manchester, N. H.; New Haven, Conn.; Portland, Me.; and Providence, R. I., very little fresh plate beef is sold, and prices are not secured from these cities for this article.

2. The cut of beef known as "sirloin" in Boston, Mass.; Manchester, N. H.; Philadelphia, Pa.; and Providence, R. I., would be known as "porterhouse" in other cities. In these four cities, owing to the method of dividing the round from the loin, there is no cut that corresponds to "sirloin" in other cities. There is also a greater amount of trimming demanded by the trade in these cities.

3. The most of the sales in Newark, N. J., are of whole ham instead of the sliced, as in other cities.

While it is advised that comparisons should not be made as between cities without taking these and other facts relative to local customs into consideration, the figures do represent the trend in

¹ Sirloin steak, round steak, rib roast, chuck roast, plate beef, pork chops, bacon, ham, hens, fresh milk, butter, cheese, lard, eggs, bread, flour, corn meal, rice, potatoes, sugar, tea, and coffee.

the retail cost of these articles to the average family in each individual city.

RETAIL COST OF 22 FOOD ARTICLES,¹ COMBINED, IN JUNE, 1919, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN MAY, 1919, JUNE, 1918, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES.

City.	Average family expenditure for 22 food articles, combined.				Percentage increase June, 1919, compared with—		
	1913	June, 1918. ²	1919		1913	June, 1918.	May, 1919.
			May. ²	June. ²			
Atlanta.....	\$361.00	\$594.26	\$663.14	\$672.94	86	13	1
Baltimore.....	335.15	595.87	662.28	663.13	98	11	(³)
Birmingham.....	377.53	626.27	735.30	736.35	95	18	(³)
Boston.....	388.16	621.45	703.09	681.53	76	10	4 ³
Bridgeport.....	604.12	660.95	643.66	7	4 ³
Buffalo.....	318.15	539.51	607.05	601.26	89	11	4 ¹
Butte.....	438.54	473.36	474.34	8	(³)
Charleston.....	348.60	584.57	680.76	689.18	98	18	1
Chicago.....	336.48	545.22	613.31	604.51	80	11	4 ¹
Cincinnati.....	338.26	537.96	628.27	630.31	86	17	(³)
Cleveland.....	354.01	574.93	652.08	651.41	84	13	(³)
Columbus.....	555.82	640.45	621.95	12	4 ³
Dallas.....	395.41	621.07	717.11	728.19	84	17	2
Denver.....	247.36	411.36	459.89	454.52	84	10	4 ¹
Detroit.....	335.02	559.59	643.31	643.83	92	15	(³)
Fall River.....	375.51	614.23	680.22	673.40	79	10	4 ¹
Houston.....	602.33	689.28	694.49	15	1
Indianapolis.....	345.23	547.91	627.84	615.52	78	12	4 ²
Jacksonville.....	377.10	583.15	669.73	682.31	81	17	2
Kansas City.....	340.12	556.07	636.51	625.14	84	12	4 ²
Little Rock.....	390.14	638.65	700.73	710.52	82	11	1
Los Angeles.....	284.84	402.03	470.78	467.40	64	16	4 ¹
Louisville.....	363.85	593.07	692.32	696.56	91	17	1
Manchester.....	366.01	613.98	672.76	659.30	80	7	4 ²
Memphis.....	368.46	606.84	712.15	720.58	96	19	1
Milwaukee.....	327.25	528.48	622.94	609.84	86	15	4 ²
Minneapolis.....	319.98	512.16	607.15	595.38	86	16	4 ²
Mobile.....	611.21	720.24	722.11	18	(³)
Newark.....	364.92	598.74	645.04	641.90	76	7	(³)
New Haven.....	376.96	639.53	683.41	674.63	79	5	4 ¹
New Orleans.....	369.29	586.29	693.89	697.06	89	19	(³)
New York.....	355.36	581.94	651.61	650.34	83	12	(³)
Norfolk.....	618.30	682.48	691.30	12	1
Omaha.....	334.52	552.98	637.25	627.52	88	13	4 ²
Peoria.....	547.52	618.04	606.46	11	4 ²
Philadelphia.....	352.19	593.25	653.46	646.52	84	9	4 ¹
Pittsburgh.....	350.35	583.96	646.93	642.24	83	10	4 ¹
Portland, Me.....	601.27	676.78	664.99	11	4 ²
Portland, Oreg.....	266.03	⁶ 387.56	451.36	449.01	69	11	4 ¹
Providence.....	380.85	641.53	713.12	695.50	83	8	4 ²
Richmond.....	346.40	594.80	667.98	680.84	97	14	2
Rochester.....	546.63	610.55	605.10	11	4 ¹
St. Louis.....	326.36	549.22	629.48	613.58	88	12	4 ³
St. Paul.....	524.05	609.15	603.58	15	4 ¹
Salt Lake City.....	261.87	394.31	441.37	449.10	72	14	2
San Francisco.....	271.48	407.45	458.89	458.97	69	13	(³)
Scranton.....	335.98	567.03	642.51	641.20	86	13	(³)
Seattle.....	265.35	415.08	465.71	467.36	76	13	(³)
Springfield.....	567.18	626.57	616.33	9	4 ²
Washington.....	354.82	619.08	687.89	691.40	95	12	1

¹ See footnote on page 108.

² Cost of year's supply at prices charged in specified month.

³ Increase of less than five-tenths of 1 per cent.

⁴ Decrease.

⁵ Decrease of less than five-tenths of 1 per cent.

⁶ No flour sold in Portland, Oreg., in June, 1918, by request of Food Administration.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States, 1913, to June, 1919.

WHOLESALE prices in the United States, considered in the aggregate, were slightly lower in June, the Bureau's weighted index number registering 206 as compared with the revised figure of 207 for May. Noticeable decreases occurred in the groups of farm products, food, etc., and chemicals and drugs, the index numbers for these groups dropping from 238 to 230, from 211 to 201, and from 168 to 163, respectively. On the other hand, the index number for cloths and clothing increased from 225 to 250, and that for lumber and building materials from 163 to 171. Slight increases took place in the fuel and lighting and metals and metal-products groups, while in the groups of house-furnishing goods and miscellaneous articles no change was shown.

Among important commodities whose wholesale prices averaged lower in June than in May were rye, wheat, hay, cattle, sheep, poultry, tobacco, beans, butter, cheese, eggs, fish, rye and wheat flour, fresh beef, mutton, rice, potatoes, cast-iron pipe, alcohol, alum, opium, acids, and wrapping paper. Cotton, flaxseed, hides, hops, peanuts, coffee, fruits, lard, hams, corn meal, olive oil, tea, shoes, carpets, leather, silk, wool, cotton and woolen goods, anthracite coal, coke, ingot copper, lead pipe, bar silver, zinc, lumber, linseed oil, turpentine, rosin, and jute were higher in June than in May, while barley, corn, hogs, canned goods, lamb, milk, salt, sugar, vinegar, matches, petroleum, steel, brick, lime, and cement were practically unchanged in price.

Comparing prices in June, 1919, with those of a year ago, it is seen that the index number for farm products increased from 214 to 230, that for food articles from 179 to 201, and that for cloths and clothing from 243 to 250. During the same time the index number for fuel and lighting increased from 171 to 180, that for lumber and building materials from 148 to 171, and that for house-furnishing goods from 192 to 231. In the same period the index number for miscellaneous articles, including such important commodities as cottonseed meal, jute, malt, lubricating oil, newsprint paper, rubber, starch, soap, plug tobacco, and wood pulp, increased from 199 to 214, while that for metals and metal products dropped from 177 to 154 and that for chemicals and drugs from 205 to 163.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN SPECIFIED MONTHS, 1913, TO JUNE, 1919, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

[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.										
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
October	103	107	98	87	83	96	109	103	95	99
1915.										
January	102	106	96	86	83	94	106	101	98	98
April	107	105	98	84	91	94	102	101	97	99
July	108	104	99	84	102	94	107	101	96	101
October	105	104	103	90	100	93	121	101	99	101
1916.										
January	108	114	110	102	126	99	140	105	107	110
April	114	117	119	105	147	102	150	109	111	116
July	118	121	126	105	145	98	143	111	122	119
October	136	140	137	128	151	101	135	114	132	133
1917.										
January	147	150	161	170	183	106	144	128	137	150
February	150	160	162	178	190	108	146	129	138	165
March	162	161	163	181	199	111	151	129	140	160
April	180	182	169	178	208	114	155	151	144	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	142	182	134	242	165	164	180
November	211	184	202	151	173	135	232	175	165	182
December	204	185	205	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	187
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	236	199	251	179	183	158	206	233	195	207
October	223	199	253	179	186	157	204	233	197	204
November	219	203	253	182	186	163	201	233	207	206
December	221	207	246	183	183	163	182	233	204	206
1919.										
January	220	204	231	181	172	160	179	233	206	202
February	215	193	220	181	167	162	173	233	207	197
March	226	200	214	180	161	164	171	233	218	200
April	233	207	214	179	151	161	167	231	216	203
May	238	211	225	179	151	163	168	231	214	207
June	230	201	250	180	154	171	163	231	214	206

¹ Preliminary.

Changes in Wholesale Prices in the United States.

INCREASES in the wholesale price of many important commodities in the United States during the second quarter of 1919 are shown by information collected by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in representative markets. Among the articles showing an increase are bacon, hams, lard, corn, corn meal, barley, cotton, cotton goods, hides, leather, shoes, anthracite coal, and copper. On the other hand, some articles, as cattle, beef, sheep, mutton, butter, rye, rye flour, and potatoes decreased in price during the quarter. A number of articles, as hogs, eggs, milk, wheat and wheat flour, oats, rice, sugar, wool and woolen goods, bituminous coal, coke, pig iron, steel billets, spelter, petroleum, and gasoline showed practically no change in price.

Comparing prices in June with those for July, 1918, it is seen that a number of commodities were much higher. Conspicuous examples of these are hogs and hog products, butter, eggs, milk, corn, sugar, wheat and wheat flour, hides, leather, shoes, and anthracite coal. Decreases between these two dates are shown for cattle, beef, sheep, mutton, corn meal, oats, rye and rye flour, potatoes, cotton and wool textiles, coke, copper, pig iron, steel billets, pig tin, and pig lead.

WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY, 1914, 1915, 1916, AND 1917, AND IN CERTAIN MONTHS OF 1918 AND 1919, AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES IN 1913.

AVERAGE MONEY PRICES.

Article.	Unit.	1913	July—				1918				1919			
			1914	1915	1916	1917	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	May.	June.
FOODSTUFFS.														
(a) <i>Animal.</i>														
Cattle, good to choice steers.....	100 lbs.....	\$8.507	\$9.219	\$9.213	\$9.985	\$12.560	\$13.113	\$15.175	\$17.625	\$17.856	\$18.413	\$18.325	\$17.744	\$15.460
Beef, fresh, good native steers.....	Lb.....	.130	.135	.132	.141	.164	.175	.205	.240	.245	.245	.245	.243	.203
Beef, salt, extra mess.....	Bbl.....	18.923	17.250	17.500	18.250	30.500	31.500	31.900	34.875	35.500	35.500	35.500	35.500	35.500
Hogs, heavy.....	100 lbs.....	8.355	8.769	7.281	9.825	15.460	16.300	17.150	17.720	17.850	17.538	20.500	20.763	20.665
Bacon, short, clear sides.....	Lb.....	.127	.141	.111	.157	.248	.293	.271	.276	.286	.289	.326	.331	.333
Hams, smoked, loose.....	Lb.....	.166	.177	.161	.190	.240	.295	.308	.303	.336	.349	.360	.377	.381
Lard, prime, contract.....	Lb.....	.110	.102	.081	.131	.201	.250	.258	.264	.266	.238	.313	.342	.347
Pork, salt, mess.....	Bbl.....	22.471	23.625	18.500	27.167	42.250	50.400	53.200	48.500	42.500	50.375	55.000	57.688	58.250
Sheep, ewes.....	100 lbs.....	4.687	4.538	5.469	6.545	8.600	11.144	14.950	10.975	9.469	9.556	13.500	11.469	7.850
Mutton, dressed.....	Lb.....	.103	.095	.109	.131	.145	.192	.243	.205	.151	.176	.229	.204	.165
Butter, creamery, extra.....	Lb.....	.310	.270	.261	.276	.376	.487	.415	.432	.554	.618	.615	.556	.513
Eggs, fresh, firsts.....	Doz.....	.226	.187	.169	.223	.318	.557	.330	.374	.497	.579	.403	.428	.404
Milk.....	Qt.....	.035	.030	.030	.031	.050	.081	.059	.054	.082	.091	.066	.072	.068
(b) <i>Vegetable.</i>														
Wheat, No. 1, northern.....	Bu.....	.874	.897	1.390	1.170	2.582	2.170	2.170	2.170	2.216	2.223	2.589	2.598	2.458
Wheat flour, standard patent.....	Bbl.....	4.584	4.594	7.031	6.100	12.750	10.085	9.985	10.702	10.210	10.275	12.215	12.419	12.013
Corn, No. 2, mixed.....	Bu.....	.625	.710	.783	.808	2.044	1.775	1.665	1.665	1.385	1.401	1.609	1.772	1.766
Corn meal.....	100 lbs.....	1.599	1.780	1.750	1.982	4.880	4.835	5.350	4.825	3.370	3.150	3.525	3.810	3.938
Oats, standard, in store.....	Bu.....	.376	.369	.529	.405	.764	.799	.872	.765	.693	.653	.681	.695	.693
Rye, No. 2.....	Bu.....	.636	.618	1.036	.966	2.226	1.915	2.648	1.705	1.625	1.613	1.741	1.563	1.487
Rye flour.....	Bbl.....	3.468	3.075	5.533	5.035	11.417	10.356	13.687	10.500	9.169	8.738	10.060	9.350	8.425
Barley, fair to good malting.....	Bu.....	.625	.533	.743	.746	1.391	1.534	1.722	1.125	.957	.956	1.133	1.185	1.141
Rice, Honduras, head.....	Lb.....	.051	.054	.049	.045	.070	.079	.087	.091	.091	.091	.087	.088	.071
Potatoes, white.....	Bu.....	.614	1.206	.444	.863	2.375	1.272	.687	1.035	.993	1.084	1.152	1.211	.926
Sugar, granulated.....	Lb.....	.043	.042	.058	.075	.075	.074	.073	.074	.088	.088	.088	.088	.088

¹ Standard war flour.

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WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY, 1914, 1915, 1916, AND 1917, AND IN CERTAIN MONTHS OF 1918 AND 1919, AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES
 IN 1913—Continued.

AVERAGE MONEY PRICES—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	1913	July—				1918				1919			
			1914	1915	1916	1917	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	May.	June.
TEXTILES AND LEATHER GOODS.														
Cotton, upland, middling.....	Lb.....	\$0.128	\$0.131	\$0.092	\$0.130	\$0.261	\$0.324	\$0.317	\$0.312	\$0.325	\$0.296	\$0.290	\$0.309	\$0.328
Cotton yarn, carded, 10/1.....	Lb.....	.221	.215	.160	.253	.450	.536	.616	.641	.455	.426	.483	.562	
Sheeting, brown, Pepperell.....	Yd.....	.073	.070	.060	.078	.140	.171	.240	(1)	.191	.150	.165	.190	
Bleached muslin, Lonsdale.....	Yd.....	.082	.085	.075	.088	.160	.180	.230	.250	.209	.176	.191	.206	
Wool, 1/4 and 3/8 grades, scoured.....	Lb.....	.471	.444	.557	.686	1.200	1.455	1.455	1.437	1.437	1.200	1.091	1.073	
Worsted yarn, 2/32's.....	Lb.....	.777	.650	.850	1.100	1.600	2.000	2.150	2.150	2.150	1.750	1.500	1.600	
Clay worsted suitings, 16-oz.....	Yd.....	1.382	1.328	1.508	2.000	3.250	4.065	4.275	4.450	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	
Storm serge, all-wool, 50-in.....	Yd.....	.563	.505	.539	.760	1.176	1.308	1.308	1.470	1.642	1.642	1.054	1.103	
Hides, packers' heavy native steers.....	Lb.....	.184	.194	.258	.270	.330	.328	.272	.324	.300	.280	.295	.408	
Leather, chrome calf.....	Sq. ft.....	.270	.275	.280	.460	.540	.530	.550	.640	.630	.660	.680	.710	
Leather, sole, oak.....	Lb.....	.449	.475	.495	.635	.815	.830	.800	.830	.770	.785	.825	.900	
Shoes, men's, Goodyear welt, vici calf, blucher.....	Pair.....	3.113	3.150	3.250	3.750	4.750	4.750	5.000	5.645	6.500	6.500	6.742	6.750	
Shoes, women's, Goodyear welt, gun metal, button.....	Pair.....	2.175	2.260	2.350	2.750	3.500	3.500	3.500	4.500	4.850	4.850	5.000	5.850	
MINERAL AND METAL PRODUCTS.														
Coal, anthracite, chestnut.....	2,240 lbs....	5.313	5.241	5.200	5.507	5.933	6.600	6.370	6.693	7.000	8.050	8.017	8.093	8.222
Coal, bituminous, run of mine.....	2,000 lbs....	2.200	2.200	2.200	2.200	5.000	3.600	3.600	4.100	4.100	4.000	4.000	4.000	
Coke, furnace, prompt.....	2,000 lbs....	2.538	2.000	2.750	2.750	15.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	6.000	5.781	3.900	3.844	4.000
Copper, electrolytic.....	Lb.....	.157	.134	.199	.265	.318	.235	.235	.255	.260	.204	.153	.160	
Copper wire, bare, No. 8.....	Lb.....	.167	.148	.210	.325	.338	.263	.263	.285	.290	.228	.175	.179	
Pig iron, Bessemer.....	2,240 lbs....	17.133	14.900	14.950	21.950	57.450	37.250	36.150	36.600	36.600	33.600	29.350	29.350	
Steel billets.....	2,240 lbs....	25.789	19.000	21.380	41.000	100.000	47.500	47.500	47.500	47.500	43.500	38.500	38.500	
Tin plate, domestic, coke.....	100 lbs....	3.558	3.350	3.175	5.875	12.000	7.750	7.750	7.750	7.750	7.350	7.000	7.000	
Pig tin.....	Lb.....	.449	.311	.391	.389	.620	.842	.880	.932	.796	.715	.725	.719	
Pig lead.....	Lb.....	.044	.039	.058	.069	.114	.068	.070	.080	.081	.056	.051	.053	
Spelter.....	Lb.....	.058	.051	.220	.113	.093	.079	.070	.087	.091	.074	.065	.068	
Petroleum, crude.....	Bbl.....	2.450	1.750	1.350	2.600	3.100	3.750	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	4.000	
Petroleum, refined, water-white.....	Gal.....	.123	.120	.120	.120	.120	.160	.168	.171	.175	.175	.185	.200	
Gasoline, motor.....	Gal.....	.168	.140	.120	.240	.240	.240	.240	.241	.245	.245	.245	.245	

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RELATIVE PRICES.

Article.	1913	July—				1918				1919			
		1914	1915	1916	1917	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	May.	June.
FOODSTUFFS.													
(a) <i>Animal.</i>													
Cattle, good to choice steers.....	100	108.4	108.3	117.4	147.6	154.1	178.4	207.2	209.9	216.4	215.4	208.6	181.7
Beef, fresh, good native steers.....	100	103.8	101.5	108.5	126.2	134.6	157.7	184.6	188.5	188.5	188.5	186.9	156.2
Beef, salt, extra mess.....	100	91.2	92.5	96.4	161.2	166.5	168.6	184.3	187.6	187.6	187.6	187.6	187.6
Hogs, heavy.....	100	104.8	87.0	117.5	184.8	194.9	205.0	211.8	213.4	209.7	245.1	248.2	247.1
Bacon, short, clear sides.....	100	111.0	87.4	123.6	195.3	230.7	213.4	217.3	225.2	227.6	256.7	260.6	262.2
Hams, smoked, loose.....	100	106.6	97.0	114.5	144.0	177.7	185.5	182.5	202.4	210.2	216.9	227.1	229.5
Lard, prime, contract.....	100	92.7	73.6	119.1	182.7	227.3	234.5	240.0	241.8	216.4	234.5	310.9	315.5
Pork, salt, mess.....	100	105.1	82.3	120.9	188.0	224.3	236.7	215.8	189.1	224.2	244.8	256.7	259.2
Sheep, ewes.....	100	96.8	116.7	139.6	183.5	237.8	319.0	234.2	202.0	203.9	288.0	244.7	167.5
Mutton, dressed.....	100	92.2	105.8	127.2	140.8	186.4	235.9	199.0	146.6	170.9	222.3	198.1	160.2
Butter, creamery, extra.....	100	87.1	84.2	89.0	121.3	157.1	133.9	139.4	178.7	199.4	198.4	179.4	165.5
Eggs, fresh, firsts.....	100	82.7	74.8	98.7	140.7	246.5	146.0	165.5	219.9	256.2	178.3	189.4	178.8
Milk.....	100	85.7	85.7	88.6	142.9	231.4	168.6	154.3	234.3	260.0	188.6	205.7	194.3
(b) <i>Vegetable.</i>													
Wheat, No. 1, northern.....	100	102.6	159.0	133.9	295.4	248.3	248.3	248.3	253.5	254.3	296.2	297.3	281.2
Wheat flour, standard patent.....	100	100.2	153.4	133.1	278.1	220.0	217.8	233.5	222.7	224.1	266.5	270.9	262.1
Corn, No. 2, mixed.....	100	113.6	125.3	129.3	327.0	284.0	266.4	266.4	221.6	224.2	257.4	283.5	282.6
Corn meal.....	100	111.3	109.4	124.0	305.2	302.4	334.6	301.8	210.8	220.4	238.3	246.3
Oats, standard, in store.....	100	98.1	140.7	107.7	203.2	212.5	231.9	203.5	184.3	173.7	181.1	184.8	184.3
Rye, No. 2.....	100	97.2	162.9	151.9	350.0	301.1	416.4	268.1	255.5	253.6	273.7	245.8	233.8
Rye flour.....	100	88.7	159.5	145.2	329.2	298.6	394.7	302.8	264.4	252.0	290.1	269.6	242.9
Barley, fair to good malting.....	100	85.3	118.9	119.4	222.6	245.4	275.5	180.0	153.1	153.0	181.3	189.6	190.6
Rice, Honduras, head.....	100	105.9	96.1	88.2	137.3	154.9	170.6	154.3	178.4	178.4	170.6	172.6	139.2
Potatoes, white.....	100	196.4	72.3	140.6	386.8	207.2	111.9	168.6	161.7	176.5	187.6	197.2	150.8
Sugar, granulated.....	100	97.7	134.9	174.4	174.4	172.1	169.8	172.1	204.7	204.7	204.7	204.7	204.7

¹ No quotation.

² Standard war flour.

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WHOLESALE PRICES IN JULY, 1914, 1915, 1916, AND 1917, AND IN CERTAIN MONTHS OF 1918 AND 1919, AS COMPARED WITH AVERAGE PRICES IN 1913—
Concluded.

RELATIVE PRICES—Concluded.

Article.	1913	July—				1918				1919			
		1914	1915	1916	1917	Jan.	Apr.	July.	Oct.	Jan.	Apr.	May.	June.
TEXTILES AND LEATHER GOODS.													
Cotton, upland, middling.....	100	102.3	71.9	101.6	203.9	253.1	247.7	243.8	253.9	231.3	226.6	241.4	256.3
Cotton yarn, carded, 10/1.....	100	97.3	72.4	114.5	203.6	242.5	278.7	289.6	276.0	205.9	192.8	218.6	254.3
Sheeting, brown, Pepperell.....	100	95.9	82.2	106.8	191.8	234.2	328.8	(1)	(1)	261.6	205.5	226.0	260.3
Bleached muslin, Lonsdale.....	100	103.7	91.5	107.3	195.1	219.5	280.5	304.9	304.9	254.9	214.6	232.9	251.2
Wool, 1/4 to 3/8 grades, scoured.....	100	94.3	118.3	145.6	254.8	308.9	308.9	305.1	305.1	254.8	231.6	227.8	251.0
Worsted yarn, 2/32s.....	100	83.7	109.4	141.6	205.9	257.4	276.7	276.7	276.7	225.2	193.1	193.1	205.9
Clay worsted suitings, 16-ounce.....	100	96.1	109.1	144.7	235.2	294.1	309.3	322.0	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
Storm serge, all wool, 50-inch.....	100	89.7	95.7	135.0	208.9	232.3	232.3	261.1	291.7	291.7	187.2	195.9	202.0
Hides, packers, heavy native steers.....	100	105.4	140.2	146.7	179.3	178.3	147.8	176.1	163.0	152.2	160.3	190.8	221.7
Leather, chrome calf.....	100	101.9	103.7	170.4	200.0	196.3	203.7	237.0	233.3	244.4	251.9	263.0	305.6
Leather, sole, oak.....	100	105.8	110.2	141.4	181.5	184.9	178.2	184.9	171.5	174.8	183.7	189.3	200.4
Shoes, men's, Goodyear welt, vici calf, blucher.....	100	101.2	104.4	120.5	152.6	152.6	160.6	181.3	208.8	208.8	208.8	216.6	216.8
Shoes, women's, Goodyear welt, gun metal, button.....	100	103.9	108.1	126.4	160.9	160.9	160.9	206.9	223.0	223.0	223.0	229.9	268.9
MINERAL AND METAL PRODUCTS.													
Coal, anthracite, chestnut.....	100	98.6	97.9	103.7	111.7	124.2	119.9	126.0	131.8	151.5	150.9	152.3	154.8
Coal, bituminous, run of mine.....	100	100.0	100.0	100.0	227.3	162.7	162.7	186.4	186.4	186.4	181.8	181.8	181.8
Coke, furnace, prompt shipment.....	100	78.8	69.0	108.4	591.0	236.4	236.4	236.4	236.4	227.8	153.7	151.5	157.6
Copper, electrolytic.....	100	85.4	126.8	168.8	202.5	149.7	149.7	162.4	165.6	129.9	97.5	101.9	112.1
Copper wire, bare, No. 8.....	100	88.6	125.7	195.6	202.4	157.5	157.5	170.7	173.7	136.5	104.8	107.2	117.4
Pig iron, Bessemer.....	100	87.0	87.3	128.1	335.3	317.4	211.0	213.6	213.6	196.1	171.3	171.3	171.3
Steel billets.....	100	73.7	82.9	159.0	387.8	184.2	184.2	184.2	184.2	168.7	149.3	149.3	149.3
Tin plate, domestic, coke.....	100	94.2	89.2	165.1	337.3	217.8	217.8	217.8	217.8	206.6	196.7	196.7	196.7
Pig tin.....	100	69.3	87.1	86.6	138.1	187.5	196.0	207.6	177.3	159.2	161.5	161.5	160.1
Pig lead.....	100	88.6	131.8	156.8	259.1	154.5	159.1	181.8	184.1	127.3	115.9	115.9	120.5
Spelter.....	100	87.9	379.3	194.8	160.3	136.2	120.7	151.7	156.9	127.6	112.1	112.1	117.2
Petroleum, crude.....	100	71.4	55.1	106.1	126.5	153.1	163.3	163.3	163.3	163.3	163.3	163.3	163.3
Petroleum, refined, water-white.....	100	97.6	97.6	97.6	97.6	130.1	136.6	139.0	142.3	142.3	150.4	150.4	162.6
Gasoline, motor.....	100	83.3	71.4	142.9	142.9	142.9	142.9	143.5	145.8	145.8	145.8	145.8	145.8

¹ No quotation.

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Cost of Living in the United States.

FOLLOWING the presentation in the May, June, and July numbers of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW of data relating to the cost of living in industrial centers, a summary is here presented which gives in the same form the combined figures for 92 localities, comprising 12,096 white families and 741 colored families. Data for the latter are given for 12 cities only. Practically one-third of the white families and one-fourth of the colored families come within the income group \$1,200 and under \$1,500.

In the table for white families it will be noted that the average percentage of expenditure for food decreased as the income increased, with one exception. The last income group expended three-tenths of 1 per cent more for food than the preceding group. The percentage of expenditure for rent and for fuel and light also decreased as the income increased.

On the other hand, the average percentage of expenditure for clothing and for miscellaneous items increased without exception with the increase of income, while the per cent of expenditure for furniture, with two exceptions, increased in the same manner.

Looking at the columns showing surpluses and deficits, it will be seen that both the percentage of families having a surplus and the average amount of surplus increased with the income, but while the percentage of families having deficits decreased with the income the average amount of deficit, with one exception, increased with the income.

The data for colored families show the same general features, but with less uniformity, owing perhaps to the much smaller number of families, on account of which the effect of any unusual conditions in a single family would have a greater effect upon the final results.

AVERAGE AMOUNT AND PER CENT OF EXPENDITURE PER ANNUM FOR THE PRINCIPAL GROUPS OF ITEMS OF COST OF LIVING OF FAMILIES
IN 92 INDUSTRIAL CENTERS, BY INCOME GROUPS.

WHITE FAMILIES.

Income group.	Number of families.	Average persons in family.		Average yearly expenses per family for—						Total average yearly expenses per family.	Surplus.		Deficit.		Families * having neither surplus nor deficit.	Av. surplus (+) or deficit (-) for group.
		Total.	Equivalent adult males.	Food.	Clothing.	Rent.	Fuel and light.	Furniture and furnishings.	Miscellaneous.		Families having—	Average amount.	Families having—	Average amount.		
Under \$900.....	332	4.3	2.89	\$371.61	\$111.63	¹ \$121.65	¹ \$57.19	\$30.31	\$149.81	\$842.91	137	\$47.59	144	\$114.48	51	-\$30.02
\$900 and under \$1,200.....	2,423	4.5	2.98	456.16	156.45	² 149.66	² 64.15	47.85	201.02	1,076.08	1,309	67.33	835	107.35	279	— .62
\$1,200 and under \$1,500.....	3,959	4.7	3.16	515.55	206.50	³ 179.73	³ 73.31	61.95	262.40	1,300.71	2,732	106.34	975	123.03	252	+ 43.09
\$1,500 and under \$1,800.....	2,730	5.0	3.36	571.75	257.38	⁴ 207.17	⁴ 79.35	84.31	335.28	1,536.68	2,112	157.74	525	141.23	93	+ 94.88
\$1,800 and under \$2,100.....	1,594	5.2	3.62	626.52	306.94	⁵ 232.10	⁵ 87.07	97.20	404.27	1,755.74	1,315	233.42	240	155.57	39	+169.14
\$2,100 and under \$2,500.....	705	5.7	4.09	711.86	384.20	⁶ 248.30	⁶ 93.01	116.74	500.08	2,054.97	585	290.65	102	165.68	18	+217.21
\$2,500 and over.....	353	6.4	4.95	859.98	503.03	⁷ 260.21	⁷ 102.03	133.06	608.23	2,466.91	306	404.45	45	213.81	2	+323.34
Total.....	12,096	4.9	3.33	548.50	237.60	⁸ 191.37	⁸ 76.15	73.22	306.10	1,434.36	8,496	155.26	2,866	127.03	734	+ 78.95

PER CENT.

Under \$900.....	2.7	44.1	13.2	¹ 14.5	¹ 6.8	3.6	17.8	100.0	41.3	43.4	15.4
\$900 and under \$1,200.....	20.0	42.4	14.5	² 13.9	² 6.0	4.4	18.7	100.0	54.0	34.5	11.5
\$1,200 and under \$1,500.....	32.7	39.6	15.9	³ 13.8	³ 5.6	4.8	20.2	100.0	69.0	24.6	6.4
\$1,500 and under \$1,800.....	22.6	37.2	16.7	⁴ 13.5	⁴ 5.2	5.5	21.8	100.0	77.4	19.2	3.4
\$1,800 and under \$2,100.....	13.2	35.7	17.5	⁵ 13.2	⁵ 5.0	5.5	23.0	100.0	82.5	15.1	2.4
\$2,100 and under \$2,500.....	5.8	34.6	18.7	⁶ 12.1	⁶ 4.5	5.7	24.3	100.0	83.0	14.5	2.6
\$2,500 and over.....	2.9	34.9	20.4	⁷ 10.6	⁷ 4.1	5.4	24.7	100.0	86.7	12.76
Total.....	100.0	38.2	16.6	⁸ 13.4	⁸ 5.3	5.1	21.3	100.0	70.2	23.7	6.1

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COLORED FAMILIES.

Under \$900.....	136	4.2	2.92	\$375.76	\$104.65	¹ \$100.44	¹ \$47.42	\$28.43	\$134.79	\$791.47	62	\$36.06	27	\$42.18	47	+ \$8.06
\$900 and under \$1,200...	347	4.9	3.31	456.90	158.42	⁹ 128.12	⁹ 56.76	42.00	198.00	1,040.52	171	52.66	88	47.84	88	+ 13.82
\$1,200 and under \$1,500...	193	5.4	3.56	520.69	219.60	¹ 163.88	¹ 66.37	59.95	260.23	1,290.67	112	79.62	36	58.72	45	+ 35.25
\$1,500 and under \$1,800...	43	5.7	4.09	617.03	297.68	193.92	71.38	75.74	309.04	1,564.78	29	134.81	7	143.74	7	+ 67.52
\$1,800 and under \$2,100...	18	6.4	4.24	673.91	298.03	214.15	69.41	93.50	436.10	1,785.11	13	188.77	4	68.84	1	+121.04
\$2,100 and under \$2,500...	3	9.0	6.77	946.49	446.86	168.00	73.47	76.87	461.00	2,172.69	2	61.79	-----	-----	1	+ 41.19
\$2,500 and over.....	1	7.0	5.95	1,027.16	496.70	220.00	69.60	152.00	575.00	2,540.46	1	183.00	-----	-----	-----	+183.00
Total.....	741	5.0	3.39	475.94	177.58	¹⁰ 138.59	¹⁰ 58.80	47.68	216.41	1,115.08	390	68.79	162	53.97	189	+ 24.41

PER CENT.

Under \$900.....	18.4	-----	-----	47.5	13.2	¹ 12.7	¹ 6.0	3.6	17.0	100.0	45.6	-----	19.9	-----	34.6	-----
\$900 and under \$1,200...	46.8	-----	-----	43.9	15.2	⁹ 12.3	⁹ 5.5	4.0	19.0	100.0	49.3	-----	25.4	-----	25.4	-----
\$1,200 and under \$1,500...	26.0	-----	-----	40.3	17.0	¹ 12.7	¹ 5.1	4.6	20.2	100.0	58.0	-----	18.7	-----	23.3	-----
\$1,500 and under \$1,800...	5.8	-----	-----	39.4	19.0	12.4	4.6	4.8	19.7	100.0	67.4	-----	16.3	-----	16.3	-----
\$1,800 and under \$2,100...	2.4	-----	-----	37.8	16.7	12.0	3.9	5.2	24.4	100.0	72.2	-----	22.2	-----	5.6	-----
\$2,100 and under \$2,500...	.4	-----	-----	43.6	20.6	7.7	3.4	3.5	21.2	100.0	66.7	-----	-----	-----	33.3	-----
\$2,500 and over.....	.1	-----	-----	40.4	19.6	8.7	2.7	6.0	22.6	100.0	100.0	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Total.....	100.0	-----	-----	42.7	15.9	¹⁰ 12.4	¹⁰ 5.3	4.3	19.4	100.0	52.6	-----	21.9	-----	25.5	-----

- ¹ Not including 1 family in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
² Not including 44 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
³ Not including 91 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
⁴ Not including 78 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
⁵ Not including 51 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.

- ⁶ Not including 21 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
⁷ Not including 9 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
⁸ Not including 295 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
⁹ Not including 2 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.
¹⁰ Not including 4 families in which rent is combined with fuel and light.

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Prices and Cost of Living in Foreign Countries.

Retail Prices in Belgium,¹ 1914 and 1919.

THE following information relative to retail prices has been prepared by the Belgian Labor Office upon information furnished by its correspondents located in six different districts.

The first 13 articles considered are identical with those for which data were published in the REVIEW before we entered the war, and are the characteristic household necessities. These prices for 1914 were published in the *Revue du Travail*, May 31, 1914.

In order that erroneous deductions may not be drawn from the figures presented certain explanations are deemed necessary. Owing to action of local committees in price fixing, and the National Food and Relief Commission which controlled the supplies of flour, bakeries were required to conform not only to a fixed price, but also to a standard of quantity and quality of bread manufactured. These varied greatly during the course of the war. White wheat bread, which was almost exclusively used in the cities before the war, could be sold only to the sick and became an article of clandestine commerce. In 1918 the price of white wheat bread rose to 15 francs per kilo (\$1.31 per pound). The price of butter on April 1, 1919, is that of clandestine commerce, there being no butter on the open market. The prices quoted for beef are for fresh meat in the open market. Refrigerated meat from Argentina could be purchased on the market at 6 francs per kilo (\$0.53 per pound). In 1918 potatoes and sugar were to be obtained only through clandestine commerce. The former sold as high as 5.5 francs per kilo (\$0.48 per pound) in 1918, and sugar at Tournai at 25 francs per kilo (\$2.19 per pound). Men's and women's woolen stockings were on sale in public supply depots at prices lower than here reported, but in limited quantities. Prices reported for men's felt hats are for new ones. Cleaned and restored hats were and still are much used. The prices for these ranged from 20 to 30 francs (\$3.86 to \$5.79) in 1918, and from 15 to 20 francs (\$2.90 to \$3.86) in 1919.

The following table shows the average prices of 22 articles for the districts from which reports were made. These averages are obtained by dividing the sum of minimum and maximum prices of the article as reported by twice the number of districts reporting. The prices for April, 1914 and 1919 only are here reproduced. The average increase in the price of sugar can not be truly given. In the Government supply depots, where only limited quantities were obtainable, it was 181 per cent, while in the clandestine commerce it was 1,200 per cent.

¹ *Revue du Travail* (Brussels), May 1, 1919, p. 203.

Prices in 1918 were generally higher. The increase in the average prices (sugar excepted) of 13 articles of food in 1918 over 1914, based upon the data collected in the investigation, was 780 per cent.

AVERAGE PRICES OF 22 COMMODITIES IN 6 LOCALITIES IN BELGIUM, APR. 1, 1914, AND APR. 1, 1919, WITH PER CENT OF INCREASE.

Article.	Unit.	Average price.		Per cent of increase.
		Apr. 1, 1914.	Apr. 1, 1919.	
Bread.....	Pound.....	<i>Cents.</i> 2. 63	<i>Cents.</i> 6. 83	160
Coffee.....	do.....	24. 94	65. 98	263
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	23. 16	115. 80	400
Butter.....	Pound.....	27. 83	152. 86	449
Beef.....	do.....	25. 55	94. 41	269
Pork.....	do.....	19. 69	96. 51	390
Lard.....	do.....	16. 89	94. 76	461
Potatoes.....	do.....	1. 14	2. 19	92
Salt.....	do.....	. 61	3. 06	400
Sugar.....	do.....	5. 95	¹ 16. 71- ² 77. 26	¹ 181- ² 1, 200
Rice.....	do.....	5. 43	15. 40	184
Beans.....	do.....	4. 90	11. 46	133
Patrol.....	Gallon.....	12. 42	31. 42	153
Soap.....	Pound.....	9. 19	25. 99	183
Coal.....	50 pounds.....	13. 13	50. 14	280
Beer.....	Quart.....	3. 11	9. 31	200
Shoes, men's.....	Pair.....	443. 90	1, 596. 11	260
Shoes, women's.....	do.....	328. 10	1, 518. 14	363
Socks, men's.....	do.....	57. 90	156. 33	170
Stockings, women's.....	do.....	67. 55	250. 90	270
Shirts.....	Each.....	77. 20	288. 27	247
Felt hats.....	do.....	260. 55	708. 89	172

¹ In Government depots.

² In clandestine commerce.

Retail Prices in Brussels.¹

A supplementary study of increased prices is made in a report published under date of May 15, 1919. The remarks in the preceding report (relating to prices in Belgium) in regard to the manner of collecting the data and to other market conditions apply also to this report.

The prices quoted cover a wider range of articles and are for the first four months of 1919. From the figures reported the two tables following have been computed, showing (1) the relative prices for the first four months of 1919, compared with prices in April, 1914, and (2) the relative decrease in price in February, March, and April, 1919, compared with January, 1919.

RELATIVE PRICES IN BRUSSELS, BELGIUM, JANUARY TO APRIL, 1919, COMPARED WITH APRIL, 1914.

Group of articles.	Relative prices.				
	April, 1914.	1919			
		January.	February.	March.	April.
Prime necessities.....	100	699	564	403	344
Clothing, shoes, heat, and light.....	100	516	471	428	383
Others.....	100	615	522	481	455
Total.....	100	639	534	424	374

¹ Revue du Travail (Belgium), May 15, 1919, p. 338.

RELATIVE PRICES IN BRUSSELS, BELGIUM, FEBRUARY, MARCH, AND APRIL, 1919,
COMPARED WITH JANUARY, 1919.

Group of articles.	Relative prices, 1919.			
	January.	February.	March.	April.
Prime necessities.....	100	81	58	49
Clothing, shoes, heat, and light.....	100	91	83	74
Others.....	100	85	78	74
Total.....	100	84	66	59

Cost of Living in Cuba in 1914 and 1918.

FOR the information of the officers of the United Railways of Havana in connection with the demands being made by the employees for higher wages, the following comparative list of prices of necessities in Cuba for the years 1914 and 1918 was compiled in the office of the company and has been transmitted to this Bureau by the State Department. It is remarked that "great care is said to have been exercised in obtaining the figures, which represent the actual cost to the laborers as learned by actual investigation and not through the usual method of published quotation."

COMPARATIVE LIST OF PRICES OF NECESSITIES IN CUBA FOR THE YEARS 1914 AND 1918.

Article.	Unit.	Price in 1914.	Price in 1918.	Per cent of increase, 1918 over 1914.
Food:				
Eggs.....	Dozen...	\$0.40	\$0.84	110.0
Sugar.....	Pound..	.04	.10	150.0
Milk.....	Quart..	1.11	.19	72.7
Condensed milk.....	Can ² ..	.12	1.25	108.3
Meat.....	Pound..	.15	.30	100.0
Lard.....	".....	.14	.40	185.7
Oil.....	Quart..	.47	1.89	302.1
Bacalao (dried codfish).....	Pound..	.25	1.40	60.0
Tasajo (jerked beef).....	do.....	.20	.75	275.0
Sardines.....	Can ² ..	1.15	1.30	100.0
Bananas.....	Dozen..	.30	.60	100.0
Potatoes.....	Pound..	.04	.10	150.0
Rice.....	do.....	.06	.14	133.3
Beans.....	do.....	1.08	.25	212.5
Flour.....	do.....	.06	.25	316.7
Bread.....	do.....	.08	.20	150.0
Coffee.....	do.....	1.40	.60	50.0
Miscellaneous:				
Hair cut.....	Each..	.15	1.30	100.0
Shoes.....	Pair..	1 2.00	1 5.00	177.8
Suit of clothes.....	Each..	1 12.00	1 25.00	108.3
House rent.....	".....	1 12.00	1 25.00	108.3

¹ Maximum price quoted.

² Size not specified.

³ Not reported.

"Tasajo" (jerked beef) and "bacalao" (dried codfish) are among the principal sources of sustenance for the Cuban laborer. The oil mentioned is used largely throughout Cuba for cooking and table purposes.

Retail Price Changes in Great Britain.

THE following table gives for Great Britain the increase in the cost of food and general family expenditure for January to July, 1919, over July, 1914. The food items included in this report are: Ribs and thin flank of beef, both British and chilled or frozen; legs and breast of mutton, British and chilled or frozen; bacon, fish, flour, bread, tea, sugar, milk; butter, fresh and salt; cheese, margarine, eggs, and potatoes.

The table gives percentages of increase, and is not one of relative prices, as is the table given for the United States. When making comparisons this should be borne in mind, and to obtain the relative price it is necessary to add 100 to the percentage as given, i. e., January, 1919, the increase is 130, the relative price being 230.

The figures represent two comparisons:¹ First, the increase in price based on the same quantities as used in July, 1914; second, the increase in the cost of living, based on the change in the quality of the standard of living. In other words, the increase in column one of the table shows what the wage earner paid for the same quantities of food, while the figures in column two give the change that results from a substitution of one kind of food for another to meet war-time conditions.

The same method is used in family expenditures, the third column showing percentage of increase of all articles and the last column giving approximate figures, based on the increase in cost of all other articles and the estimated changed consumption of food.

INCREASE IN FOOD AND ALL ITEMS IN GREAT BRITAIN BASED ON JULY, 1914.
[Compiled from issues of The Labour Gazette, London.]

Date.	Per cent of increase as compared with July, 1914.			
	Food.		All items in family budget.	
	Retail prices, assuming same quantities.	Expenditures, allowing for estimated change in consumption.	Retail prices, assuming same quantities.	Expenditures, allowing for estimated change in consumption.
July, 1915.....	32½			
July, 1916.....	2 61		3 40-45	
July, 1917.....	104	72	3 75	
July, 1918.....	110	67	4 100-105	75-80
1919.				
January.....	130	79	4 120	90
February.....	130	77	4 120	90-95
March.....	120	79	4 115	90
April.....	113	87	4 110	95
May.....	107	81	4 105	90
June.....	104	87	5 105	95
July.....	109	97	6 105-110	100

¹ For a more complete explanation, see article by Prof. W. F. Ogburn, pp. 169 and 170 in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for May, 1919.

² Including tax on sugar and tea.

³ Not including taxes.

⁴ The increase, excluding additional taxation, on commodities is 7 per cent less.

⁵ The increase, excluding additional taxation, on commodities is 6 per cent less.

⁶ Tax rate not reported.

Cost of Living in Lima, Peru.

A RECENT report of the consul-general at Lima, Peru,¹ shows a considerable increase in the cost of living in that city since the beginning of the war. It is stated that in 1916 the Peruvian Government issued a decree prohibiting the exportation of the principal food products grown in that country, with the exception of sugar and rice, yet the local selling prices of all native products have gradually increased until complaint is so general that the municipal authorities of Lima are now seriously considering the cause of the high cost of all articles of first necessity.

The table following, issued by the municipal authorities of Lima, shows the retail prices of 28 articles in August, 1914, and in April, 1919:

RETAIL PRICES OF 28 ARTICLES OF HOUSEHOLD CONSUMPTION IN LIMA, PERU, AUGUST, 1914, AND APRIL, 1919, AND PERCENTAGE OF INCREASE.

Article.	Unit.	Price in August, 1914.	Price in April, 1919.	Per cent of increase.
Sugar, white.....	Pound..	\$0.06	\$0.11	83.3
Sugar, brown.....	do.....	.04	.08	100.0
Rice, first class.....	do.....	.055	.11	100.0
Rice, second class.....	do.....	.04	.105	162.5
Beans, black.....	do.....	.06	.18	200.0
Beans, bayos.....	do.....	.04	.09	125.0
Beans, panamitos.....	do.....	.04	.09	125.0
Beans, lima.....	do.....	.07	.09	28.6
Beans, garbanzos.....	do.....	.05	.085	70.0
Vermicelli, special.....	do.....	.08	.17	112.5
Vermicelli, ordinary.....	do.....	.07	.14	100.0
Ham.....	do.....	.75	1.50	100.0
Bacon.....	do.....	.625	1.00	60.0
Butter.....	do.....	.70	1.10	57.1
Lard.....	do.....	.14	.34	142.9
Eggs.....	Dozen.....	.60	1.20	100.0
Chickens (full grown).....	Each.....	1.75	3.25	85.7
Charcoal (for cooking).....	Pound.....	.015	.04	166.7
Alcohol (wood).....	Quart.....	.08	.15	87.5
Tomatoes (in cans).....	do.....	.30	.60	100.0
Olive oil.....	do.....	.50	1.37	174.0
Flour.....	Pound.....	.035	.045	28.6
Milk (fresh).....	Quart.....	.10	.25	150.0
Round steak (without bone).....	do.....	.15	.355	136.7
Beef (with bone).....	do.....	.125	.25	100.0
Corn (crude).....	do.....	.025	.055	120.0
Potatoes.....	do.....	.04	.075	87.5
Coal.....	Ton.....	11.00	40.00	263.6

The report states that the increase in price of nearly all imported articles, such as textiles and wearing apparel, is greater in comparison than the above list, that house rent has increased 50 per cent, and that the cost of furniture is 150 per cent higher than before the war. Shoes have increased in price from \$7 to \$12.50 a pair; men's felt hats, from \$4.50 to \$6.50; silk ties, from 75 cents to \$1.50; woolen underwear, from \$5 to \$7 a suit; colored shirts, from \$2.50 to \$3;

¹ Dated Apr. 30, 1919, and transmitted to this Bureau through the State Department.

men's socks from 75 cents to \$1.25 a pair; men's woolen suits from \$40 to \$55; ladies' silk stockings, from \$1.25 to \$3 a pair; white collars, from 30 cents to 35 cents each. The price of room and board in boarding houses has increased from \$40 to \$75 a month, with baths extra. Fruit, such as bananas, oranges, and grapes, is more expensive than in the United States.

Prices of Food in Madrid, Spain, 1914 and 1919.

THE Chamber of Commerce at Madrid, Spain, is authority for the following data,¹ giving a comparison of the prices of certain foodstuffs in that city in 1914 and 1919:

WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD, MADRID, SPAIN, 1914 AND 1919, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN 1919.

Commodity.	Unit.	Wholesale.			Retail.		
		1914	1919	Per cent of increase.	1914	1919	Per cent of increase.
Olive oil.....	Quart....	\$0.175	\$0.24	37.1	\$0.178	\$0.33	85.4
Eggs.....	Dozen....	.23	.554	140.9	.25	.58	132.0
Codfish.....	Pound....	.098	.256	161.2	.114	.28	145.6
Bacon.....153	.377	146.4	.175	.438	150.3
Pork sausage.....368	.544	47.8	.394	.57	44.7
Cheese, La Mancha.....21	.377	79.5	.263	.44	67.3
Sugar.....072	.149	106.9	.079	.158	100.0
White beans.....05	.083	66.0	.06	.087	45.0
Chick peas.....063	.094	49.2	.07	.114	62.9
Pickled sardines.....074	.153	106.8	.087	.175	101.1

High Prices of Building Materials in England.²

A FACTOR of great importance in the almost desperate housing situation in Great Britain is the cost of building materials, said to be such an obstacle in this branch of the reconstruction scheme that houses of the class formerly renting at about \$200 a year if put up now could not be rented profitably at less than \$450.

The following table of prices of certain building materials before the war and in the spring of 1919 illustrates the condition. It should be stated that in the London area transportation is a factor, and that the area in the Midlands of England, for which prices are given, is surrounded by brickyards and lime and cement works.

¹ From Reports on Foreign Markets for Agricultural Products No. 10, p. 13, May 29, 1919. Bureau of Markets, United States Department of Agriculture.

² From Commerce Reports, June 23, 1919. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, United States Department of Commerce.

PRICES OF BUILDING MATERIALS IN ENGLAND BEFORE THE WAR AND IN THE SPRING OF 1919.

Material.	Unit.	Prewar price.	Price in spring of 1919.
In the London area:			
Bricks—			
First, hard stocks.....	1,000	\$3.51	\$19.47
Second, hard stocks.....	do.	7.54	18.25
Tiles—			
Plain red.....	do.	10.22	15.22
Other.....	do.	12.16	29.81
Cement, best Portland.....	Ton.....	\$3.76-9.97	\$16.55-17.28
Lime.....	do.....	0.44 and 0.57	0.69 and 1.45
Slates, best Welsh.....	1,200	61.44	99.88
Iron, common bars.....	Ton.....	43.80	87.60
Lead, sheet, English.....	do.....	105.85	184.93
Wood, best deals.....	Standard	80.30	265.22
In the Midlands:			
3-inch bricks, delivered on site.....	1,000	5.84	18.01
Cement, on site.....	Ton.....	9.12	20.19
Sand, on site.....	Load.....	1.46	1.22
Timber.....	Cubic ft.	0.42-0.49	1.95-2.43
Steel, fixed.....	Cwt.....	2.43-2.67	7.30-9.73
Lead, fixed.....	do.....	5.35-5.84	11.68
Carting.....	Day.....	2.19	6.70

¹ Plus \$2.02 for carting.

It is estimated that not fewer than 10,000,000,000 bricks will be required, and the output at Peterborough (the largest center of the industry) would not exceed some 600,000,000 a year with every kiln in operation. The shortage of railway cars for transportation is a further difficulty.

COOPERATION.

Agricultural Cooperative Enterprises in Canada.¹

THE agricultural cooperative organizations of Canada are divided into two classes: (1) Commercial bodies, such as the Saskatchewan Cooperative Elevator Co. (Ltd.); United Grain Growers (Ltd.); and the United Farmers' Cooperative Co. of Ontario (Ltd.); and (2) educational bodies, which include the United Farmers of Alberta; the Saskatchewan Grain Growers' Association; the Manitoba Grain Growers' Association; and the United Farmers of Ontario. These provincial organizations are still further combined into a Federal body called the Canadian Council of Agriculture, which consists of the executives of the various farmers' organizations, both educational and commercial. This body has its headquarters at Winnipeg.

The Grain Growers' Grain Co. (Ltd.).

The oldest of the commercial bodies—the Grain Growers' Grain Co. (Ltd.)—was organized in 1906 under a charter of the Province of Manitoba and was reorganized on a national basis in 1911. During the 11 years of its existence this company handled 232,740,876 bushels of grain, leased elevators, opened up timber tracts, and established the Grain Growers' Guide, a publication which, starting as a monthly paper, changed to a weekly, and now has a circulation of 55,000 copies per week.

The Alberta Farmers' Cooperative Elevator Co. (Ltd.).

The Alberta Farmers' Cooperative Elevator Co. (Ltd.) was organized in 1913 with 46 locals which represented 4,499 shareholders holding 6,560 shares of stock at a par value of \$393,600. The stock was 20 per cent paid up. At the final meeting of the company in 1917, just before its amalgamation with the Grain Growers' Grain Co. (Ltd.), the records showed that the locals had increased to 145, composed of 14,528 shareholders who held 21,527 shares of stock having a par value of \$1,291,620. The paid-up capital stock at this time amounted to \$563,689.28.

The act of incorporation provided that each shareholder should have one vote irrespective of the number of shares held and pro-

¹ Summarized from a typewritten statement, dated Alberta, April 15, 1919, by the United States Consul at Calgary.

hibited voting by proxy. The shareholders were grouped into locals which elected delegates to represent them at the annual meeting of the company.

During the four years of its existence the company handled 44,477,195 bushels of grain, developed an active live-stock business, opened a cooperative supply department which in 1916-17 moved 2,691 cars, and conducted a large and constantly growing mail-order business in farm machinery. The profits of the company from June 30, 1914, to August 31, 1917, were \$459,777.

United Grain Growers (Ltd.).

In 1917 the Manitoba representatives of the Grain Growers' Grain Co. (Ltd.) amalgamated with those of the Alberta Farmers' Cooperative Elevator Co. (Ltd.), between whom there had always existed the closest cooperation, under the name of the United Grain Growers (Ltd.). The new company adopted the methods of government employed by the Alberta company, thus applying the local and delegate system to the whole company.

On August 31, 1918, at the close of its first year's business the company's records showed that there were 35,000 shareholders, grouped into 337 locals. The number of shares subscribed for was 115,642, having a par value of \$2,891,050. The paid-up capital totaled \$2,159,763. The charter provides that only farmers can hold stock, each person being limited to 100 shares having a par value of \$25. No stock, however, can be sold below \$30 a share. The company's profits for the year ending August 31, 1918, were \$441,760 and a dividend of 10 per cent upon the paid-up par value of the stock was paid.

From 1906 to 1918 the three companies handled a total of 307,129,933 bushels of grain, operated 343 country elevators, 231 flour warehouses, and 181 coal sheds. The present company also operates, under lease, a terminal elevator at Fort William, with a capacity of 2,500,000 bushels, and owns a private terminal elevator at Port Arthur with a capacity of 600,000 bushels. A large business is carried on in hay, posts, twine, wire and bale ties, salt, fruit, vegetables, lumber, builders' supplies, machinery, oats, etc., the "total turnover" amounting, in 1918, to \$5,925,791. The company's live-stock business in the same period amounted to 4,402 cars. A sawmill operated by it in Northern British Columbia has a capacity of 75,000 feet of lumber in a 10-hour day. A general land agency business, together with an insurance department in all its branches, forms another branch of the company's many activities; and the imports of machinery from the United States—and practically all comes from the United States—amounted during the last three years to \$1,561,473.89.

The United Farmers of Alberta.

The United Farmers of Alberta, an organization for educational and propaganda purposes, was organized in 1909. It developed out of the Canadian Society of Equity which was formed by some farmers from the United States who had formerly been members of the American Society of Equity. The company's membership includes approximately 20,000 farmers residing in the Province of Alberta. Its headquarters are at Calgary.

As in the case of the other organizations the members of the United Farmers of Alberta are divided into local associations which report to the central office at Calgary, while the central office keeps in touch with the locals through the medium of circular letters. The locals are represented in the annual convention by elected delegates, "the basis of representation being one delegate for every 10 paid-up members, or major portion of 10." The officers of the association are a president, four vice presidents, and 10 directors, who are elected by the delegates in the annual convention, to carry on the work from year to year. The objects of the association as defined in the constitution are as follows:

1. The fostering and encouragement of cooperative effort to the end—
 - (a) That the moral, intellectual, and financial status of the farmer may be improved thereby;
 - (b) That the rural home may receive more of the necessities, comforts, and conveniences of modern times, and rural life be enriched and improved thereby;
 - (c) That the business of agriculture may receive the proper recognition that its importance justifies in provincial and national affairs;
 - (d) That the Dominion may perform to the best advantage the functions in the Empire which in the economy of nature it is best fitted to perform.
2. To further the interests of farmers and ranchers in all branches of agriculture; to promote the best methods of farming business; to seek to enlarge and increase markets; to gather market information; to obtain by united efforts profitable and equitable prices for farm produce; and to secure the best and cheapest transportation.
3. To watch, influence, and promote legislation relative to the objects specified in the preceding subsections (1) and (2) and to any other matter affecting the farmers' business, and to take any legitimate action necessary for this purpose.
4. To promote social intercourse, a higher standard of community life, and the study of economic and social questions bearing on our interests as farmers and citizens.
5. To settle disputes between members without recourse to law whenever possible.
6. To take into consideration any member's case of grievance, hardship, or litigation, and to defend our membership as far as it may be possible and just.

The association has from its formation taken an active part in influencing legislation and creating public sentiment in regard to questions having to do with the improvement of agricultural conditions. To its efforts may be ascribed most, if not all, of the credit for the passage of a number of acts of this nature, including the prohibition act now operative in the Province.

An organization known as the United Farmer Women of Alberta has developed from the men's cooperative movement, and is carrying on the same kind of work among the farmers' wives and daughters as the United Farmers of Alberta is accomplishing among the farmers. Its form of government and basis of representation are the same as those in the farmers' organization, the officers consisting of a president, vice president, and 10 directors, who also have headquarters in Calgary.

According to the report the United Farmers of Alberta and the United Grain Growers (Ltd.), "constitute the greatest cooperative marketing societies that an agrarian movement has ever produced. * * * As commercial and social organizations these societies have a far-reaching influence in all provincial affairs, and as potential political forces they are to be reckoned with in Dominion as well as provincial parliaments. Among the demands made by the farmer organizations are tariff reform and reciprocity with the United States, according to the Reciprocity Agreement of 1911."

EMPLOYEES' REPRESENTATION.

Activities of Industrial Councils in Great Britain.

FOLLOWING upon the acceptance by the Government of the recommendations contained in the Whitley report, joint industrial councils had, at May 1, 1919, been established by the Ministry of Labor in 33 industries, as follows:¹

Asbestos manufacturing; Metallic bedstead; Bobbin and shuttle making; Bread baking and flour confectionery; Building; Chemical trade; China clay; Coir mat and matting; Elastic web, cord, braid, and small-wares fabrics; Electrical contracting; Electricity supply (including both municipal and company-owned undertakings); Furniture; Gas (including both municipal and company-owned undertakings); Gold, silver, horological, and allied trades; Hosiery; Hosiery (Scottish); Made-up leather goods; Local authorities' non-trading services (manual workers) (England and Wales); Match manufacturing; Packing-case making; Paint, color, and varnish trades; Welsh plate and sheet trades; Pottery; Road transport; Rubber manufacturing; Sawmilling; Silk; Tin mining; Vehicle building; Wall-paper making; Waterworks undertakings (including both municipal and company-owned undertakings); Wool (and Allied) textile; Woolen and worsted (Scottish).

In addition to these applications of the Whitley report, provisional committees had, at May 1, either already drafted, or had been appointed to draft, constitutions for the following 19 industries:

Bleaching, etc., of textiles; Boot and shoe manufacture; Carpets; Flour milling; Glass; Heating and domestic engineering; Locks, safes, and latches; Musical instruments; Needles and fishhooks; Newspapers; Printing; Printing ink; Roller engraving; Shipping; Surgical instruments; Tramways (including both municipal and company-owned undertakings); Wire drawing; Wrought hollow-ware; Zinc and spelter.

Steps have been taken for the application of the Whitley report to Government industrial establishments,² to the civil service,³ and to local authorities' administrative, professional, technical and clerical staffs.

¹ Data taken from British Labour Gazette, London, for May, 1919, p. 176.

² See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for May, pp. 114-116.

³ *Idem*, July, pp. 123 to 126.

Methods of procedure on the Whitley councils are determined by the representatives of the organizations of employers and workers in each particular industry, who are also given a free hand in the drafting of their constitution and the formulation of the functions and objects of their council.

Except in industries where wage-fixing machinery in the form of conciliation boards already exists, the consideration of wages takes a prominent place among the particular objects of joint industrial councils, and the discussion of matters arising out of wage demands takes up a considerable amount of the time of the councils.

In the constitutions of some councils it is provided that no strike, lockout, or arbitration shall take place until the matter in dispute has been considered by the council.

The machinery for conciliation is readily available in those trades for which councils have been formed, but the formation of joint industrial councils is in most cases so recent that not much information is yet available as to the practical value of the machinery set up. However, the small experience so far gained seems to show that a better relationship between employers and workers is already being produced. It should be noted that the two sides on the councils are of the same numerical strength, and that in the event of a deadlock no automatic machinery, except in a few instances, is provided for the settlement of the case. Such a deadlock has already been reached in several cases, but the inability to agree does not seem to have embittered the feeling between the two sides, as in each case, with the approval of both sections, the Ministry of Labor has been asked to take action as indicated in the Wages (Temporary Regulation) Act, 1918.

Referring to the application of the Whitley council plan to the administrative departments of the civil service, an account of which was given in the July issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (pp. 123-126), it should be stated that the committee of 30 representing in equal numbers the Government departments and the civil service associations, which was appointed to consider a Whitley scheme in this connection, submitted its report on May 29, 1919.¹ It recommends the establishment of a national council, departmental councils, and district and office (or works) committees; sets out the constitution of the national council, following this with some notes explanatory of certain provisions in that constitution; and concludes with recommendations respecting the departmental councils and district and office committees. The constitution provides for a national council of 54 members, one-half representing the official side and one-half representing the employees or the staff side; the chairman

¹ Report of National provisional joint committee on the application of the Whitley report to the administrative departments of the civil service. London, 1919. 8 pp. Cmd. 198. Price, 1d. net.

of the council shall be chosen from the official side,¹ and each side shall be represented by a secretary. It is recommended that details as to organization and functions of works committees shall be left to the departmental council concerned when instituted.

Summary of Agreements Made by Joint Industrial Councils.

The action as regards wages and hours, disputes, working conditions, etc., hitherto taken by Whitley councils in a number of industries, is set out in the following statement:²

The council of the asbestos manufacturing industry has established a 48-hour week, without reduction of time rates. Rates for piecework are to be raised 15 per cent, and the shift system is to be considered. The china clay council's agreement provides for a 46-hour week, a time rate of 1s. 1d. [\$0.26] per hour, an increase for pieceworkers, a minimum wage of 2s. [\$6.08] for adult women time workers, and an increase of wages for boys. The coir mat and matting council has agreed, pending a general revision of piece prices, upon a 15 per cent increase on bonuses (20 per cent in eastern counties). The elastic webbing council has agreed that a 48-hour week be established from April 7, and a subcommittee has been appointed to consider rates of wages, especially in reference to women's work. The electrical contracting council has made provision for a 47-hour working week, with one break of 45 minutes' duration in the ordinary full working day. The national conciliation board interim committee of the furniture council has settled a standard rate for London upholsterers and upholsteresses. The council of the gold, silver, horological, and allied trades has agreed upon a standard week of 47 hours. The hoisery council agreed, in December, 1918, upon an additional bonus of 1½d. [\$0.03] in the shilling upon wages earned, making a total of 6½d. [\$0.13] in all; the agreement to remain in force till the end of March, 1919. On April 10 the council agreed upon a 48-hour week, without reduction of time rates, and an increase of 7½ per cent on piece rates. The council of the made-up leather goods trade has adopted a national 48-hour week, a minimum wage of 1s. 5d. [\$0.34] per hour for day workers, and, pending further negotiations on applications recently received, an increase of 12½ per cent for females and for piece workers. The council of local authorities' nontrading services (manual workers) (England and Wales) has resolved that it be a recommendation to all local authorities that the working week for day men or women shall be not more than 47 hours, exclusive of meal times; that any change in hours implied by this resolution shall not entail any loss of pay; that this resolution shall come into operation as and from the last pay day in May; that the question of a one or two break day be left for local settlement; and that in no case where a smaller number of hours are worked shall that number be increased. The council of the match manufacturing industry has agreed that working hours be reduced to 47 per week, with no reduction of rates, and that all Sunday work be considered as outside the 47-hour working week. The council of the packing case making industry has adopted a 47-hour working week. The agreement of the rubber manufacturing council provides for a 47-hour working week, without reduction of time rates; no reduction of piece rates; no increase to be made in the present basis of calculation for output bonus; the agreement to include both men and women. The saw-milling council has adopted a 47-hour working week, without any reduction of wages; the agreement to include both skilled and unskilled workers. The vehicle building council has agreed upon minimum rates, the agreement to remain in force from February 1, 1919. The wool (and allied) textile council has adopted a 48-hour

¹ This also applies to departmental councils.

² Labour Gazette, London, for May, 1919, p. 176.

week, the details of the arrangement and rates of wages to be settled by the district councils. Questions of wages and hours are at present under consideration by several joint industrial councils.

Some of the other recent activities of joint industrial councils may be classified and summarized as follows:

Disputes and Conciliation.

Several councils have devised machinery for dealing with disputes and for undertaking conciliation duties. The principle adopted in some cases is that such matters should be dealt with, where possible, by shop or works committees or by district councils; the national council confining itself to questions affecting the whole industry. The wool (and allied) textile council has established an arbitration panel. The chemical trade council has established an emergency committee of six members constituted by forming a panel from the members of the council in alphabetical order, and appointing the first three on the employers' list and the first three on the workpeople's list to serve for the first month, proceeding through the lists for each subsequent month. This committee is prepared to go at once to any place in which a dispute has arisen which can not be settled locally. The road transport council has agreed that the executive committee constitute a joint arbitration panel, and that a joint traveling arbitration panel, composed of three members (one from each side of the council, with the chairman) be constituted. It is proposed that the district councils, when formed, should endeavor to compose all disputes arising within their areas, and that the traveling panel should be summoned only in cases of extreme urgency. The furniture council has established a national conciliation board.

Councils have recently been invited to express their views with regard to undertaking conciliation where one or both parties to the dispute are not represented on the council. Most of the councils have readily agreed to undertake such duties when requested to do so.

Working Conditions.

Welfare committees have been formed by the building and china clay councils. The home office has been in touch with several councils with a view to improving factory conditions.

Education and the Training of Apprentices.

Committees to deal with education and training of apprentices have been appointed by the building, china clay, electrical contracting, furniture, pottery, silk, vehicle building, and wool (and allied) textile councils. Some of these committees have been in close touch with the board of education and with local education authorities. The building council's education committee has drawn up a report dealing with the entry and training of all apprentices and other recruits for the building industry, schemes of apprenticeship, preapprenticeship education, and prospects in the industry, and general education. The electrical contracting council's committee has drawn up a scheme of apprenticeship in the industry. The committee of the pottery council is considering the regularization of conditions of entering of apprentices into the industry, and the provision of adequate technical education. The committee of the vehicle building council is inquiring into the question of the position of apprentices returning from the army.

Liaison officers have been appointed by the board of education to act in an advisory capacity on most of the joint industrial councils.

Statistics and Research.

The building council has appointed a committee to consider the question of scientific management and reduction of costs, with a view to enabling the building industry to render the most efficient service possible. This committee has held several meetings, and has appointed two subcommittees to deal respectively with questions of improving production and questions of the distribution of the product. The pottery council has appointed a statistical and inquiries committee to inquire into the general problems of the industry. This committee has appointed a subcommittee to get information on wages and making prices, and on the average percentage of profits on turnover. The vehicle building council also has appointed a statistics and research committee.

Subsidiary Trades: Demarcation and Sectional Committees.

The general question of the establishment of demarcation and sectional committees is receiving the attention of several councils. The constitutions of these councils were framed to embrace or to exclude certain sections impinging upon their industry, but this did not wholly solve the problem. The made-up leather goods industry, for example, is divided into three sections—belting manufacture, saddlery and harness manufacture, and fancy leather goods manufacture; and the council has decided that matters relating exclusively to one of these sections should be dealt with by an appropriate subcommittee, whose decisions should be reported to the council for information. The problem of demarcation is more complex in the textile industries, where there is considerable overlapping between wool and cotton, cotton and silk, silk and hosiery, silk and wool, etc. There are indications that to meet this difficulty the councils concerned are proposing to form joint consultative committees for the purpose of determining questions of demarcation.

Organization of Employers and Workpeople.

The following councils have taken action with a view to improving the organization of employers and workpeople in their respective industries: Coir mat and matting, made-up leather goods, pottery, rubber manufacture, and tin mining. The pottery council has passed a resolution to the effect that employers in the industry be requested to grant facilities to trade-union representatives to enter the works at meal times for propagandist purposes and for enrollment of members, provided that no interference with the carrying on of the duties of the workpeople is caused thereby.

Relations with Foreign Office and Board of Trade.

The council of the match-manufacturing industry has been requested by the foreign office and the department of overseas trade to supply information as to (a) the encouragement of study and research with a view to the improvement and perfection of the quality of the product, and of machinery and methods for economical manufacture in all branches of the industry, and (b) the preparation and consideration of statistics and reports relating to the industry throughout the world and the effect on the industry of customs and excise duties. The question of setting up commercial subcommittees, charged with the special work of dealing with matters in which the board of trade and its departments are concerned, is receiving consideration by several councils. Some of these councils are now forming commercial subcommittees. Others have delegated the matters referred to to their general purposes or other standing committee. Liaison officers between the board of trade, including the department of overseas trade, and councils have in some cases been appointed. Most councils directly affected by the question of import restrictions have appointed deputations to state their requirements to the board of trade import restrictions committee.

Formation of District Joint Industrial Councils.

District joint industrial councils have been established by the national joint industrial councils of the following industries: Bread baking and flour confectionery, chemical trade, elastic webbing, electrical contracting, furniture trade, hosiery (Scottish), match manufacture, paint, color and varnish, rubber manufacture, wool (and allied) textile, woolen and worsted (Scottish). Most of the other councils have the question of the formation of district councils under consideration. In some industries district councils are regarded as unnecessary.

Works Committees.

Works committees are being set up under the auspices of the respective joint industrial councils in the following industries: China clay, hosiery (Scottish), match manufacture, pottery, rubber, woolen and worsted (Scottish). Several other councils are at present considering the question of the formation of works committees.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING.

Collective Bargaining for Employees of Government Controlled Telephone Systems.¹

FOLLOWING the failure of the strike of Atlanta telegraphers, who went on strike early in June, 1919, for recognition of their right to organize and the reinstatement of employees said to have been discharged for joining the union, a national strike of commercial telegraphers was called for June 11. The actual number of workers who joined in the strike is not known, the unions claiming large numbers and the telegraph companies maintaining that their business was not crippled by the strike. Two days later a national strike of electrical workers and telephone operators employed by the Bell system was called for June 16, to support the telegraphers in their demands. Both appeared to be for the purpose of forcing governmental and company recognition of the unions and the right of collective bargaining, as well as for an increase in wages. Each strike order was issued by the national officers in response to strike votes previously taken by the membership.

On June 14 the strike of the electrical and telephone workers was averted by an order (Bulletin No. 27, Order No. 3209) issued by Postmaster General Burleson, granting them the right of collective bargaining. The order is as follows:

Employees of telephone companies shall have the right to bargain as individual or collectively through committees or their representatives chosen by them to act for them. Where prior to Government control a company dealt with representatives chosen by the employees to act for them who were not in the employ of the company, they shall hereafter do so. The telephone companies shall designate one or more of its officials who shall be authorized to deal with such individuals or representatives in matters of better conditions of labor, hours of employment, compensation or grievances, and such matters must be taken up for consideration within five days after presentation.

Such employees shall have the right to organize or to affiliate with organizations that seem to them best calculated to serve their interest, and no employee shall be discharged, demoted, or otherwise discriminated against because of membership in any such organization, as prescribed in Bulletin No. 9, issued by me, dated October 2, 1918.² In case of dismissal, demotion, or undesirable transfer of employee where no

¹ Government control of telephone and telegraph systems ceased on July 31, 1919.

² Published in MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for February, 1919, p. 147.

real cause is shown by company for said dismissal, demotion, or undesirable transfer it shall be considered that discrimination was practiced, and upon such finding the employee shall be reinstated to former position with full pay for time lost or shall be reimbursed for any loss sustained by reason of demotion or transfer.

Inability or refusal to perform the regular work of position occupied by them, excessive use of intoxicants, dishonesty, incivility to subscribers or the public shall be considered sufficient cause for dismissal.

Where requests or demands are now pending, the telephone companies shall immediately proceed to negotiate a settlement.

All telephone companies are hereby directed to comply strictly with the requirements of this order, and failure to do so on the part of any official will result in disciplinary action.

A subsequent order (Bulletin No. 27, Order No. 3210), under date of June 16, directed the telephone companies to designate an officer or officers to whom complaints might be made, and whose duty it would be to keep complete records of complaints and the action taken in each case. Following is the text of this order:

Representations have been made to the wire board that employees having grievances are often left in doubt to whom they should be presented. Each telephone company, therefore, shall at once designate an officer or officers of such company to whom complaints may be presented, and shall make such selection known by placing a notice on its bulletin board giving the name or names of the officer or officers so selected. Such officer or officers so appointed by the company shall carefully make a notation of all complaints presented and the hour and date when same is received, and also the action taken on each complaint. This is necessary in order to avoid any controversy as to questions of fact.

Order No. 3209 will be strictly enforced.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

Training for Foremen.¹

CLASSES for foremen are at present being conducted in the city of Detroit under the supervision of the board of education of that city and of the University of Michigan.

The special need for such classes arose from the fact that the lack of cooperation between the school and the shop frequently results in the failure of apprentices to complete their training, causing a loss both to themselves and to industry.

This lack of cooperation, the author states, is due in many instances to the absence of proper understanding and sympathy between the average foreman and the apprentice. The foreman often has little patience with a boy whose theoretical knowledge of a craft surpasses his practical ability; while, on the other hand, the boy underestimates the skill of a foreman who is unable to transfer his practical knowledge to paper.

The apprentice through the various opportunities for training afforded him can perfect his work, but the problem has been to provide a means whereby the foreman might come to appreciate the character of the boys' training in the school and adapt his course in shop instruction to it in such a manner as to shorten and intensify the apprenticeship course.

A solution of the problem has been found in the organization of classes for foremen. These classes are being conducted at the Cass High School or in the plant schools, for the Northway Motor Co., Cadillac Motor Co., Ford Motor Co., and for several other plants. About 200 men are at present in attendance.

It is pointed out that in the formation of such classes the cooperation of the plant executives is essential. They call the men together and explain the nature of the work to them. The enrollment is voluntary. Classes of 20 and not to exceed 30 men do the best work. The classes meet once each week for two hours, this being about all the time the average foreman can spend in addition to the home work required.

¹ Classes for foremen, by E. Lewis Hayes, Vocational Summary, June, 1919, pp. 32, 33. Federal Board for Vocational Education, Washington.

The course is divided into three or four terms, each of three months' duration. The instruction falls into two classes:

1. Subject matter supplementary to his daily employment to be given as regular evening instruction in the interest of the foreman as a producer.

2. Subject matter having to do with the foreman as an instructor and leader of men to be given as a part of a teacher-training program.

The following analysis of the terms' work is given:

If in the first term he (the foreman) has mastered square root, the Pythagorean theorem, threads and gear calculation, cutting speeds, feeds and taper cutting, together with enough elementary algebra to handle textbook formulas, very good progress has been made. He should have also had some free-hand lettering and enough sketching to know the proper placing of views and how to dimension them correctly.

In the second term can be taken up for discussion subjects that are more particularly in the foreman's sphere, such as handling and disciplining men, relation of employer to labor, shop transfers, labor turnover, relation to other departments in plant, time study, production of schedules, premium systems, care of shop equipment and tools, etc. For many of these subjects it is advisable to call in experts in the plant, who will give talks which outline the policies and processes best suited to the needs of their particular plant.

Elementary instruction is given in chemistry, which will enable the men to better understand heat treatment and working of metals. The use of the slide rule is taken up and plenty of shop problems given. Mathematics should be carried to a point where the men can solve the right triangle and make calculations for laying out a bevel gear, spirals, and other tool-room problems.

The third term should be given over entirely to teacher training as provided for by the plan of the State board for vocational education (conducted in this State by the University of Michigan).

In this work a careful analysis is made of the various machine tools, including types, names of parts, tools used on machines, machinist's tools, standard operations, together with calculations necessary to each operation as outlined in the course for machinists compiled at the Cass Technical High School of Detroit. Especial attention is given to accident prevention. The material which is being collected with the assistance of these experienced foremen is quite comprehensive.

On completing this work, courses of study leading to the mastery of each machine are made up, and attention is given to arranging the machines and processes in proper sequence for the efficient instruction of the apprentice.

Though the instruction in Detroit applies chiefly to tool room and metal work and, therefore, consists largely of mathematics and related subjects, those interested in the management of the classes are confident that the methods used might be as applicable to other lines of work where the character of the instruction would of necessity be different.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

British Labor Exchanges and United States Employment Offices.¹

By BENJAMIN M. SQUIRES.

THE British system of labor exchanges and the work of these exchanges during the period 1913-1915 have been described somewhat in detail in a bulletin of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics.² Federal employment offices in the United States under the Division of Information of the Bureau of Immigration, and their work, have been dealt with in a bulletin on public employment offices.³ The reorganized Federal Employment Service has been described in the MONTHLY REVIEW,⁴ which, moreover, has contained from time to time summaries of the activities of employment offices under different systems and essential changes in organization. Therefore, it is not the purpose of this article to consider at length details of organization or administration or to attempt an exhaustive analysis of returns, but rather to emphasize outstanding points of resemblance or difference in the two systems.

Apart from the meteoric existence of the United States Employment Service, "born of the war" and forced by lack of appropriation to suspend many of its activities shortly after the signing of the armistice, the most noticeable contrast between it and the institutionalized British system is to be found in the organization necessary to serve adequately yet economically such widely different areas with such unlike density of population.

The United Kingdom is essentially an industrial community. In its area of 121,428 square miles—less than half the area of the State of Texas and only about one twenty-fifth that of the United States—are 46,407,000 people, nearly half as many as are in the United States. The United States has an average population of 33.7 persquare mile; the United Kingdom, 382.2, or more than ten times as many. British industry is highly centralized as compared with industry in the United States. As a consequence, there is a vast difference in the problem of establishing clearing areas in the two countries.

In February, 1919, the United States Employment Service was administered through 748 employment offices, each State theoretically having a district office and the remaining offices being branches. The British employment system at that time, including temporary

¹ The maps and charts accompanying this article were prepared by Mr. A. H. Stockder, of Columbia University. Acknowledgment is also made to Mr. A. E. Tyler, of the Employment Department of the British Ministry of Labor, for much of the basic material pertaining to the British system.

² The British System of Labor Exchanges, Bulletin 206, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

³ Public Employment Offices in the United States, Bulletin 241, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

⁴ MONTHLY REVIEW, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1918, pp. 76-78.

offices, was made up of 440 exchanges and 1,121 branch employment offices, a total of 1,561. Each office in the United States was responsible, on an average, for the employment needs of 136,387 persons scattered over 4,048 square miles; each office in the United Kingdom for but 29,729 persons in the relatively compact area of 78 square miles. To maintain the same ratio in the United States as in the United Kingdom of employment offices to area would require nearly 39,000 offices; to maintain the ratio to population would require nearly 3,500 offices.

The distribution of labor exchanges and employment offices at the time mentioned above is shown in the following tables. It is more strikingly presented in the accompanying maps of the two countries showing the location of the offices.

DISTRIBUTION OF FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES BY AREA AND POPULATION, FEBRUARY, 1919.

State.	Area, square miles.	Population in 1916.	Number employment offices, February, 1919.	Average area per office.	Average population per office.
Alabama.....	51,998	2,332,608	12	4,333	194,384
Arizona.....	113,956	255,544	9	12,662	26,394
Arkansas.....	53,335	1,739,723	8	6,667	217,465
California.....	158,297	2,938,654	24	6,586	122,444
Colorado.....	103,948	962,060	10	10,395	96,206
Connecticut.....	4,965	1,244,479	14	355	88,891
Delaware.....	2,370	213,380	2	1,185	106,690
District of Columbia.....	70	363,980	3	23	121,327
Florida.....	58,666	893,493	11	5,333	81,227
Georgia.....	59,265	2,856,065	11	5,388	259,642
Idaho.....	83,888	428,586	7	11,984	61,226
Illinois.....	56,665	6,152,257	50	1,133	123,045
Indiana.....	36,354	2,816,817	15	2,424	187,788
Iowa.....	56,147	2,224,771	16	3,509	139,048
Kansas.....	82,158	1,829,545	9	9,129	203,283
Kentucky.....	40,593	2,379,639	10	4,060	237,964
Louisiana.....	48,506	1,829,130	10	4,851	182,913
Maine.....	33,040	772,489	9	3,671	85,832
Maryland.....	12,327	1,362,807	10	1,233	136,281
Massachusetts.....	8,266	3,719,156	32	258	116,224
Michigan.....	57,980	3,054,854	21	2,761	145,469
Minnesota.....	84,682	2,279,603	14	6,049	162,829
Mississippi.....	46,865	1,951,674	12	3,905	162,640
Missouri.....	69,420	3,410,692	14	4,959	243,621
Montana.....	146,997	459,494	13	11,307	35,346
Nebraska.....	77,520	1,271,375	12	6,460	22,615
Nevada.....	110,690	106,734	1	110,690	106,734
New Hampshire.....	9,341	442,506	14	667	31,608
New Jersey.....	8,224	2,948,017	19	433	155,159
New Mexico.....	122,634	410,283	7	17,519	58,612
New York.....	49,204	10,273,375	59	834	174,125
North Carolina.....	52,426	2,402,738	8	6,553	300,342
North Dakota.....	70,837	739,201	7	10,120	105,600
Oklahoma.....	70,057	2,202,081	11	6,369	200,189
Ohio.....	41,040	5,150,356	40	1,026	128,759
Oregon.....	96,699	835,741	12	8,058	69,645
Pennsylvania.....	45,126	8,522,017	71	636	120,028
Rhode Island.....	1,248	614,315	8	156	76,789
South Carolina.....	30,989	1,625,475	7	4,427	232,210
South Dakota.....	77,615	698,509	7	11,088	99,787
Tennessee.....	42,022	2,288,004	12	3,502	190,667
Texas.....	265,896	4,429,566	24	11,079	182,898
Utah.....	84,990	434,083	3	28,330	144,694
Virginia.....	42,627	2,192,019	13	3,279	168,617
Vermont.....	9,564	363,699	6	1,594	60,617
Washington.....	69,127	1,534,221	14	4,938	109,587
West Virginia.....	24,170	1,386,038	8	3,021	173,255
Wyoming.....	97,914	179,559	5	19,583	35,912
Wisconsin.....	56,066	2,500,350	34	1,649	73,540
United States.....	3,026,789	102,017,312	748	4,048	136,387

FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN THE UNITED STATES

FEBRUARY 1919



Same scale as United States

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM JANUARY 1919



LEGEND
■ DIVISIONAL OFFICES
★ EXCHANGES
• BRANCHES

x DISTRICT OFFICE
• LOCAL OFFICE

EMPLOYMENT OFFICES

IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

JANUARY 1919



DISTRIBUTION OF LABOR EXCHANGES IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.¹

Name of division.	Labor ex- changes.	Branches.	Total.
London and South Eastern.....	74	78	152
South Western.....	36	178	214
West Midlands.....	42	64	106
South Midlands and Eastern.....	30	154	184
Yorkshire and East Midlands.....	53	108	161
North Western.....	72	54	126
Northern.....	32	69	101
Scotland.....	51	161	212
Wales.....	31	119	150
Ireland.....	19	136	155
United Kingdom.....	440	1,121	1,561

¹ From revised list submitted by Employment Department of Ministry of Labor, as of April, 1919. Temporary offices are included. The list for January, 1919, excluding temporary offices, showed 406 exchanges and 1,068 branches.

The British labor exchanges system was established in 1909, after a number of inquiries into the problem of unemployment. Prior to this date labor bureaus had been set up in many cities by municipal "distress committees" under the authority and stimulus of the Unemployed Workmen Act of 1905. These for the most part had fallen into disrepute as labor exchanges in the true significance of the term. In this respect they resembled many of the so-called public employment offices of this country, patronized chiefly by the unemployable or at best by casual labor, and looked upon as a form of public charity.

The bill providing for a system of labor exchanges was introduced to give effect to proposals of the Board of Trade. These proposals were laid before Parliament during the course of a debate on the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Poor Laws and Relief of Distress in regard to unemployment. It is interesting to note, however, that previous to the proposals for establishing a national system of labor exchanges "a good deal of preliminary work had been undertaken, particularly in the finding of premises for the labor exchanges and in the framing of a scheme of administration by an informal departmental committee of the Board of Trade."¹

Without going into the details of the act it may be said briefly that the Board of Trade² is authorized by the act to "establish and maintain in such places as they think fit, labor exchanges, and assist any labor exchanges maintained by any other authorities or persons." Labor exchange is defined as "any office or place used for the purpose of collecting and furnishing information respecting employers who desire to engage workpeople and workpeople who seek engagement or employment." The Board is empowered to collect and furnish such information and, moreover, to take over any labor exchanges

¹ Report of the Proceedings of the Board of Trade under the Labor Exchanges Act, 1909, p. 2.

² The labor exchanges are now administered by the Ministry of Labor.

established by any other authority. The cost of administering the act is placed upon the Exchequer.

Two years before the establishment of the British labor exchanges system, there was created in this country by act of Congress a Division of Information under what was then known as the Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization for the purpose of "promoting a beneficial distribution of aliens admitted into the United States among the several States and Territories desiring immigration." Apparently in creating the division there was no thought of establishing a national employment service, and it was not until the passage in 1913 of the act creating the Department of Labor, for the purpose, among others, of "advancing the opportunities of the wage earners for profitable employment," that any legislative authority was given for a Federal employment system.

With this somewhat doubtful legislative sanction, and faced with an unusually large amount of unemployment during 1914 and 1915, the Commissioner General of Immigration decided to utilize the Immigration Service to secure "for aliens and other persons" such information as it was possible to obtain concerning opportunities for employment. The work contemplated was a Nation-wide information system through the medium of the Departments of Labor, Agriculture, and Post Office. Immigration stations were arranged to include employment offices, and later a zone system was introduced. On July 31, 1917, the organization had extended to 37 States. Headquarters had been established in 41 cities and branches in 52 cities. No legislative sanction, however, other than that previously mentioned, had been given to the service.

The foregoing brief review of the employment work of the Bureau of Immigration has been given because it emphasizes the difference in the attitude taken by this Government and by the British Government toward public employment service. The British Labor Exchanges Act was proposed by the Government to meet what was deemed to be an industrial need. The need in the United States was probably as great. In fact what is known about unemployment indicates a higher average percentage in this country than in the United Kingdom.

When the war came on the British Government had an employment service well established, with 409 labor exchanges and 1,067 local agencies. At the time of our entry into the war, nearly three years later, we had only the limited employment services under the direction of the Bureau of Immigration and several State employment systems. For five months we struggled along in a haphazard fashion in the manning of shipyards, munition plants, and other war industries. War industries stole labor from one another. Some manufacturing

districts were crippled as to output because of the labor shortage, while others had a surplus of workers. Finally, on October 6, 1917,⁴ Congress appropriated \$250,000 for the development of an agency to assemble and distribute the labor power of the country and to stabilize labor conditions. Later the President gave \$875,000 for the purpose from his national security and defense fund. In January, 1918, the Secretary of Labor separated the Employment Service from the Bureau of Immigration and made it a distinct service of the Department of Labor. The process of expansion was speeded up by the President's proclamation of June 17, 1918, following a recommendation of the War Labor Policies Board, solemnly urging all employers in war work "to refrain after August 1, 1918, from recruiting unskilled labor in any manner except through this central agency."

Thus both in the circumstances of their inception and in the problems immediately faced there is a vast difference in the two systems. The British system was established under peace-time conditions and during a period of comparatively normal industrial activity. The system was designed to occupy a permanent place in industry. If, as has been estimated, five years are necessary to organize a national employment service, then the British service had gone through the necessary period of trial and error before war-time needs made unusual demands upon it. In this country, on the contrary, the labor market was decidedly chaotic before an employment service was authorized by the Government. But if organization under such circumstances was difficult, the frantic demand for labor, coupled with exceptional powers in the allocation of labor, made for a remarkable showing of results. Most conspicuous was the effect of the President's proclamation. Registrations jumped from 282,294 during July, 1918, to 555,505 during August, 1918—the first month of effectiveness of the proclamation. Help wanted increased from 484,033 to 1,227,705. The high point was reached in November, 1918, when registrations totaled 744,712 for the month; help wanted, 1,724,943; references to employment, 748,934, and placements 558,469.

The signing of the armistice made for a sharp drop in the activities of the service and particularly in the demand for labor. However, "demand for labor," as presented to employment offices, and especially during a period of shortage, is a most uncertain index of the needs of industry. During the war many employers no doubt asked for more help than they needed, with the hope of getting enough. The figures are indicative, however, of the general industrial situation.

The following tables summarize the activities of the Employment Service from January, 1918, to February, 1919; the employment work of the Division of Information, Bureau of Immigration, from May,

1915, to December, 1917; and what is known of the work of public employment offices other than Federal during 1917. In this connection it should be stated that the Federal Employment Service during 1918 and the two months of 1919 was really a combination of Federal, State, county, and municipal offices. To indicate somewhat the change in the extent of public employment service, though disclaiming any intent to draw exact comparisons, the figures submitted by the State, county, and municipal offices covering the year 1917 have been combined with the returns of Federal offices.

SUMMARY OF 14 MONTHS' ACTIVITIES OF THE UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE AS REORGANIZED UNDER THE DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.¹

Year and month.	Help wanted.	Registrations.	References to positions.	Positions filled.
1918: January.....	89,002	82,253	62,642	51,183
February.....	92,594	92,452	70,369	58,844
March.....	177,831	144,156	118,079	100,446
April.....	320,328	195,578	171,306	149,415
May.....	328,587	206,181	179,821	156,284
June.....	394,395	246,564	221,946	192,798
July.....	484,033	282,294	250,152	217,291
August.....	1,227,705	555,505	500,510	395,530
September.....	1,476,282	531,226	513,662	362,696
October.....	1,588,975	594,737	606,672	455,931
November.....	1,724,943	744,712	748,934	558,469
December.....	1,024,330	549,593	525,486	392,934
Total.....	8,929,005	4,225,251	3,969,579	3,091,821
1919: January.....	730,881	587,306	514,436	372,186
February.....	504,114	510,952	422,541	312,743
Total, 14 months.....	10,164,000	5,323,509	4,906,556	3,776,750

¹ MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, April, 1919, p. 141.

EMPLOYMENT WORK OF THE DIVISION OF INFORMATION, BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION, MAY, 1915, TO DECEMBER, 1917.¹

Year and month.	Help wanted.	Registrations. ²	References to positions.	Positions filled.
1915: May.....	3,826	12,132	3,752	3,495
June.....	3,601	14,530	5,131	4,646
July.....	8,665	18,061	6,360	6,035
August.....	7,931	17,827	7,321	6,757
September.....	4,551	13,334	5,671	5,405
October.....	5,423	12,215	5,460	5,006
November.....	4,650	11,908	4,459	4,146
December.....	3,588	11,902	2,622	2,170
Total.....	42,235	111,909	40,776	37,660
1916: January.....	5,063	15,015	4,300	3,419
February.....	6,413	14,257	5,036	4,185
March.....	10,209	19,484	8,113	7,030
April.....	12,104	13,498	8,843	7,653
May.....	21,326	17,614	12,938	11,453
June.....	17,402	18,824	13,839	11,960
July.....	23,657	24,058	17,608	16,309
August.....	26,791	23,720	18,062	16,313
September.....	27,185	26,276	19,643	17,169
October.....	27,985	28,504	21,789	19,044
November ³	25,995	27,318	24,618	18,822
December.....	21,533	26,805	21,139	16,597
Total.....	225,663	255,373	175,928	149,954
1917: ⁴ January.....	26,002	33,780	26,698	20,008
February.....	28,482	29,701	23,532	13,367
March.....	36,950	23,933	35,452	27,271
April.....	42,074	39,247	37,451	28,745
May.....	46,125	48,099	41,301	32,061
June.....	51,718	43,145	40,678	32,330
July.....	64,406	50,866	46,239	38,113
August.....	81,350	65,000	57,247	46,859
September.....	84,226	57,031	56,552	46,586
October.....	83,928	69,031	62,104	51,093
November.....	90,722	78,139	67,226	58,027
December.....	82,029	81,898	62,840	51,439
Total.....	718,012	619,870	557,320	445,899

¹ Figures for 1915 and 1916 are from Bulletin 241, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, p. 52.² Includes re-registrations.³ Inclusive of activities in cooperation with State and municipal employment offices in the State of New York.⁴ Figures for 1917 are from the MONTHLY REVIEW, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1918, pp. 152 and 153.OPERATION OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES OTHER THAN FEDERAL, 1917, BY MONTHS.¹

Month.	Help wanted.	Registrations.			References to positions.	Positions filled.
		New.	Renewals.	Total.		
January.....	78,867	62,152	30,472	92,624	91,263	77,601
February.....	79,572	55,819	26,345	82,164	73,149	63,555
March.....	104,139	62,868	35,836	98,704	94,043	83,838
April.....	129,824	70,920	35,911	106,831	104,694	102,631
May.....	150,893	89,512	32,862	122,374	128,476	118,591
June.....	153,855	95,331	44,382	139,713	135,683	120,147
July.....	163,121	111,545	35,854	147,399	129,659	124,533
August.....	183,871	118,584	35,094	153,678	143,023	134,738
September.....	166,360	100,420	33,854	134,274	134,451	123,367
October.....	174,285	104,054	55,949	160,003	142,113	130,914
November.....	139,879	99,098	38,593	137,691	127,098	115,591
December.....	127,994	85,744	35,563	121,307	111,154	101,115
Total.....	1,652,660	1,056,047	440,715	1,496,762	1,414,806	1,356,671

¹ MONTHLY REVIEW, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1918, pp. 152 and 153.

OPERATION OF FEDERAL AND OTHER PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1917, BY MONTHS.¹

Month.	Help wanted.	Registrations. ²	References to positions.	Positions filled.
January.....	104,869	126,404	117,961	97,609
February.....	108,054	118,865	96,681	76,922
March.....	141,089	122,637	129,495	111,199
April.....	171,898	146,078	142,145	131,376
May.....	197,018	170,473	169,777	150,652
June.....	205,573	182,858	176,361	152,477
July.....	227,527	198,265	175,898	162,696
August.....	265,221	218,678	200,270	241,597
September.....	250,586	191,305	191,003	169,953
October.....	258,213	229,034	204,217	182,007
November.....	230,601	215,830	194,324	178,618
December.....	210,023	203,205	173,994	152,554
Total.....	2,370,672	2,116,632	1,972,126	1,802,570

¹ MONTHLY REVIEW, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, March, 1918, pp. 152 and 153.

² Includes renewals.

The percentage help wanted is of registrations and positions filled are of help wanted, registrations, and references to positions, based on the preceding tables, is as follows:

PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS OF WORK OF FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, MAY, 1915, TO FEBRUARY, 1919, AND OF OTHER PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES DURING 1917.

Period.	Percentage—			
	Help wanted is of registrations.	Positions filled are of help wanted.	Positions filled are of registrations.	Positions filled are of persons referred to positions.
1915 (8 months).....	37.7	96.5	33.6	92.4
1916.....	88.4	66.5	58.7	85.2
1917 (public other than Federal).....	110.4	82.1	90.6	95.9
1917 (Federal).....	115.8	62.1	71.9	80.0
1917 (both).....	112.0	76.0	85.2	91.4
1918.....	211.3	54.6	73.2	77.9
January.....	108.2	57.5	62.2	81.7
February.....	100.2	63.6	63.7	83.6
March.....	123.4	56.5	69.7	85.1
April.....	163.8	46.6	76.4	87.2
May.....	159.4	47.6	75.8	86.9
June.....	160.0	48.9	78.2	86.9
July.....	171.5	44.9	77.0	86.9
August.....	221.0	32.2	71.2	79.0
September.....	277.9	24.6	68.3	70.6
October.....	267.2	28.7	76.7	75.2
November.....	231.6	32.4	75.0	74.6
December.....	186.4	38.4	71.5	74.8
1919: January.....	124.4	50.9	63.4	72.3
February.....	98.7	62.4	61.2	74.0

The daily average of registrations, help wanted, and positions filled each month under the reorganized Federal Employment Service is shown in the following table and graph:

AVERAGE DAILY REGISTRATIONS, HELP WANTED, AND POSITIONS FILLED EACH MONTH FROM JANUARY, 1918, TO FEBRUARY, 1919—U. S. EMPLOYMENT SERVICE.¹

Year and month.	Average daily—		
	Registra- tions.	Help wanted.	Positions filled.
1918: January.....	3,164	3,423	1,969
February.....	4,100	4,026	2,558
March.....	5,544	6,840	3,863
April.....	7,522	2,320	5,746
May.....	7,930	12,638	6,011
June.....	9,863	15,776	7,711
July.....	10,857	18,617	8,357
August.....	20,574	45,471	15,231
September.....	22,134	61,512	15,112
October.....	22,027	58,851	16,886
November.....	31,030	71,873	23,270
December.....	21,984	40,973	15,717
1919: January.....	22,589	28,111	14,315
February.....	22,215	21,918	13,597

¹ Sundays and legal holidays omitted in computing averages.

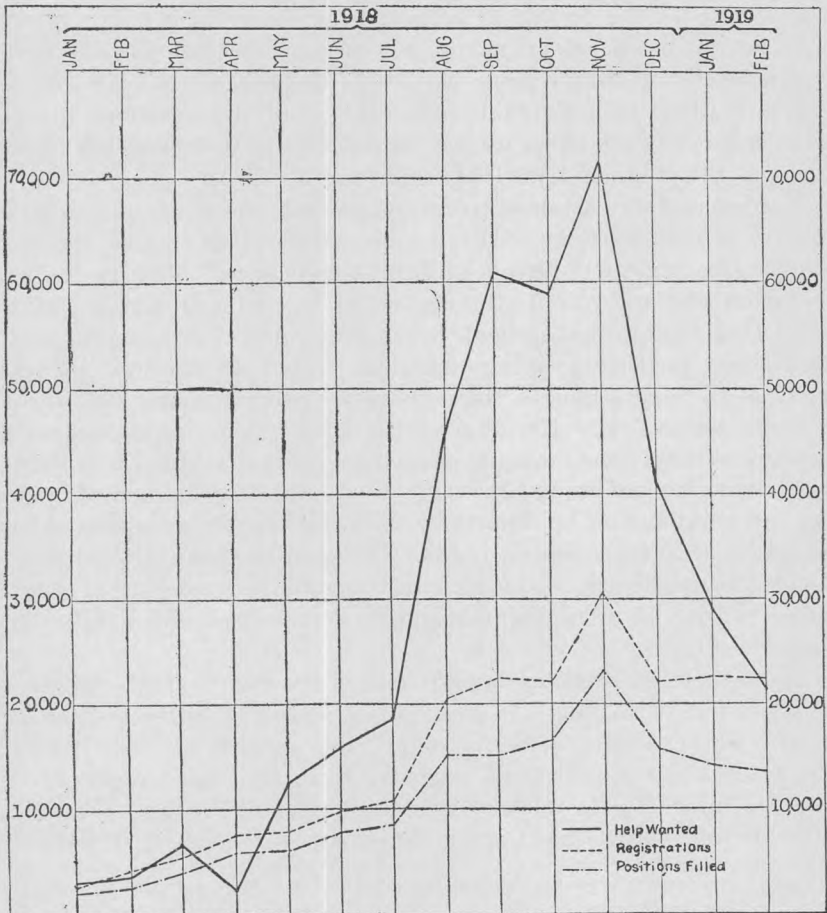


CHART A.—AVERAGE DAILY REGISTRATIONS, HELP WANTED, AND POSITIONS FILLED—UNITED STATES EMPLOYMENT SERVICE.

The daily average of 23,270 placements during the month of November, 1918, is probably without a parallel in the records of public employment offices. The record throughout the year indicates the tremendous burden placed upon the Employment Service and the unsettled industrial situation. Obviously, however, it is not to be taken as a measure of the value of the service.

Unfortunately the facts that should be known in order to appraise properly the value of employment service are not readily available from the records of public employment offices. The aim of the service is not only to bring the man and the job together, but to keep them together. What is most lacking in employment records is information that will show how successfully the latter has been accomplished. A large number of registrations, help wanted, references to employment, and placements may simply mean that the employment service is dealing with the casuals or helping to produce them. The reverse is, of course, not necessarily true, but until greater emphasis is placed on the relation during a given period of full-time jobs to help wanted, of registrations to individuals registering, and of placements to individuals given work, it is useless to attach any considerable importance to the volume of work of employment offices.

Moreover, if any attempt to compare employment systems is to be worthy of the effort, records must be standardized so that renewals and replacements will have a uniform significance. As it is, the presentation of employment statistics must be prefaced with the statement that they do not indicate what they purport to indicate, or by an apology for their seeming exactness. Thus, in presenting a summary of the operations of the employment offices under the Bureau of Immigration, Mr. Herndon states that "It is impracticable to explain definitely the meaning of each set of figures, since instructions have been changed many times * * * as to the manner of reporting and what should be reported. The chief significance that should be attached to these figures is that the trend has been toward a very decided expansion of business, which means the rendering of greater public service."¹ Employment figures certainly should signify more than this.

The returns of British labor exchanges show individuals registered as against registrations and individuals placed as against situations filled. Lasker states, however, that "the records of those who do not renew their applications (weekly) form the 'dead register.' If after an interval of a week or two the applicant renews his application, the old card is used again, but his registration is statistically

¹ Public Employment Offices in the United States, Bulletin 241, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, p. 52.

treated as a new one."¹ This is not strictly in accord with instructions issued to the exchanges, and Beveridge states that "should an applicant who has failed to renew his registration on the proper day during any week present himself to the exchange during the same month, his index card is simply replaced in the live register without being recorded as a registration." "If the workman has been on the 'live register' during the current year, but has not been on it during the current month, his registration is counted as a re-registration. The number of fresh registrations added to the number of re-registrations gives the number of individuals registered during the month."²

The same question arises in the relation of individuals securing work to situations filled. Each placing is recorded, however, as either (1) a first placing during the year, (2) a second or subsequent placing in an occupation during the year, (3) a first placing in an occupation following a previous placing in another occupation during the year. Of these the first record gives the number of individuals placed by an exchange during a year in all trades taken together. But if at any time during the year a re-registration is classed as a first registration the registrant is to all intents and purposes a distinct individual in placement records.

One other factor should be noted in considering the relation of the individual to registrations and placements in returns of the British labor exchanges. Except for 1910, workmen in occupations of more or less casual nature, specifically dock laborers, cloth porters, and cotton porters, are dealt with on a separate register known as the casual register. The records are so kept that the number of individuals given work in any one year or month and the number of separate jobs of work are available, but the figures are not included in the published summary of registrations and placements. If a casual registers for other than the occupations named above his application is treated as a fresh application on the general register.

The work of the British labor exchanges is shown by years in the tables following.

¹ The British System of Labor Exchanges, Bulletin 206, U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, p. 13.

² Report of the Proceedings of the Board of Trade under the Labor Exchanges Act of 1909, p. 154.

WORK OF BRITISH LABOR EXCHANGES, 1910 TO 1919.¹

Sex and year.	Number of registrations.	Number of individuals registered.	Vacancies (situations).		Number of individuals given work.
			Number notified.	Number filled.	
<i>Men.</i>					
1910.....	² 986,000	793,912	297,275	253,290
1911.....	1,323,171	926,597	446,035	362,670	272,037
1912.....	1,593,874	1,124,970	626,756	513,649	346,846
1913.....	2,088,735	1,267,077	714,270	566,150	390,141
1914.....	2,316,042	1,381,694	909,383	706,458	507,538
1915.....	1,512,335	1,072,213	1,004,970	716,816	577,206
1916.....	1,229,171	954,172	909,721	636,095	539,564
1917.....	1,167,864	938,725	906,627	623,830	539,396
1918.....	1,363,590	1,119,905	977,999	669,732	582,899
1919 ³	1,005,193	995,684	260,928	180,688	(⁴)
<i>Women.</i>					
1910.....	² 234,000	188,527	85,677	62,764
1911.....	414,458	300,030	178,446	136,409	101,083
1912.....	518,300	363,991	226,275	168,554	121,725
1913.....	532,060	351,755	270,325	199,395	133,421
1914.....	707,071	476,926	312,344	232,935	160,145
1915.....	1,232,891	920,638	493,515	385,101	306,192
1916.....	1,921,826	1,501,260	846,196	695,631	615,920
1917.....	1,873,706	1,487,728	814,735	706,034	636,269
1918.....	⁶ 1,856,691	1,478,934	808,490	624,220	547,412
1919 ³	749,416	729,571	230,747	122,296	(⁴)
<i>Boys.</i>					
1910.....	² 122,000	98,367	49,972	38,702
1911.....	185,108	138,684	106,920	77,881	64,752
1912.....	200,403	146,434	130,601	88,086	70,565
1913.....	186,574	137,668	143,715	90,387	74,535
1914.....	211,898	157,093	157,278	103,280	85,068
1915.....	194,864	150,559	161,459	106,716	90,237
1916.....	241,314	184,443	148,061	116,900	100,053
1917.....	265,668	204,283	146,103	120,525	105,547
1918.....	⁶ 266,673	234,285	148,158	122,054	106,429
1919 ³	106,595	105,032	37,782	28,278	(⁴)
<i>Girls.</i>					
1910.....	² 58,000	46,641	26,019	19,557
1911.....	117,718	88,833	57,208	44,450	38,066
1912.....	151,890	110,948	78,941	57,940	48,153
1913.....	158,524	115,171	94,518	65,921	54,206
1914.....	207,441	148,310	100,019	74,236	61,320
1915.....	246,047	183,393	137,702	99,504	84,701
1916.....	266,378	203,909	145,010	108,609	95,869
1917.....	268,142	206,914	131,927	104,834	93,986
1918.....	263,110	212,139	132,570	98,706	88,003
1919 ³	98,727	97,080	43,661	27,648	(⁴)
<i>Total.</i>					
1910.....	² 1,400,000	1,127,447	458,943	374,313
1911.....	2,040,455	1,454,144	788,609	621,410	475,938
1912.....	2,464,467	1,646,343	1,062,573	828,229	587,289
1913.....	2,965,893	1,871,671	1,222,828	921,853	652,303
1914.....	3,442,452	2,164,023	1,479,024	1,116,909	814,071
1915.....	3,186,137	2,326,803	1,797,646	1,308,137	1,058,336
1916.....	3,658,689	2,843,784	2,049,018	1,557,235	1,351,406
1917.....	3,575,380	2,837,650	1,999,442	1,555,223	1,375,198
1918.....	3,739,064	3,045,263	2,067,217	1,514,712	1,324,743
1919 ³	1,959,931	1,927,367	573,118	358,910	(⁴)

¹ Source: British Labour Gazette, London.² Approximate.³ 13 weeks.⁴ Not available.⁵ Published figure obscure.

The accompanying charts B and C show the daily average, by months, of registrations and vacancies filled by the British labor exchanges during the period January, 1910, to May, 1919.¹

¹ For the period prior to January, 1919, the charts are reproductions of graphs prepared by the employment department of the Ministry of Labor. Averages on which the graphs are based have not been published for the entire period. For the period beginning January, 1919, averages appearing in the Labour Gazette have been used.

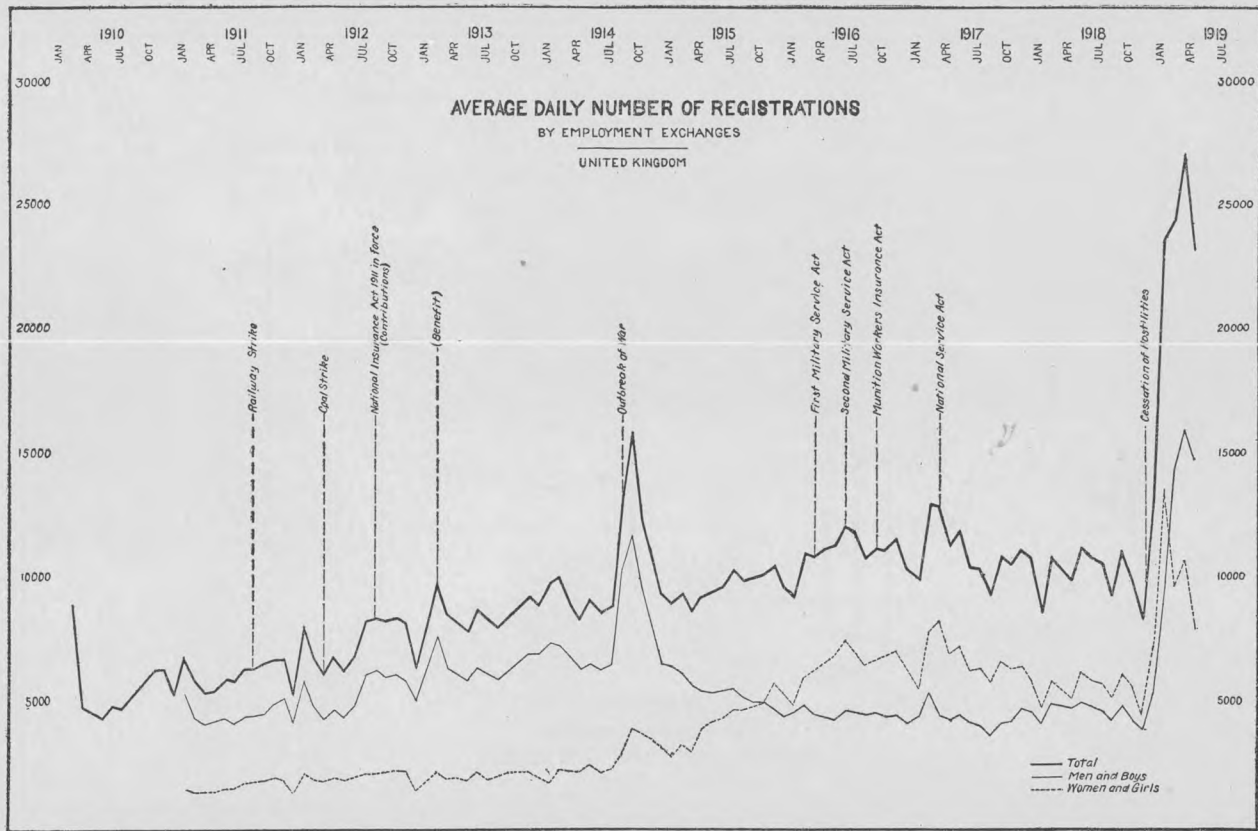


CHART B.

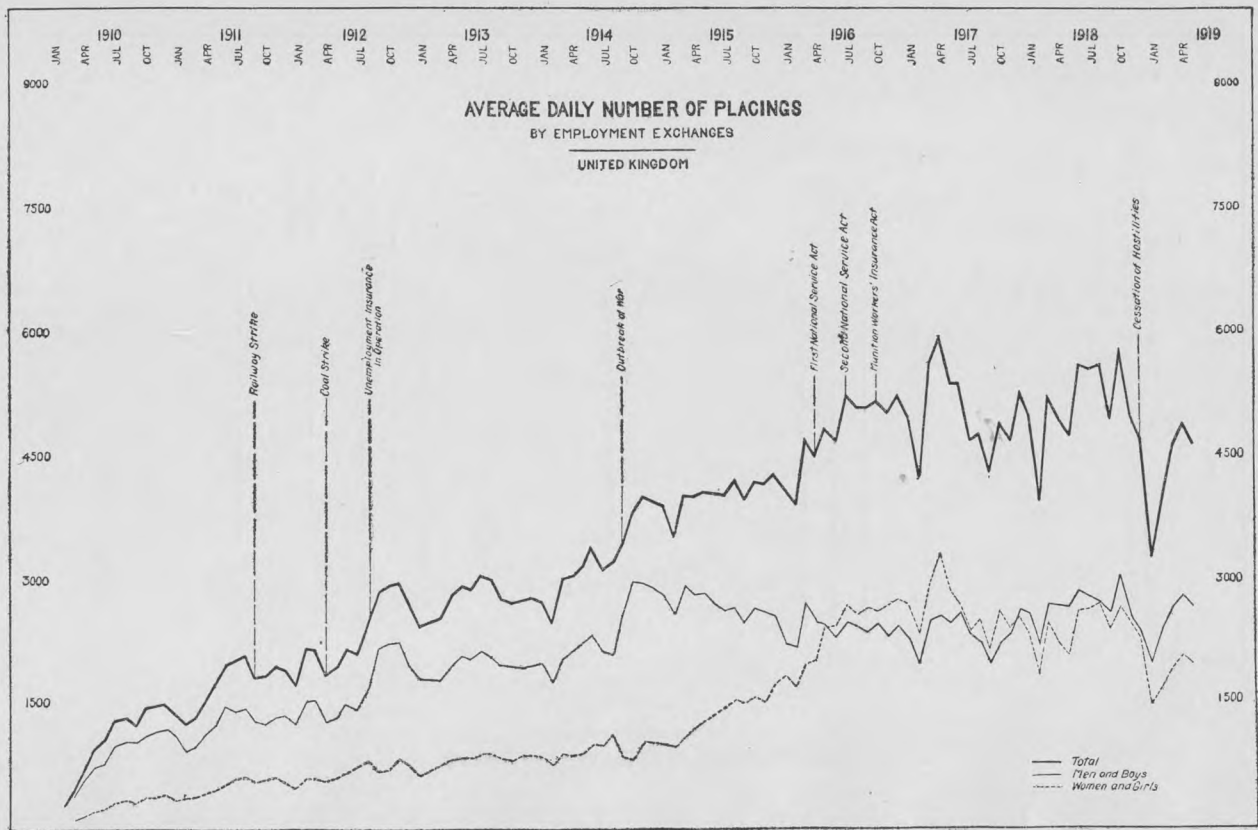


CHART C.

A percentage analysis of the previous figures showing the work of British labor exchanges is given below.

PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS OF WORK OF BRITISH LABOR EXCHANGES IN SPECIFIED YEARS.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
<i>Vacancies filled as a percentage of registrations.</i>					
1910.....	25.7	26.8	31.7	33.7	26.7
1911.....	27.4	32.9	42.1	37.8	30.5
1912.....	32.2	32.5	44.0	38.2	33.6
1913.....	27.1	37.5	48.5	41.6	31.1
1914.....	30.5	32.9	48.7	35.8	32.4
1915.....	47.4	31.2	54.8	40.4	41.1
1916.....	51.8	36.2	48.4	40.8	42.6
1917.....	53.4	37.7	45.4	39.1	43.5
1918.....	49.1	(¹)	(¹)	37.5	40.5
1919 ²	18.0	16.3	26.5	28.0	18.3
<i>Vacancies filled as a percentage of individuals registered.</i>					
1910.....	31.9	33.3	39.4	41.9	33.2
1911.....	39.1	45.5	56.2	50.0	42.7
1912.....	45.7	46.3	60.2	52.2	50.3
1913.....	44.7	56.7	65.7	57.2	54.6
1914.....	51.1	48.8	65.7	50.1	51.6
1915.....	66.9	41.8	70.9	54.3	56.2
1916.....	66.7	46.3	63.4	53.3	54.8
1917.....	66.5	47.5	59.0	50.7	54.8
1918.....	59.8	42.2	52.1	46.5	49.7
1919 ²	18.1	16.8	26.9	28.5	18.6
<i>Vacancies filled as a percentage of vacancies notified (help wanted).</i>					
1910.....	85.2	73.3	77.4	75.2	81.5
1911.....	81.3	76.4	72.8	77.7	78.8
1912.....	82.0	74.5	67.4	73.4	77.9
1913.....	79.3	73.8	62.9	69.8	75.3
1914.....	77.7	74.6	65.7	74.2	75.5
1915.....	71.3	78.0	66.1	72.3	72.8
1916.....	69.9	82.2	79.9	74.9	76.0
1917.....	68.8	86.7	82.5	79.5	77.8
1918.....	68.5	77.2	82.4	74.5	73.3
1919 ²	69.2	52.0	74.8	63.3	62.6
<i>Individuals given work as a percentage of individuals registered.</i>					
1910.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
1911.....	29.4	33.7	46.7	42.9	32.7
1912.....	30.8	33.4	48.2	43.4	35.7
1913.....	30.8	37.9	54.1	47.1	34.9
1914.....	36.7	33.6	54.2	41.4	37.6
1915.....	53.8	33.3	60.0	46.2	45.5
1916.....	56.5	41.0	54.2	47.0	47.5
1917.....	57.5	42.8	51.7	45.4	48.5
1918.....	52.0	37.1	45.4	41.5	43.5
1919 ²	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
<i>Vacancies notified (help wanted) as a percentage of registration.</i>					
1910.....	30.2	36.6	41.0	44.9	32.8
1911.....	33.7	43.1	58.3	48.6	38.6
1912.....	39.3	43.7	65.2	52.0	43.1
1913.....	34.2	50.8	77.0	59.6	41.2
1914.....	39.3	44.2	71.9	48.2	43.0
1915.....	66.5	40.0	82.9	56.0	56.4
1916.....	74.0	44.0	61.4	54.4	56.0
1917.....	77.6	43.5	55.0	49.2	55.9
1918.....	71.7	(¹)	(¹)	50.3	55.3
1919 ²	26.0	30.8	35.4	44.2	23.2

¹ Data incomplete.

² 13 weeks.

PERCENTAGE ANALYSIS OF WORK OF BRITISH LABOR EXCHANGES IN SPECIFIED YEARS—Concluded.

Year.	Men.	Women.	Boys.	Girls.	Total.
<i>Average number of registrations per individual registered.</i>					
1910.....	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2
1911.....	1.4	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.4
1912.....	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
1913.....	1.6	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.6
1914.....	1.7	1.5	1.3	1.4	1.6
1915.....	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.4
1916.....	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
1917.....	1.2	1.3	1.3	1.3	1.3
1918.....	1.2	(¹)	(¹)	1.2	1.2
1919 ²	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
<i>Average number of vacancies filled per individual given work.</i>					
1910.....	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)
1911.....	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.4
1912.....	1.5	1.4	1.2	1.2	1.4
1913.....	1.5	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.4
1914.....	1.4	1.5	1.2	1.2	1.4
1915.....	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.2
1916.....	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2
1917.....	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
1918.....	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1
1919 ²	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)	(¹)

¹ Data incomplete.² Thirteen weeks.

In considering British labor exchange statistics it must be borne in mind that the employment service is interwoven with unemployment insurance. The National Insurance Act of 1911, the Extended Act of 1916, and the Temporary-Out-of-Work Donation scheme in effect since the cessation of hostilities and replacing, during the period of its effectiveness, the contributory plan under the 1911 and 1916 acts, have all been administered by the labor exchanges. Registration and renewal are compulsory for those wishing to claim benefit. Employers, on the other hand, are not required to list vacancies with the labor exchanges. As a consequence, registrations in proportion to vacancies, particularly in the insured trades, should, in normal times, be greater than under a system having no connection with unemployment insurance. This no doubt accounts in part for the comparatively low percentage help wanted was of registrations. The high point was reached for all classes of labor taken together in 1915, when help wanted was 56.4 per cent of registrations. The percentage in 1918 was 55.3 as against 211.3 in the United States. The low percentage during the first thirteen weeks of 1919 is to be attributed in part to the inclusion of all occupations in the Out-of-Work Donation scheme with its compulsory registration feature as well as to the lessened demand for labor.

The Employment Service of Canada.

By GEORGE W. EDWARDS, Ph. D.

AS a preface to a study of the present Canadian Employment Service, it is necessary to survey the attempts made before 1916 to establish governmental agencies for the distribution of labor. Most of the early employment bureaus, opened during times of business depression, were regarded merely as temporary palliatives to relieve an industrial ill which periodically afflicted the economic system.

Municipalities were the first to start Government labor bureaus. Montreal in 1896 began the so-called "Free Municipal Labor Bureau," which received an annual subsidy from the city treasury. This office was under private operation until March, 1914, when the city government assumed full control. To aid the many unemployed who besieged soup kitchens and stood in bread lines in the snow of a bitter Canadian winter, Toronto organized in December, 1908, a free employment bureau. During the next year and a half this office secured casual employment for about 4,800 persons, who were placed mainly on farms or on relief work furnished by the city engineer and the park commissioner. After 1908, unemployment was swept away by a wave of prosperity which continued until 1913, when the cycle of business once more had run its course and jobless, hungry men again walked the streets of Canada's industrial centers. Especially serious were conditions in Winnipeg, which had undergone rapid development. In the fall the local authorities opened a public employment office, and in a few months positions were found for over 4,000 women and 6,000 men. Besides these three eastern municipal offices, Victoria, Vancouver, Edmonton, New Westminster, Calgary, and other western cities also operated labor bureaus. Calgary exacted a small fee from each applicant given work by the city. In Saskatoon the local board of trade was quite successful in securing harvest hands, and during one season made the record of obtaining 6,500 men.

Provincial and Federal Efforts.

Ontario and Quebec were the only Provinces which undertook the operation of general employment agencies. Even Ontario's "bureaus" were scarcely worth the name, as they were supported on the insignificant total allowance of \$150 a month. This sum was widely, though quite thinly, distributed over the Province among a half dozen agents who conducted their employment work as a side activity to their regular occupations. In Ottawa, the capital of the Dominion, the agent carried on the Government's business and his own from a small shop where he repaired watches. In another city

the agency was so little known that a provincial investigator failed to learn its whereabouts despite inquiries at the police headquarters, the local Y. M. C. A., and a newspaper office.¹ From the beginning of 1907 to the end of 1914, the monthly reports of these agents showed the following results:²

	Male.	Female.
Applications for work.....	13,930	839
Help wanted.....	9,343	1,910
Situations filled.....	7,034	551

The efforts of Quebec to found a provincial employment system were far more wholehearted. Serious consideration was given the matter, and in 1910 a committee was appointed to visit the United States for the purpose of observing the organization of employment offices there. Several of the middle-western States were then operating successful bureaus, but the delegation made its pilgrimage only to Boston, whence it returned with such enthusiastic reports of the Massachusetts system that the legislature of Quebec soon passed "an act respecting the establishment of employment bureaus for workmen (chap. 9)." Accordingly, in 1911, offices were opened in the cities of Quebec and Montreal, and a year later another was started in Sherbrooke. In his first annual report the superintendent of the Quebec office gives this rather curious statement of policies:³

"I have always aimed to keep the employment bureau free from the spirit of party and the inevitable patronage, consciously or not, exercised by the employees of a Government concerned to win the popular vote and to favor their friends. I have endeavored to induce more respect for governmental authority by putting it above the often disturbing rivalries of the labor world. And I have made it a point to openly and surely avoid even the appearance of the pre-dominance of one social class over another, while at the same time facilitating the initiative of the bureau in conciliation."

Before the war, the Province of Quebec had advanced farther than Ontario in organizing employment bureaus, for a comparison of statistics shows that the Montreal office in its first year placed more persons in positions than the entire Ontario system from its inception in 1907 until 1913. However, even the work of Quebec was far from being a pronounced success, since in general the number of persons applying at the offices and the number of positions filled did not show any increase from year to year.

Mention here should be made of several provincial bureaus which specialized in farm labor. The Ontario Department of Colonization, in the year before the outbreak of war, placed 3,927 laborers on

¹ Ontario. Report of Commission on Unemployment, Toronto, 1916, p. 116.

² *Idem*, p. 115.

³ Quebec. Report of Minister of Public Works and Labor. 1911, p. 118.

selected farms throughout the Province.¹ The Saskatchewan, Alberta, and Manitoba Departments of Agriculture placed large groups of farm hands in the prairie Provinces, and the Northwestern Territories, cooperating with the Canadian Pacific Railway, secured many excursion trains of laborers for the harvest season.

As in the United States, so in Canada, the Federal Government aided in the distribution of labor through its immigration bureau. Although no regular offices were established, the Dominion service placed thousands of new arrivals in positions as farm hands and domestic servants through the efforts of 30 salaried employees and about 160 agents, located mainly in Ontario and Quebec. The latter found 3,956 jobs in 1912 and 5,749 in 1913, for which services they received from the Federal Government \$2 for each person who was given employment. It is claimed that 20 of the 30 salaried agents of the Immigration Branch secured jobs for about 20,000 aliens in 1913.

Private Agencies—Their Services and Evils.

Undoubtedly the most potent cause for the slow growth of public offices was competition with the many private agencies which flourished throughout Canada. In 1914 there were 315 commercial agencies licensed by the Dominion Superintendent of Immigration. Only 16 were of a philanthropic nature, while the rest were organized solely for profit. The Dominion Immigration Department estimates that 77 of these agencies placed about 100,000 persons in 1913, while the Ontario Commission on Unemployment credits the private agencies with 60,000 of the 70,000 situations secured in the Province during 1914.²

Fee-charging private agencies thus made a far better showing in placements than did free public bureaus, the principal reason being that the former offered to applicants, who in most cases were immigrants, a variety of services which the latter could not give. Annually, until the Great War closed the ocean lanes, thousands of Italians, Hungarians, Slavs, Bulgarians, and other southeastern Europeans were landed at Montreal. These foreigners were bewildered and lonely until, to their delight, they met an obliging person who spoke the tongue of their home-land and who conducted them to a large, though not very clean, office where they met other compatriots. Here their luggage was stored, and letters were written for them to notify relatives in the old country of their safe arrival. They were then conducted to nearby lodging houses, where they

¹ Ontario. Report of Commission on Unemployment, Toronto, 1916, p. 117.

² *Idem*, p. 113.

remained for a few days until shipped west to jobs in lumber camps, in mines, or on railways.

Although such services were performed by most private agencies, it must be remembered that the motive was not philanthropy but gain. In consequence there occurred the many abuses for which private commercial agencies have been anathematized by the press and indicted in official reports. The findings of the British Columbia Royal Commission on Labor described these unsatisfactory practices as follows:¹

The workman is assured that employment is to be obtained, only to find, after seeking work and spending his time and incurring expense, that the reported vacancy has been filled. * * * Collusion sometimes existed between the manager of the employment agency and the foreman of the contractor requiring labor, whereby the foreman received a share of the agency fee on all workmen placed with the contractor. The obvious result of such an arrangement is that workmen are discharged after a few days of work to make way for new men, who in turn are soon replaced by others.

Governmental Regulation of Private Agencies.

Their sins became so flagrant by 1910 that Government regulation of a drastic nature was invoked. Practically every large municipality in Canada enacted ordinances which compelled private agencies to take out licenses and make reports to the local police. In several cases there were by-laws limiting the fees which could be demanded of applicants. These rules were further reenforced by provincial legislation. The Quebec act, which had established free employment bureaus in 1910, as noted above, at the same time required all private agencies to be licensed by the Minister of Public Works and to be supervised by the factory inspectors of the Province. However, the old evils continued with little abatement, so that in 1914 the act relating to employment offices was materially strengthened (Chap. 21). In cities where public bureaus were organized the annual fee for operating a private employment office was raised to \$200. Regular inspection of the moral and sanitary conditions of offices was provided, monthly reports were required, and the maximum registration fee to be charged was fixed at \$3. Similar legislation was passed in Ontario, Saskatchewan, and British Columbia.

The Federal Government also had a direct interest in the proper conduct of private agencies, because most of their registrants were foreigners. Therefore in 1913, an order in council² compelled all employment agencies dealing with immigrants to secure licenses from the Dominion superintendent of immigration. This department had power to revoke a license if the agent failed to abide by

¹ British Columbia. Report of Royal Commission on Labor, 1914, p. 4.

² Privy Council, 1028.

the Federal regulations which limited all fees to \$1, prohibited charging for transportation a sum over the actual cost of the ticket, and required a complete record of every applicant registered by the agent. Federal regulation was indeed effective, for in little more than a year after the passage of the order in council 75 licenses had been canceled. In other words, for overcharging, for sending applicants to places where no jobs existed, for misrepresenting the character of work and of wages, and for splitting fees with employers, one out of every four private employment agents in Canada had been successfully prosecuted and convicted.

Thus when the Great War came in 1914, labor was being distributed over Canada through varied and unconnected channels. Every year municipal bureaus were placing about 30,000 persons, provincial offices about 15,000, the Dominion representatives 25,000, while commercial agencies were credited with fully 200,000. It may be said that the municipal offices were only local in their operations and were organized mainly for humanitarian purposes to furnish casual relief work to unskilled, indigent persons; the provincial and Federal agencies, though broader in scope, were entirely inadequate, and in fact were concerned mainly with agricultural workers and immigrant labor; the private agencies had proved more effective and more efficient because they distributed labor solely on an economic basis.

The immediate effect of the war on labor was parallel in every country, as the unprecedented disorganization of industry brought universal unemployment. In Canada the civic offices were overwhelmed with applicants during the winter of 1914-15. This was, however, only a passing phase of the industrial revolution which the war was destined to bring to Canada. Soon the call to arms drew thousands from field and factory, while at the same time the demand for workers on munitions and in shipyards became well-nigh insatiable. At this juncture, policy dictated the formation of a national system for mobilizing the man power of the Dominion, but unfortunately neither the Federal nor provincial governments took any action and commercial agencies were given a clear field. In fact, public offices, organized as they were either for local unemployables or for immigrants, declined relatively in importance as the war continued.

Establishment of the Ontario Labor Exchanges.

However, public interest in a more efficient organization of the labor market was growing, especially in Ontario where Canada's large manufacturing interests are concentrated. In December, 1914, the Provincial Government appointed a Commission on Unemployment. This body, after a searching analysis of causes and remedies, submitted a painstaking report which proposed, among

other recommendations, "that some form of public employment office should be established by the State to replace the system now in operation in Ontario, which is in need of being modernized and made efficient."¹ Consequently, when the provincial legislature in 1916 created a "trades and labour branch," one of the functions of the new labor department was "to establish and maintain in the various centers of population throughout Ontario, employment bureaus and similar agencies for obtaining suitable employment for workmen."² Under this act, "zone" or major bureaus were opened in large cities such as Toronto, Ottawa, and Hamilton, and later "subzone" or minor offices were started in small industrial districts. Cooperating with the Imperial Munitions Board and with the Provincial Department of Agriculture, the new employment offices during the year ending October 31, 1918, placed 11,812 women and 23,217 men.³

Employment Offices Coordination Act.

Ontario was therefore the first to establish an effective labor-exchange system. Nevertheless, the provincial officials were fully aware that complete mobility of labor could be secured only by a nation-wide employment service. In fact, one of the purposes in appointing the Ontario commission on unemployment was "to further the organization of provincial employment bureaus throughout Canada with a view to their ultimate linking together in an effective national system." This movement had always been supported by the Dominion Department of Labor, which as early as 1914 had framed a detailed plan of Federal labor exchanges. At last in April, 1918, the Minister of Labor introduced into the Dominion Parliament the "Employment Offices Coordination Bill," which was quickly passed. The financial features were based on the Canadian agricultural instruction act of 1913, similar to our Federal vocational education statute. The sum of \$50,000 was provided for the fiscal year of 1918-19, \$100,000 for 1919-20, and \$150,000 for each succeeding year. These subsidies are distributed among the provinces "in the proportion which their expenditure for the maintenance of employment offices bears to the total of the expenditures of all the Provinces for such purposes, but in no case shall the allotment to any Province exceed one-half the amount expended for the maintenance of employment offices by such province." The purposes of

¹ Ontario. Report of Commission on Unemployment, Toronto, 1916, p. 41.

² "An act to establish the trade and labour branch," ch. 13, sec. 10, subsec. D; Ontario Public Service Bulletin, November, 1916, p. 19, December, 1916, p. 31, February, 1917, pp. 13-16; Riddell: The new employment service, in *Social Welfare*, Dec. 1, 1918, pp. 56, 57.

³ Annual Report, Trades and Labor Branch (1918).

the act are stated as follows: "(a) To aid and encourage the organization and coordination of employment offices and to promote uniformity of methods among them; (b) to establish one or more clearing houses for the interchange of information between employment offices concerning the transfer of labor and other matters; (c) to compile and distribute information received from employment offices and from other sources, regarding prevailing conditions of employment."¹

Organization of the Federal-Provincial Service.

In November, 1918, when the armistice brought to an end the fighting on the western front, Canada was preparing to set in motion her new machinery for efficiently distributing labor. But all at once the problem changed from shortage to surplus. While the United States Employment Service, initiated in the midst of war, had aimed to find the necessary workers, the Canadian system, perfected after the close of hostilities, was concerned mainly with seeking jobs. In the readjustment of the labor market Canada faced a task proportionately more serious than that of the United States. Four years of war had withdrawn from peaceful pursuits about 500,000 men into military service and 250,000 persons into occupations more or less directly associated with war. Therefore, three-fourths of a million individuals out of a population of between seven and eight millions had to be reabsorbed into normal industry.²

This change of events forced the Government to expedite the operation of the employment service. In November, Ottawa, the Dominion capital, was the scene of several conferences, from which definite action resulted. Following a meeting with the provincial premiers, similar to our State governors, the Federal authorities agreed to augment the subventions under the original Employment Act, and later, by an order in council, the sum of \$30,000 was added to the 1918-19 appropriation, while for 1919-20 a special allowance of \$150,000 was voted to the original budget of \$100,000.³ Employment policies were defined and several vexatious questions settled in a convocation attended by representatives of the federal and the provincial departments of labor.

At last, with the new year ushering in an ominous labor crisis, the employment service of Canada was organized and ready to function. Since the beginning of the year the system has expanded

¹ Canada. Employment Offices Coordination Act, ch. 12, sec. 3.

² Canadian Repatriation Committee. General Survey of Canada's Repatriation Plans. Ottawa [1918], p. 7.

³ Privy Council, 537; Labour Gazette, May, 1919, p. 593.

rapidly and by the 1st of July there were in operation 89 offices, distributed as follows:

Prince Edward Island.....	1
Nova Scotia.....	6
New Brunswick.....	6
Quebec.....	7
Ontario.....	35
Manitoba.....	8
Saskatchewan.....	9
Alberta.....	5
British Columbia.....	12

As the Province of Ontario is operating the largest number of offices, it may be of value to analyze its system. Though outlying towns have only one-man bureaus, large cities are equipped with well-staffed offices. In Toronto the main bureau occupies a clean, spacious, three-story building, centrally located. The men's division is on the ground floor, where interviewers or examiners register both soldiers and civilians. Female applicants have a separate entrance which leads to the floor above. The success of this bureau in securing opportunities has been aided materially by "scouts," who canvass the local industries and solicit positions. Clearance among offices within the Province is actively conducted. By telephone, wire, or mail, each office reports vacancies which it can not fill locally, and applicants it can not place, to the provincial clearing house, where an assistant to the general superintendent "matches," or seeks to bring together, demand and supply.

The Soldiers' Civil Reestablishment Department.

In each local employment office there are one or more representatives of the information and service branch of the Department of Soldiers' Civil Reestablishment (the S. C. R.), which has been intrusted with the responsible task of demobilization.

The returned soldier in search of work differs considerably from the civilian applicant. The veteran, as described by one himself, is "a man sometimes crippled by war in a way that all may see, sometimes invisibly crippled, perhaps even in the head, but always with a new slant on life that is hidden to others and probably to himself."¹ In view of these conditions, the Soldiers' Civil Reestablishment department has placed its own representative in every employment office. This official is himself a returned soldier who has been in the training camp, the trench, and at times the hospital, and who

¹ Pearson, George. Fitting in the returned man. Issued by the Department of Public Information for the Repatriation Committee. Ottawa [1919], 14 pp.

can therefore give sympathetic counsel to his comrades seeking to find themselves in a new and strange environment. Though the representative of the S. C. R. interviews and advises applicants, actual placement must be made only by an examiner of the employment service. On this separation of functions provincial authorities are quite insistent.

The general organization thus outlined is now in operation throughout Canada, save in Quebec and the Maritime Provinces. In Quebec it was deemed expedient to operate separate employment offices for civilians and for soldiers. As Montreal is a port of disembarkation for the overseas forces during the summer months, the S. C. R. has here opened its main office,¹ where steady streams of applicants are efficiently handled by a staff of returned men who "work the way they fight." The Maritime Provinces, which include Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island, also presented a special problem to the Federal authorities, since these far-eastern districts had never established public employment bureaus of any description. Therefore, the Dominion Department of Labor operates nine bureaus and in addition shares equally with the Soldiers' Civil Reestablishment Department in the expense of maintaining four "one-man" offices.²

The Employment Service Council.

As in the United States, so in Canada, the Federal Employment Service is a division under the Department of Labor, and the director is likewise responsible to the cabinet officer. However, a feature of the Canadian organization not possessed by the United States system is an employment service council. This body, which acts in advisory capacity to the Minister of Labor, is composed as follows:

- 1 representative appointed by each provincial government.
- 2 members appointed by the Canadian Manufacturers' Association.
- 2 members appointed by the Trades and Labor Congress.
- 1 member appointed by the Railway War Board.
- 2 members appointed by the Railway Brotherhood.
- 2 members appointed by the Canadian Council of Agriculture.
- 3 members appointed by the Department of Labor, two of whom shall be women.
- 1 member appointed by returned soldiers.
- 1 member appointed by the Soldiers' Civil Reestablishment Department.

The council is well balanced—on the one hand the Provinces are represented, and on the other the leading national economic interests of the Dominion have membership—and the personnel chosen at a recent conference in Ottawa is strong. It is planned that each

¹ Two pamphlets issued by the Department of Public Information for the Repatriation Committee, entitled: *The Program of Repatriation*, Ottawa [1919], 30 pp.; and *Returned Soldier's Handbook*, Ottawa, [1919], 30 pp. See also *Montreal Star*, June 14, 1919.

² *Labour Gazette*, Ottawa, May, 1919, p. 595.

provincial minister of labor shall have an advisory council of employers and employees, and each local employment superintendent his own consulting committee.

Federal Administration.

Actual administration of the employment system is not conducted by the Federal Minister of Labor, but by the director. This officer generally does not possess jurisdiction over local bureaus, for, as noted above, the Dominion Government operates offices only in the Maritime Provinces. However, the Federal director has full control over interprovincial clearance of labor. For transferring farm workers, factory hands, coal miners, and lumber pilers, the Dominion will directly operate its own district clearing houses at Halifax, Ottawa, Winnipeg, and Vancouver. This shifting of labor is being aided materially by a special transportation rate of 1 cent a mile over the Grand Trunk, Canadian Pacific, and Canadian National railways for all trips which would amount to above \$4 at the regular fare. Because of this four-dollar minimum rate, the rebate is of no service for transferring workers over distances of less than 116 miles. Again, as the concession applies only to railroads, it is of small use within British Columbia, where it is said that half the workers sent out from the employment offices use steamship lines.

Labor mobility depends mainly upon a complete knowledge of employment conditions throughout the country. The Federal director is securing this necessary information through reports from superintendents of provincial clearing houses, superintendents of local offices, and especially employers and trade-union officials. These statistics not only will form the basis of interprovincial clearing but in the near future may govern the movement of labor from Great Britain to Canada. The mother country now faces an enormous surplus of men and women who have been idle since December, when war industries closed. Canada, on the other hand, has natural resources capable of supporting a population of fully 50 millions instead of less than eight. Officials of the Empire and of the Dominion therefore, are considering closer cooperation between the two national employment systems so that immigration in the future will not be left to blind chance but will be regulated by the opportunities for work.

From the foregoing survey it is clear that the Employment Service of Canada is a State-Federal rather than an outright Federal system. The Provinces have complete control over the administration and personnel of local offices, for the theory of state autonomy is still strong although somewhat weakened by the natural concentration

of Federal power due to the necessities of war. Still, as it was noted above, the Dominion Department of Labor in cooperation with another national organization, the S. C. R., does assume the operation of local offices in the Maritime Provinces where state authorities have failed to establish any machinery for placing returned soldiers. The Dominion would unquestionably possess the power to withhold the money grants under the coordination act and to open its own offices in any province where the local government refused to meet the conditions specified in the statute. This, however, is only a remote contingency, and the Federal service will most likely confine its activities to the control of interprovincial clearing, the collection of employment statistics, and the standardization of operation. The last function presents a field of unlimited expansion. Already Ottawa furnishes all printed forms and cards used by the bureaus. Further uniformity could be secured by national publicity, which is greatly needed, as the public apparently has not fully grasped the nature and purposes of the government offices. A publicity campaign, emphasizing the unified, national character of the new service, would most certainly be effective, and would prevent duplication, since such general press notices advertise every local office throughout the country. Especially is this true at the present time, when all Canada is vitally interested in its most human and pressing national problem—the reestablishing of the returned soldier into civil life.

Further proof of the efficacy of the Federal service is its influence in shaping a common policy regarding commercial agencies. Although immediate abolition has been deemed unwise, provincial legislatures have been urged by the employment service council to pass measures which provide for the gradual extinction of private bureaus. They were prohibited to exist after the first of June in Saskatchewan and Manitoba. Ontario is weeding out the most inefficient agencies, and Quebec will probably take similar action in the near future.

Attitude of Employers and Employees.

To an observer coming from the United States the attitude of capital and labor toward the employment system seems somewhat anomalous. In general, employers are receptive, while trade-unionists are rather apathetic. The Canadian Manufacturers' Association is showing interest in various progressive industrial plans and now views the employment service as an integral part of the country's industrial machinery. While the Trades and Labor Congress, representing organized labor, has officially recorded its opposition to commercial agencies, it has not taken a very certain stand regarding public offices. One reason is the possibility of

interference with the business agents or the local union secretaries in placing their members. A second cause is the fear that the strike power may be endangered, though the employment service has ruled that in any industrial dispute every office must adopt an attitude of strict neutrality. The card on which the employer makes out his order contains the question as to whether a strike or lockout exists or threatens, and if such is the case the local superintendent on the one hand must attempt to fill the vacancies and at the same time must notify applicants of the condition of controversy. Local superintendents state that workers generally refuse to accept employment where a strike or lockout is in progress. These assurances, however, fail to satisfy the western unions, especially in British Columbia, where the closed shop prevails absolutely in many industries. Generally speaking, all economic groups in the Dominion are in support of the employment service, and starting so auspiciously it will undoubtedly stand as one of the most constructive pieces of legislation born of the reconstruction period.

Employment in Selected Industries in June, 1919.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in June, 1919, from representative establishments in 13 manufacturing industries.

Comparing the figures of June, 1919, with those of identical establishments for June, 1918, it appears that in 3 industries there was an increase in the number of persons employed and in 10 a decrease. Cotton manufacturing shows the largest increase, 3.8 per cent, while automobile manufacturing and silk each show an increase of 2 per cent. Decreases of 25.6, 18.3, and 14.8 per cent appear, respectively in men's ready-made clothing, iron and steel, and cigar manufacturing.

Ten of the 13 industries show an increase in the total amount of the pay roll for June, 1919, as compared with June, 1918. The most important increases—26.2, 21.5, and 17.6 per cent—appear in silk, cotton manufacturing, and car building and repairing, respectively; while the decreases—15.4, 13, and 9.5 per cent—are shown in iron and steel, men's ready-made clothing, and cigar manufacturing.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN JUNE, 1918, AND JUNE, 1919.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for June both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll in June—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	Amount of pay roll in June—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			1918	1919		1918	1919	
Automobile manufacturing.....	42	1 week..	100,981	102,952	+ 2.0	\$2,589,660	\$2,733,949	+ 5.6
Boots and shoes.....	64	..do....	58,877	57,635	- 2.1	1,052,165	1,178,998	+12.1
Car building and repairing...	35	½ month.	40,789	38,467	- 5.7	1,770,136	2,082,171	+17.6
Cigar manufacturing.....	51	1 week..	17,624	15,016	-14.8	269,237	243,630	- 9.5
Men's ready-made clothing.....	33	..do....	20,019	14,885	-25.6	378,816	329,465	-13.0
Cotton finishing.....	17	..do....	14,288	14,155	- .9	267,845	308,710	+15.3
Cotton manufacturing.....	52	..do....	47,071	48,873	+ 3.8	737,705	896,290	+21.5
Hosiery and underwear.....	54	..do....	30,690	28,540	- 7.0	431,638	456,150	+ 5.7
Iron and steel.....	82	½ month.	188,980	154,395	-18.3	11,290,991	9,554,914	-15.4
Leather manufacturing.....	32	1 week..	17,260	16,863	- 2.3	364,245	381,729	+ 4.8
Paper making.....	51	..do....	26,582	24,836	- 6.6	519,962	562,208	+ 8.1
Silk.....	33	2 weeks..	9,910	10,113	+ 2.0	271,632	342,684	+26.2
Woolen.....	48	1 week..	46,389	45,409	- 2.1	860,289	932,443	+ 8.4

The next table shows the number of persons actually working on the last full day of the reported pay period in June, 1918, and June, 1919. 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 THE LAST FULL DAY'S OPERATION IN JUNE, 1918, AND JUNE, 1919.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for June both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of reported pay period in June—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			1918	1919	
Automobile manufacturing.....	23	1 week....	58,084	70,548	+21.5
Boots and shoes.....	22	..do....	13,612	12,774	- 6.2
Car building and repairing.....	34	½ month...	36,397	35,844	- 1.5
Cigar manufacturing.....	18	1 week....	3,947	4,077	+ 3.3
Men's ready-made clothing.....	4	..do....	4,485	3,752	-16.3
Cotton finishing.....	12	..do....	9,466	9,594	+ 1.4
Cotton manufacturing.....	32	..do....	20,942	22,326	+ 6.6
Hosiery and underwear.....	18	..do....	12,423	12,009	- 3.3
Iron and steel.....	86	½ month...	153,518	127,265	-17.1
Leather manufacturing.....	16	1 week....	13,040	12,522	- 4.0
Paper making.....	19	..do....	10,766	9,007	-16.3
Silk.....	19	2 weeks...	6,234	6,318	+ 1.3
Woolen.....	39	1 week....	36,199	33,904	- 6.3

Comparative data for June and May, 1919, appear in the following table. The figures show that in 9 industries there was an increase in the number of persons on the pay roll in June as compared with May and in 4 industries a decrease. The greatest respective increases appear in woolen, 14.2 per cent; cotton finishing, 8.8 per cent; and paper making, 7.8 per cent. The largest decrease, 7.2 per cent, is shown in cigar manufacturing.

In comparing June of this year with May, 10 industries show an increase in the amount of money paid to employees and 3 show a

decrease. The most important increases—23.1, 22.2, and 17.7 per cent—are shown in woolen, cotton finishing, and paper making, respectively; while a decrease of 7.7 per cent appears in cigar manufacturing, and decreases of 3.6 per cent appear in automobile manufacturing and in car building and repairing.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN MAY AND JUNE, 1919.

Industry.	Estab-lishments reporting for May and June.	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 (-).
			May, 1919.	June, 1919.		May, 1919.	June, 1919.	
Automobile manufacturing..	40	1 week..	93,996	99,169	+ 5.5	\$2,759,780	\$2,660,956	- 3.6
Boots and shoes.....	64	..do....	58,288	57,635	- 1.1	1,158,926	1,178,998	+ 1.7
Car building and repairing...	36	½ month	38,990	38,797	- .5	2,178,038	2,099,432	- 3.6
Cigar manufacturing.....	51	1 week..	16,265	15,096	- 7.2	266,305	245,689	- 7.7
Men's ready-made clothing...	42	..do....	14,755	15,576	+ 5.6	306,209	345,533	+12.8
Cotton finishing.....	16	..do....	12,816	13,945	+ 8.8	248,545	303,674	+22.2
Cotton manufacturing.....	51	..do....	48,261	48,548	+ .6	772,465	890,038	+15.2
Hosiery and underwear.....	53	..do....	25,275	26,734	+ 5.8	372,583	423,851	+13.8
Iron and steel.....	83	½ month.	160,963	160,561	- .3	9,828,339	9,998,443	+ 1.7
Leather manufacturing.....	31	1 week..	15,955	16,307	+ 2.2	355,960	367,897	+ 3.4
Paper making.....	49	..do....	22,303	24,039	+ 7.8	462,849	544,974	+17.7
Silk.....	33	2 weeks..	11,539	11,712	+ 1.5	391,805	402,172	+ 2.6
Woolen.....	48	1 week..	39,773	45,409	+14.2	757,324	932,443	+23.1

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 in comparable form the figures for May, 1919, and June, 1919. The small number of establishments represented should be noted when using these figures.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS ON THE LAST FULL DAY'S OPERATION IN MAY AND JUNE, 1919.

Industry.	Establishments reporting for May and June.	Period of pay roll.	Number actually working on last full day of reported pay period in—		Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
			May, 1919.	June, 1919.	
Automobile manufacturing.....	24	1 week....	66,936	71,367	+6.6
Boots and shoes.....	27	..do....	13,987	14,970	+7.0
Car building and repairing.....	36	½ month..	36,632	36,232	-1.1
Cigar manufacturing.....	18	1 week....	4,632	4,572	-1.3
Men's ready-made clothing.....	4	..do....	3,506	3,752	+7.0
Cotton finishing.....	13	..do....	9,598	10,307	+7.4
Cotton manufacturing.....	32	..do....	21,994	22,304	+1.4
Hosiery and underwear.....	16	..do....	10,906	11,057	+1.4
Iron and steel.....	76	½ month..	128,487	133,978	+4.3
Leather manufacturing.....	19	1 week....	12,532	12,763	+1.8
Paper making.....	19	..do....	9,654	10,413	+7.9
Silk.....	22	2 weeks..	8,769	8,940	+2.0
Woolen.....	43	1 week....	31,196	35,063	+12.4

Changes in Wage Rates.

In 11 of the 13 industries there were establishments reporting wage-rate increases and in 1—iron and steel—decreases during the period May 15 to June 15, 1919. No change was reported in car

building and repairing and cigar manufacturing. Many firms did not answer the inquiry relative to this item.

Automobile manufacturing.—One firm gave an increase of 15 per cent to 10 per cent of the employees, and another concern reported increases of 5 to 15 per cent but failed to give the number of persons affected. About 25 per cent of the force in one plant received an increase of $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents per hour. One plant reported an increase of 2 cents per hour, affecting all of the employees, and another plant granted 5 per cent of the employees an increase of 2 per cent. About 20 per cent of the employees in one establishment received increases ranging from $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents to 15 cents per hour. The average hourly productive rate in one plant was increased 0.0306 cent.

Boots and shoes.—An increase of about 15 per cent was given to approximately 25 per cent of the employees in one establishment. Two firms granted an increase of 10 per cent, which affected the whole force in one plant and about 25 per cent in the other. All of the employees in five factories received an increase of 8.7 per cent.

Men's ready-made clothing.—Twenty-five per cent of the employees in one plant received an increase of 10 per cent, while 50 per cent of the force received a 5 per cent increase; an increase of 10 per cent was given in one shop but no data are at hand relative to the number of persons receiving the increase. An average increase of 5 per cent was granted to 90 per cent of the force in one establishment. One concern gave the cutters an increase of \$5 per week. The girls in one plant received an increase of 4 per cent.

Cotton finishing.—One establishment gave an average increase of 18 per cent to all of the employees. Nine concerns granted an increase of 15 per cent, affecting the entire force in four plants and 95 per cent of the employees in five plants. One firm reported a 10 per cent increase and another an increase of 4 cents per hour, but both failed to make any statement as to the number of persons affected.

Cotton manufacturing.—All of the employees in one plant received an increase of about 20 per cent, and the entire force in another plant received an average increase of 18 per cent. Twenty-three establishments granted a 15 per cent increase, affecting the entire force in 18 plants, all of the employees but the office force and overseers in 1 plant, and practically all of the employees in 2 plants, while 2 plants failed to report the percentage of employees receiving the increase. All of the employees in 2 plants received an increase of about 15 per cent. An increase of 12 per cent was given in 3 mills, this affecting all of the employees in 2 mills and 50 per cent of the force in the third mill. Two plants reported a 10 per cent increase; this affected 25 per cent of the employees in one plant, but

the second plant failed to give any further data. One establishment reported an increase but failed to state the particulars.

Hosiery and underwear.—The entire force in five mills received an increase of 15 per cent. One company granted a general increase of 10 per cent and another plant gave 75 per cent of the employees an increase of about 10 per cent. Two plants reported increases, but failed to give the number of employees affected.

Iron and steel.—One establishment gave the entire force an increase of 15 per cent. The hot mill tonnage men in one plant received an increase of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. One concern granted a small general increase. Respective decreases of 19.6 and 11.7 per cent, affecting the puddle-mill and the finishing-mill workers, or 45 per cent of the employees, were reported by one establishment. One plant decreased the tonnage men in the bar and the sheet departments $17\frac{1}{2}$ and $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, respectively. A decrease of about 6 per cent, affecting about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent of the employees, was made by one establishment.

Leather manufacturing.—All of the employees in one establishment received an increase of 15 per cent. The entire force in 2 plants were given a 10 per cent increase. An increase of about 8 per cent was reported by one concern, but no further data were given. Fifteen per cent of the employees in one plant received an increase of 6 per cent and the entire force in another plant were increased 5 per cent. Half of the force in one establishment was given an increase, the per cent of which was not reported.

Paper making.—The entire force in 2 mills received a 10 per cent increase, and another mill reported an increase of about 10 per cent but did not give the number of persons affected. All of the men in one establishment received an increase of 40 cents per day and the women 25 cents per day. A slight increase was given by one concern and another plant reported an increase to the shop employees, but neither gave further information.

Silk.—An average increase of 25 per cent was reported by one plant. An average increase of 15 per cent was granted in the weaving department by one mill, and an increase of 15 per cent was given to the entire force in one plant and to all of the laborers in another plant. Five establishments reported a 10 per cent increase which affected all of the employees in three plants, two-fifths of the force in another, and 10 per cent of the employees in the fifth plant.

Woolen.—All of the employees in one establishment received an increase of 18 per cent. Increases ranging from 15 to 20 per cent were given in 30 mills. Fourteen plants granted a 15 per cent increase, affecting the entire force in 12 plants and the pieceworkers in one plant, while the other plant failed to state the percentage of persons affected.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

Readjustment of Wages and Working Conditions of New York Harbor Employees.

By BENJAMIN M. SQUIRES.

THE adjustment of wages and working conditions of New York harbor employees during the war has been described in detail in previous issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.¹ The reason for the emphasis given to what might appear to be a purely local situation affecting directly but a few thousand employees is three-fold: First, the unusual insular location of the cities comprising Greater New York makes it dependent probably more than any other city in the world upon the operation of harbor craft for the daily supply of food and other necessities. Thus while less than 16,000 men are employed on harbor craft, four or five million people are immediately affected by any interruption to harbor traffic. Second, the importance of the port of New York in the world's commerce when considered in relation to harbor transportation as a link between rail and steamship lines gives an almost world-wide importance to any interference with the commerce of the port. During the war, particularly, a strike of New York harbor employees would have checked the flow of men and supplies and might well have been an international calamity. Third, there is illustrated forcibly in the efforts to maintain peace in the harbor during the past two years the lack of a definite labor policy on the part of the Government and the confusion resulting from conflicting jurisdiction of governmental agencies.

As stated in a previous article² the Arbitration Board established early in the war for the adjustment of wages and working conditions of men employed on New York harbor craft was set aside by the Railroad Administration and an award made to railroad marine employees in excess of awards previously made to all harbor employees. This resulted in the withdrawal of private boat owners from the agreement creating the Harbor Board. The War Labor

¹ U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics MONTHLY REVIEW, January, 1918, pp. 230-233; MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, July, 1918, pp. 1-21; August, 1918, pp. 45-62; September, 1918, pp. 1-26; February, 1919, pp. 12-27; and April, 1919, pp. 246-249.

² *Id.*, February, 1919, pp. 12-27.

Board was appealed to but both private boat owners and the Railroad Administration refused to accept its jurisdiction. A strike was called which was ended only by a request from the President that the War Labor Board hear and determine the case and that all parties accept its jurisdiction. Government interests and employees accepted the jurisdiction of the War Labor Board. Private boat owners refused to be bound in advance by the decision, submitting, however, in the case of one company in order to have the privilege of presenting evidence and cross-examining witnesses.

The hearing extended over a period of nearly three weeks. Little attention was given to the main issue—the demand for an eight-hour day—counsel for employees apparently resting his case on the recognition by the board of the eight-hour day in other industries and submitting evidence chiefly in support of increased wages.

From the outset there was little prospect of a unanimous decision being reached by the board. This had been a stumbling block when the board had first attempted settlement. According to its rules of procedure, the board could sit as an arbitration body only in case of joint submission, without which it was a board of finding and in case of disagreement could not refer the case to an umpire. When adjustment was first attempted the board did not have a joint submission and was unable to agree on a finding. Now, however, the board had a joint submission on the part of Government interests, one private boat owner, and employees, and if unanimous agreement was impossible could refer the case to an umpire.

The board failed to secure unanimous agreement and the case went to an umpire who found himself with insufficient evidence to establish the eight-hour day except in the case of tugboats in continuous operation, on which the eight-hour day could probably be least readily applied, and on ferryboats, which were already on an eight-hour basis. A commission was recommended, however, to investigate the practicability of an eight-hour day, the decision of the commission to be final. Wages were left as under the award of the harbor board of arbitration pending a decision on the question of hours.

The decision of the umpire came as a surprise to both sides. The Railroad Administration had previously granted wage increases and an eight-hour day but the order making the grant effective had been withheld. Private boat owners had been willing to grant a wage increase and to submit to the findings of a commission in the matter of hours. The Railroad Administration was thus in the position of having agreed to accept the decision but of having previously agreed to pay more. Employees had agreed to accept the decision but knew of the proposed award of the Railroad Administration and

the offer of the private boat owners. Private employers with the exception of one had not agreed to submit to the War Labor Board, had been willing to pay more than the umpire awarded, and were naturally satisfied with the decision.

Under these circumstances employees felt they had a just grievance and three days after the decision was announced met and voted to reject the award in its entirety. The strike committee was in favor of calling a strike at once but it appeared that the time might be opportune for a compromise settlement. Conferences of all interests were called for this purpose but representatives of Government interests claimed to be powerless to do other than accept the decision of the umpire. Private boat owners, however, made three proposals:

1. Unqualified acceptance of the umpire's decision.
2. An immediate increase of 10 per cent in wages with a provision that all other matters at issue would be freely discussed with a view to reconciling differences.
3. All prior agreements to be set aside and an entirely new committee consisting of an equal number of representatives of the unions and the private employers to be created to consider all matters at issue and to enter into a new agreement on wages and working conditions.

These proposals of the private owners were considered by the strike committee and rejected, the committee voting to declare a strike on the following day on all harbor vessels except those operated by the Army and the Navy and on vessels carrying supplies to State institutions.

The strike was called on March 4, 1919, and resulted as in the previous strike in an almost complete tie-up of harbor traffic. Negotiations were continued, however, with the Railroad Administration and on March 8 a settlement was reached whereby the eight-hour day was established and a wage increase granted. Other Government interests accepted the railroad settlement and the strike was thus reduced to the boats of private owners, comprising about 50 per cent of the total harbor craft.

This action by the Railroad Administration and other Government interests brought forth a storm of protest from commercial interests in New York City. The Merchants' Association sent letters to the Secretary of War, the Secretary of Navy, the Director General of Railroads, and the Chairman of the Shipping Board censuring them for failing to stand by the award of the War Labor Board after the President had given his assurance that those departments would use all their power to enforce it. Agreements "to promote resort to arbitration as a means of composing differences between employers and employees * * * are valueless unless their obligations are

honorably observed by the parties thereto. Refusal to abide by an arbitration award, after having voluntarily agreed to be bound thereby, is signal bad faith. To condone such violation, to yield to further demands determined excessive by the arbitrator, is to reward bad faith, to place a premium upon it, and to promote resort to it. Condonement, therefore, amounts to encouraging a resort to force and discouraging arbitration.

“By whoever sanctioned, such condonement of the violation of an arbitrator’s award is reprehensible; it is doubly harmful when sanctioned by governmental authority, for it is then tantamount to notice that the Government will not enforce the obligations of good faith, but on the contrary will reward the delinquents by conceding their demand. It is obvious that such a position, taken by the highest governmental officials, must have a far-reaching and exceedingly harmful effect.

“But in the present case concession to bad faith is not the only nor the most disturbing feature. The surrender of governmental rights is even more serious.”

The letter called attention further to the communication filed with the War Labor Board by the respective governmental interests prior to the hearing in which they stated that “should your board in accordance with the President’s request reassume jurisdiction over the controversy, we desire to assure you that we will gladly submit any interests which we may have in this controversy to your board and will abide by such decision as you may make.”

The telegram sent by harbor employees to the President was quoted, in which it was stated that “complying with your cabled request * * * striking marine workers of New York Harbor have returned to work and submitted their cause absolutely to the War Labor Board, which you have declared to be the instrumentality set up by our Government to settle such controversies.”

Several of the New York papers came out with editorials denouncing the attitude of the Government in yielding to the demands of the strikers and criticizing employees for failing to stand by their promise to accept the decision of the War Labor Board. Employees remained firm, however, and governmental interests took the position that the terms of settlement were virtually those decided upon by the Railroad Administration prior to submission to the War Labor Board.

The settlement in the case of Government-operated craft relieved the situation somewhat and brought about conditions that served eventually to end the strike. In making the settlement with the Railroad Administration, employees had contended for the closed shop, but were dissuaded by having pointed out to them that the

success of the strike made such a provision unnecessary. Accordingly the agreement by which employees returned to work on Government boats made no mention of the closed shop, but provided that men should perform their accustomed duties. Their "accustomed duties," however, involved the towing at times of boats of private operators and this became an immediate menace to the strikers because it permitted the resumption of a considerable part of the harbor traffic. The Railroad Administration was accordingly notified that the unions could not permit the handling of boats owned by private companies. Longshoremen working on the piers of two steamship lines were directed to quit because the steamship companies were charged with taking coal from barges manned by nonunion men.

This phase of the strike brought dissension within the ranks of the harbor unions and the longshoremen. The longshoremen were working under an agreement which did not expire until September. The international president of the longshoremen was opposed to a violation of the agreement, although some of the other officials of the longshoremen were in favor of calling a strike wherever necessary to give effectiveness to the harbor strike. Three of the harbor unions on strike were locals of the International Longshoremen's Association. Two of these unions were in an embarrassing position in that many of their members had previously lived on the boats on which they were employed and found it almost impossible to obtain living quarters ashore. Moreover, neither of the unions was able to pay any considerable strike benefit. As a consequence, the Longshoremen's Association was faced with the unemployment of many men thrown out of work by the strike, a possible strike of others in sympathy with the harbor employees, and the urgent need of many of the members of the affiliated locals of harbor employees.

The situation was thus of serious concern to the Longshoremen's Association. The international president had made several attempts to get the striking unions to accept a compromise settlement, having secured an offer from private boat owners of a 15 per cent increase in wages and a 10-hour day. Strike leaders, however charged him with being in the employ of the boat owners and refused the offer. The clash reached a climax when, through the efforts of the international president, the Tidewater Boatmen's Union voted to accept terms of settlement proposed by the private owners and returned to work. This led to the return to work of some 2,500 men on strike. A considerable number of these men were employed on coal boats, and since the fuel shortage was acute the Railroad Administration began to tow coal barges. The Marine Workers' Affiliation was now faced with a new danger. Although criticizing the Tidewater Boatmen for the separate settlement, the Affiliation had appreciated

the hardship which the strike imposed on tidewater captains and their families and had voted to accept the settlement. This meant, however, that the boats to which these men returned were manned by union men and could properly be towed by railroad or other Government tugs. It was necessary, therefore, to repudiate the settlement of the Tidewater Boatmen and to declare that Government tugs could not move boats manned by the Tidewater Boatmen.

This led to a clash with the Railroad Administration, the regional director declaring that in the original settlement the men had agreed to perform customary work and that, moreover, the coal boats and grain boats of private companies were now manned by union men, whose settlement had been approved by the Marine Workers' Affiliation. The same situation arose a few days later when the Lighter Captains' Union made an independent settlement with private boat owners, thus releasing more boats, which, being manned by union men, could be towed by Government tugs. The action of the Lighter Captains' Union was also repudiated and notice served that boats manned by members of this union could not be towed.

The point was now reached where either the strike must be extended or lose much of its effectiveness. Men on railroad tugs were forbidden to tow any harbor craft owned by private companies unless an agreement had been signed with the Affiliation. The Railroad Administration replied that men thus refusing to tow boats manned by union men would be summarily dismissed. In the meantime further conferences were held between private boat owners and strikers, with a final offer from the boat owners of a 60-hour week and a 15 per cent increase in wages. This offer was rejected by the several unions, and on April 16 a strike was ordered to take effect the following day on all harbor craft. No boats were to be exempt, and it was proposed to stop all traffic, including deep-sea boats. The Central Federated Union, of New York City, declared itself in sympathy, and there seemed to be danger of a general sympathetic strike.

Government officials were appealed to and at the request of the Secretary of Labor a truce was declared for forty-eight hours. A conference was held April 17 between all interests, with the mayor of the city presiding. Private boat owners offered to arbitrate the question of wages and to concede a ten-hour day. This was rejected by employees. The conference was continued during the two following days and the representatives of employees finally agreed to accept the ten-hour day and to arbitrate the question of wages before a committee of boat owners and employees. Thus, after seven weeks of warfare, the strike was ended on terms but little more favorable than were offered at the beginning of the strike.

Naturally, during the strike considerable bitterness developed and this for a time threatened to prevent the carrying out of the agreement to arbitrate. Boat owners named a new committee to act on the arbitration board and requested employees to do likewise, refusing finally to accept certain strike leaders as arbitrators. The owners receded from this position, however, and a compromise was effected by which two-thirds of the employee representatives should be actual employees. A new agreement was entered into as follows:

1. That the arbitration committee of four on a side appointed in April last, after the resumption of work be dissolved.

2. That a new arbitration board, consisting of twelve employers and three captains, three engineers, three hoisting engineers and three representatives of cooks, deckhands and firemen, be appointed to take the place of the dissolved committee. Of each group of three at least two shall be employees in the service of private boat owners. This board may act collectively or through subsections, as its members may determine at their organization meeting, to be held at the Maritime Exchange on Tuesday, May 27, at 10 a. m.

3. That this arbitration board shall select from its membership a permanent board of arbitration and conciliation for the adjustment of such future matters of difference as may arise. The six employer representatives shall be chosen by the employer members, the six employee representatives shall be chosen by the employee members, and at least a majority of the latter shall be actual employees in the service of the private boat owners. This permanent board shall adopt suitable rules and regulations to govern its proceedings. In case the members of this permanent board are unable at any time to agree, they shall select an umpire, whose decision shall be final. In case they are unable to agree upon the selection of such umpire, each shall select a disinterested arbitrator and these, in turn, shall choose an umpire and the decision reached by those three, in conjunction with the board, shall be final.

4. This arrangement shall continue in force until December 31, 1919, and thereafter thirty days' notice of termination is given.

5. Both sides pledge themselves to give the plan here outlined a fair trial and to resort to the permanent board for the adjustment of any differences in preference to declaring a strike or lockout.

Acting under the above agreement, arbitration proceedings were held and a wage scale agreed upon which granted increases averaging about 10 per cent. The wage scale and working conditions established by agreement with private owners are shown in the following table in comparison with previous wages and conditions, demands, and adjustments proposed by the War Labor Board and effected by governmental interests.

WAGES AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF NEW YORK HARBOR EMPLOYEES.

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Occupation.	Wages and conditions established by—									
	Wages and conditions demanded by Marine Workers' Affiliation Nov. 9, 1918, effective Dec. 1, 1918.		Board of Arbitration, New York Harbor Wage Adjustment, July 12, 1918, and in effect at time of demand of Nov. 9, 1918.		Award of umpire for National War Labor Board Feb. 5, 1919, effective Mar. 1, 1919.		Agreement between Marine Workers' Affiliation and U. S. Railroad Administration Mar. 8, 1919, effective Mar. 1, 1919, and confirmed by other Government interests.		Award of New York Harbor Arbitration Board created by New York Boat Owners and Marine Workers' Affiliation, June 16, 1919, and settlements of Mar. 31, 1919, and Apr. 3, 1919.	
WAGES.										
	Monthly rate.	Additional per day for board.	Monthly rate.	Additional per day for board.	Monthly rate.	Additional per day for board.	Monthly rate.	Additional per day for board.	Monthly rate.	Additional per day for board.
TUGS, STEAM LIGHTERS, AND OTHER SELF-PROPELLED VESSELS.										
Captains.....	\$225	\$140, \$150, \$160	\$0.75	\$140, \$150, \$160	\$0.75	\$190	¹ \$155, \$165, \$175 ² 200, 210, 225	\$0.75
Pilots.....	200	140	.75	140	.75	170	² 180, 186	.75
Mates.....	150	115	.75	115	.75	\$110, \$120, 145	¹ 145, 155, 165 ² 190, 200, 215	.75
Engineers.....	225	130, 140, 150	.75	130, 140, 150	.75	18075
Oilers, licensed.....	150	115	² 80	.75
Oilers, unlicensed.....	145	\$1.00	80	.75	80	.75	¹ 80, 90	.75
Firemen.....	\$135, 140	1.00	75, 80	.75	75, 80	.75	115	² 80, 85, 95	.75
Deck hands.....	127.50, 132.50	1.00	75, 80	.75	75, 80	.75	105, 110	¹ 80, 85	.75
Cooks.....	127.50, 132.50	1.00	75, 80	.75	75, 77	.75	105	² 80, 85, 95 ¹ 80, 85 ² 85	.75

FERRYBOATS.

Captains or pilots.....	\$225	\$175	\$175	\$190		
Wheelmen.....	145	95	95	110		
Engineers.....	225	165	165	180		
Oilers, licensed.....	160	100	100	120		
Oilers, unlicensed.....	150	95	95			
Firemen.....	150	95	95	115		
Deck hands, first.....	135	85	85	105		
Porters.....	125			85		

CAR AND CATTLE FLOATS.

Floatmen.....	3 \$30	\$1.00	\$75	\$0.75	\$75	\$0.75	\$105		
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COVERED BARGES AND LIGHTERS.

Captains.....	4 \$5.50, \$6, \$6.50	4 \$3.50, \$3.75, \$4	4 \$3.50, \$3.75, \$4	\$120, \$125, \$130	3 \$26, \$27.50, \$29
Mates.....	4			90	3 15
Engineers.....	6, 6.50, 7	4 2.25, 4.50	4 2.25, 4.50	135, 140	3 29, 30.50

COAL BOATS AND GRAIN BOATS.

Captains.....	\$125	\$85	\$85	\$110	\$110
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SCOWS AND DUMPERS.

Captains.....	\$125	\$90	\$90	\$100
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¹ 10-hour day.

² 12-hour day.

³ Per week.

⁴ Per day.

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WAGES AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF NEW YORK HARBOR EMPLOYEES—Concluded.

Kind of vessel.	Wages and conditions established by—				
	Wages and conditions demanded by Marine Workers' Affiliation Nov. 9, 1918, effective Dec. 1, 1918.	Board of Arbitration, New York Harbor Wage Adjustment, July 12, 1918, and in effect at time of demand of Nov. 9, 1918.	Award of umpire for National War Labor Board Feb. 5, 1919, effective Mar. 1, 1919.	Agreement between Marine Workers' Affiliation and U. S. Railroad Administration Mar. 8, 1919, effective Mar. 1, 1919, and confirmed by other Government interests.	Award of New York Harbor Arbitration Board created by New York Boat Owners and Marine Workers' Affiliation, June 16, 1919, and settlements of Mar. 31, 1919, and Apr. 3, 1919.
WORKING CONDITIONS.					
HOURS PER DAY.					
Self-propelled craft:					
Single crew tugs and lighters.....	8	12	12	8	10
Double crew tugs and lighters.....	8	12	8	8	12
Ferryboats.....	8	8	8	8
Cattle and car floats.....	8	12	12	8
Covered barges and lighters.....	8	10	10	10	10
Coal boats, grain boats, scows, and dumpers.....	8	12	12	12	12
DAYS PER WEEK.					
Coal boats and grain boats.....	6	7	7	Not specified.....	7
All other boats.....	6	6	6	6	6
OVERTIME RATE (FOR WORK PERFORMED IN EXCESS OF SPECIFIED HOURS PER DAY OR DAYS PER WEEK).					
Coal boats and grain boats.....	Time and one-half.....			Not specified.....	\$1 per night.....
do.....	\$1 per night.....	\$1 per night.....	Not specified.....	Not specified.....	\$1 per night.....
Scows and dumpers.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....
Lighters: Engineers.....	Double time.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....	Time and one-half.....
All other craft and employees.....	Time and one-half.....do.....do.....do.....	Straight time for 11th and 12th hours, time and one-half thereafter.
WATCHING RATE.					
Covered barges and lighters.....	Time and one-half.....	\$1.50 per night.....	\$1.50 per night.....	\$2 per night.....	\$1.50 per night.....

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In reviewing the relations of New York harbor boat owners and employees since the concerted action of the latter in 1917, a few facts stand out predominately and lead to obvious conclusions. The Marine Workers' Affiliation was admittedly brought into being in part by the strategic position of labor in the port due to the unusual demands of war and in part by the uncompromising attitude of many boat owners toward harbor unions, particularly the unions of unlicensed men on harbor boats. The advantage due to the war may be considered to have passed except as it may have resulted in an increase in membership and in the rather uncertain change in the general relations of employer and employed as a result of forced negotiations during the war or the realization of an undercurrent of unrest permeating our whole industrial system. New York harbor boat owners have apparently receded from their previous position of opposition to unions of their employees and are prepared to deal collectively with them through union representatives. This marks a long step in advance of former relations and with careful direction should lead to continued adjustment of industrial relations through peaceful negotiation.

The chief obstacle to the plan of self-adjustment in the harbor lies in the lack of organization of boat owners and, what amounts to the same thing, the lack of solidarity on the part of the harbor unions. Nothing so encourages negotiations between employers and employees and makes for equitable adjustments as the respect that each side has for the strength and reliability of the other side. At present boat owners are poorly organized though a practically united front was presented during the strike. The entire period of previous negotiations, however, had been characterized by conflicting interests of employers. There are between 400 and 500 owners of harbor craft in the port. The railroads constitute a distinct interest unwilling thus far to be considered with other interests. The harbor equipment of steamship lines constitutes another interest more or less willing to cooperate. Some two hundred private owners or operators of commercial harbor craft belong to one of three associations of boat owners. Probably two hundred owners are independent of any association of employers. The result has been a jealously guarded independence inimical to a constructive policy for dealing with labor. What must come if peaceful negotiation and settlement is to be assured is a complete organization of employing harbor interests and the formulation of a definite labor policy to which all shall subscribe and be held responsible. It may well be that for the consideration of matters other than industrial relationship distinct interests should have their own organization but in dealing with a body of labor organized on the basis of the entire port nothing short of a complete organization of all employing interests is practicable.

In contrast with the lack of organization among boat owners the Marine Workers' Affiliation showed evidence, for a time at least, of an almost complete union of harbor employees, but the defection in the ranks during the strike and the clash between the Affiliation and the International Longshoremen's Association has emphasized the necessity of a closer organization. The final settlement of wages and working conditions by collective action has served to reunite the harbor unions and to restore the prestige of the leaders and the Affiliation.

The real test of the machinery of self-adjustment will probably come when harbor craft and marine equipment now under Government control is placed again in private operation. The contention of the men was originally for a standardization of wage rates and working conditions. This was accomplished by the arbitration agreement first entered into, but was upset with the withdrawal of the Railroad Administration from the agreement and the establishment of different conditions. The history of the harbor unions shows a lack of complete harmony between railroad and other members of the unions. With the exception of one union recently formed composed entirely of railroad employees, each of the harbor unions is made up of railroad employees and employees of other harbor transportation companies. In a measure the railroad employee has felt superior to other employees. For the most part there has been a slight difference in wages in favor of the men on railroad boats. Consequently the railroad employees were the most difficult to keep in line in any general strike action. This fact accounted, in part, for the willingness of the Affiliation during the last strike to sign up an agreement with the railroads rather than attempt to force a general settlement before any men returned to work. Men on railroad boats and on other harbor craft operated by the Government are now on an eight-hour day and are receiving higher wages than men on private boats, who are working 10 hours. The feeling is prevalent that an attempt will be made to reduce wages and increase hours when boats are released from Federal control. This will meet with opposition from the employees on Government boats, who will then need the support of other members of the several unions. It is not unlikely that this will serve to strengthen the Affiliation.

If, on the other hand, railroad marine employees should continue to enjoy the eight-hour day and the wage differential, it is unlikely that other employees will continue to be satisfied to work 10 hours for less money. It will thus be a question of a struggle by railroad employees against a wage reduction and increase of hours, or by other employees to raise wages and reduce hours to the level of the railroads. The test will be severe and the manner in which it is

met will be determined by the sincerity and vision with which both sides face the issue. The most feasible way seems to be as suggested—for each side to recognize that in industrial relations the port is a unit, and to adjust wages and working conditions on that basis. Permanent adjustment machinery should be established, with provision for the prompt consideration of grievances and for regular joint meetings at which matters of common interest will be freely discussed. If both sides face squarely and openly the problems that arise, the danger of further interruption to harbor traffic is remote.

Changes in Wages and Hours of Labor in Canada.¹

THE table following is a summary of the wages and hours of labor as fixed by the more important industrial agreements recently reported to the Canadian Department of Labor:

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN CANADA AS FIXED BY RECENT INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS.

Industry and occupation.	Locality.	Wages.	Hours per week.	Date agreement came into effect.
BUILDING TRADES.				
Painters, decorators, etc.....	Hamilton, Ontario.	\$0.525 per hour ²	44	Apr., 1919 ³
Plumbers and steam fitters.....	Waterloo, Ontario.	\$0.60 per hour ²	49	May, 1919 ³
ENGINEERS, ETC.				
Steam shovel, drag line, and cableway workers.	Ottawa, Ontario	\$212 per month.....	44	May, 1919
Cranemen, steam shovel.....do.....	\$162 per month.....	44	Do.
Engineers, dinky engine.....do.....	\$175 per month.....	44	Do.
Orange peel bucket, clamshell, derrick, steam roller, steam and electric hoist workers.do.....	\$0.65 per hour.....	44	Do.
Concrete mixers, air compressors, and engineers (not specified).do.....	\$0.60 per hour.....	44	Do.
Engineers, chief, electric power plant....do.....	\$0.60 per hour.....	44	Do.
Engineers, assistant, electric power plantdo.....	\$0.55 per hour.....	44	Do.
MACHINE SHOPS.				
Machinists.....	Ontario.....	\$0.80 per hour.....	44	Apr., 1919
Operators, first.....do.....	\$0.55 per hour.....	44	Do.
Operators, second.....do.....	\$0.60 per hour.....	44	Do.
Operators, third.....do.....	\$0.65 per hour.....	44	Do.
Operators, fourth.....do.....	\$0.70 per hour.....	44	Do.
PRINTING AND PUBLISHING.				
Compositors, hand and machine.....	Guelph, Ontario	\$20 per week ⁶	48	Oct., 1918 ⁶
Pressmen in charge, journeymen.....	Regina, Saskatchewan.	\$29 per week ⁷	(8)	Sept., 1918 ⁸

¹ Data taken from Labour Gazette (Ottawa) for June, 1919.

² Minimum rates.

³ In effect 1 year.

⁴ Per day.

⁵ \$21 per week after September, 1919.

⁶ In effect 3 years.

⁷ Minimum for day workers; \$31 for night workers.

⁸ Not reported.

⁹ In effect 19 months.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN CANADA AS FIXED BY RECENT INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS—Continued.

Industry and occupation.	Locality.	Wages.	Hours per week	Date agreement came into effect.
BREAD BAKERS.				
Shops employing 4 men:				
Foremen.....	Ottawa, Ontario	\$30 per week.....	54	Jan., 1919 ¹
Dough mixers.....	do.....	\$23 per week.....	54	Do.
Second hands.....	do.....	do.....	54	Do.
Machine men.....	do.....	\$24 per week.....	54	Do.
Other bakers.....	do.....	\$22 per week.....	54	Do.
Foremen, packing room.....	do.....	\$24 per week.....	54	Do.
Shops employing 3 men or less:				
Foremen.....	do.....	\$25 per week.....	54	Do.
Second hands.....	do.....	\$23 per week.....	54	Do.
Other bakers.....	do.....	\$22 per week.....	54	Do.
CAKE BAKERS.				
Foremen.....	Ottawa, Ontario	\$30 per week.....	54	Jan., 1919 ¹
Second hands.....	do.....	\$25 per week.....	54	Do.
Third hands.....	do.....	\$22 per week.....	54	Do.
BREWERIES.				
Bottlers.....	Waterloo, Ontario.	\$13.50 per week.....	2 47½	(7)
Bottlers, beginners.....	do.....	\$17 per week.....	2 47½	(7)
Cellar men, drivers, and kettle men.....	do.....	\$20 per week.....	2 47½	(7)
Drivers' helpers.....	do.....	\$18 per week.....	2 47½	(7)
Drivers, single.....	do.....	\$19 per week.....	2 47½	(7)
Wash-house workers.....	do.....	\$19.50 per week.....	2 47½	(7)
Engineers.....	do.....	\$30 per week.....	70	(7)
Firemen.....	do.....	\$21 per week.....	56	(7)
TRANSPORTATION.				
Plano drivers:				
Men on the back.....	Montreal, Quebec.	\$32.50 per week.....	9	Apr., 1919 ¹
First men at the front.....	do.....	\$30 per week.....	9	Do.
Third men.....	do.....	\$23 per week.....	9	Do.
Chauffeurs, trucks.....	do.....	\$0.60 per hour.....	9	Do.
Chauffeurs' helpers, trucks.....	do.....	\$0.55 per hour.....	9	Do.
Coal drivers.....	do.....	\$20.25 per week.....	9	Do.
Drivers, 2 horses.....	do.....	\$0.50 per hour.....	9	Do.
Drivers, 1 horse.....	do.....	\$0.45 per hour.....	9	Do.
Stablemen.....	do.....	\$25 per week.....	10	Do.
Longshoremen:				
Nitrate and bulk sulphur, grain trimming and bagging.....	do.....	\$0.75 per hour.....	(4)	Jan., 1919 ¹
Coal handling, general cargo vessels.....	do.....	\$0.65 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT.				
Telephone operators.....	Edmonton, Alberta.	\$45 to \$70 per month ²	(4)	Feb., 1919 ¹
Stenographers.....	do.....	\$75 per month ³	(4)	Do.
Meter readers.....	do.....	\$82 per month ³	(4)	Do.
General clerks.....	do.....	\$85 per month ³	(4)	Do.
Conductors and motormen, street railways:				
First 6 months.....	do.....	\$0.35 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Second 6 months.....	do.....	\$0.375 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Second year.....	do.....	\$0.40 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Third year.....	do.....	\$0.45 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Car repairers:				
First year.....	do.....	\$0.40 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Second year.....	do.....	\$0.45 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Third year.....	do.....	\$0.475 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Fourth year.....	do.....	\$0.50 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Car cleaners.....	do.....	\$0.395 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Machinists.....	do.....	\$0.68 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Electricians.....	do.....	\$0.60 to \$0.65 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Carpenters.....	do.....	\$0.70 per hour.....	(4)	Do.
Painters and blacksmiths.....	do.....	\$0.60 per hour.....	(4)	Do.

¹ In effect 1 year.² Average: 50 hours, April to September; 45 hours, October to March.³ Per day.⁴ Not reported.⁵ Minimum rates.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR IN CANADA AS FIXED BY RECENT INDUSTRIAL AGREEMENTS—Concluded.

Industry and occupation.	Locality.	Wages.	Hours per week.	Date agreement came into effect.
MUNICIPAL EMPLOYMENT—concluded.				
Trackmen.....	Edmonton, Alberta.	\$0.40 per hour.....	(1)	Feb., 1919 ²
Night watchmen.....	do.....	\$75 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Track greasers.....	do.....	\$85 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Firemen: ³				
Operators, first 6 months.....	do.....	\$1,008 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Operators, second 6 months.....	do.....	\$1,056 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
First men, first 6 months.....	do.....	\$1,008 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
First men, second 6 months.....	do.....	\$1,056 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
First men, second year.....	do.....	\$1,122 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
First men, third year.....	do.....	\$1,188 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Horse drivers, first year.....	do.....	\$1,122 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Horse drivers, second year.....	do.....	\$1,188 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Horse drivers, third year.....	do.....	\$1,254 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Horse drivers, fourth year.....	do.....	\$1,269 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Chauffeurs.....	do.....	\$1,260 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Engineers.....	do.....	\$1,386 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Mechanics.....	do.....	\$1,800 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Lieutenants.....	do.....	\$1,800 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Captains.....	do.....	\$1,323 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
District chiefs.....	do.....	\$1,449 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
District chiefs.....	do.....	\$1,500 per year ⁴	(1)	Do.
Electric light and power:				
Linemen, foremen.....	do.....	\$0.70 per hour.....	5 8	Do.
Linemen, subforemen.....	do.....	\$0.675 per hour.....	5 8	Do.
Linemen, journeymen.....	do.....	\$0.65 per hour.....	5 8	Do.
Meter installers.....	do.....	\$0.55 per hour.....	5 8	Do.
Meter repairer and test men.....	do.....	\$122.50 per month.....	5 8	Do.
Meter foreman.....	do.....	\$130 per month.....	5 8	Do.
Arc-lamp trimmers and trouble men.....	do.....	\$82 per month.....	5 8	Do.
Repair men.....	do.....	\$105 per month.....	5 8	Do.
Telephones:				
Switchmen, first class.....	do.....	\$140 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Switchmen, second class.....	do.....	\$130 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Switchmen, third class.....	do.....	\$120 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Inspectors, first class.....	do.....	\$135 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Inspectors, second class.....	do.....	\$125 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Inspectors, third class.....	do.....	\$110 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Service men, first class.....	do.....	\$130 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Service men, second class.....	do.....	\$120 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Service men, third class.....	do.....	\$110 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Rackmen, first class.....	do.....	\$130 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Rackmen, second class.....	do.....	\$110 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Rack men, third class.....	do.....	\$100 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Switchboard men, first class.....	do.....	\$130 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Switchboard men, second class.....	do.....	\$120 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Switchboard men, third class.....	do.....	\$110 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Night service men (main), first class.....	do.....	\$110 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Night service men (main), second class.....	do.....	\$100 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Night service men (main), third class.....	do.....	\$90 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Night men, branch.....	do.....	\$65 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Subforemen, branch office.....	do.....	\$145 to \$155 per month.....	(1)	Do.
Shop mechanics.....	do.....	\$0.62 per hour.....	(1)	Do.
Installers, first class.....	do.....	\$0.62 per hour.....	(1)	Do.
Installers, second class.....	do.....	\$0.58 per hour.....	(1)	Do.
Installers, third class.....	do.....	\$0.54 per hour.....	(1)	Do.
Linemen.....	do.....	\$0.52 to \$0.60 per hour.....	(1)	Do.
Cable spicers.....	do.....	\$0.50 to \$0.70 per hour.....	(1)	Do.
Laborers and teamsters.....	do.....	\$0.395 per hour ⁴	(1)	Do.
Skilled laborers.....	do.....	\$0.44 per hour ⁴	(1)	Do.
ELECTRIC POWER AND TRANSMISSION.				
Linemen, first class.....	Hamilton, Ontario.	\$0.55 per hour.....	(1)	Apr., 1919 ²
Linemen, second class.....	do.....	\$0.50 per hour.....	(1)	Do.

¹Not reported.

²In effect 1 year.

³The agreement provides for the establishment of a two-platoon system.

⁴Minimum rates.

⁵Per day.

Employment and Wages in Pulp and Paper Mills.

A RECENT report on the pulp and paper industry of Canada, compiled by the Dominion Bureau of Statistics and the forestry branch of the Department of the Interior, gives employment and wage data for the years 1915 and 1917, showing considerable changes during the two-year period. The report shows that the number of mills increased only from 80 to 83, while the average number of wage earners increased 30.1 per cent, the average number of salaried employees increased 38.2 per cent, salaries and wage payments were greater in 1917 than in 1915 by 94.6 per cent, and "the ratio of increase in the cash value of the production was nearly 140 per cent." In 1917, salaries and wages paid amounted to about 11 per cent of the total capital invested and to about 21 per cent of the value of that year's product.

The following table gives the number of employees in the various wage groups, showing a decided upward trend during the period. The average weekly wage of all employees—men, women, and children—was approximately \$13.42 in 1915 and \$15.76 in 1917.

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES RECEIVING SPECIFIED WEEKLY WAGES, 1915 AND 1917, BY SEX.

Weekly wages.	1915					1917				
	Males.	Fe- males.	Child- ren under 16.	Total.		Males.	Fe- males.	Child- ren under 16.	Total.	
				Num- ber.	Per cent.				Num- ber.	Per cent.
Less than \$5.....	65	186	122	373	2.81	62	25	11	98	0.45
\$5 but less than \$10.....	3,993	463	59	4,515	33.98	829	540	79	1,448	6.67
\$10 but less than \$15.....	5,882	3	2	5,887	44.31	6,926	64	9	6,999	32.25
\$15 but less than \$20.....	1,563	1	1,564	11.77	8,117	6	7	8,130	37.47
\$20 but less than \$25.....	546	546	4.11	3,119	3,119	14.37
\$25 and over.....	402	402	3.03	1,904	1	1,905	8.78
Total.....	12,451	652	184	13,287	100.00	20,957	636	106	21,699	99.99

The employees in this industry are largely adult males, their proportion being 93.7 per cent of all employees in 1915 and 96.6 per cent of all employees in 1917.

The combined pulp and paper mills have 66.3 per cent of the workers; pulp mills alone employ 26.5 per cent, while paper mills alone employ the remaining 7.3 per cent. Such women as are employed are mainly in the paper mills, where practically one-fourth of the workers are females. Disregarding the females, employed, as just stated, in relatively small numbers, the variations from month to month in the number of workers show for all the mills a decrease of 15.1 per cent from the month of highest employment (July)

to that of lowest (February). The greatest falling off is in the pulp mills, where the difference between these two months is a decrease of 29.8 per cent.

Of a total of 304 working days in 1917, all mills combined worked 263 days on full time and 18 days on part time, and were idle 23 days. The pulp and paper mills combined worked 296 days on full time and shutdowns were practically nil; pulp mills had 242 full days and 39 days idle, and paper mills had 251 full days and 29 days idle.

The average shift was 10.2 hours long for all the mills, being 9.4 hours for pulp and paper combined, 10 for paper alone, and 10.9 for pulp alone. The hours per week were 61.6 for all the mills, paper mills alone and paper and pulp combined reporting less than this (59.5) but pulp mills alone working 65 hours a week.

Wages in Ottawa Building Trades.

AN agreement fixing wages for certain occupations in the Ottawa (Canada) building trades, and providing for the formation of a joint industrial council, has recently been signed by representatives of the Building Trades' Council of Ottawa and the Ottawa branch of the Association of Canadian Building and Construction Industries. This agreement is as follows:

Agreement made in duplicate between the Building Trades Council of Ottawa and the Ottawa Branch of the Association of Canadian Building and Construction Industries hereby provides:

1. That this agreement shall be for one year, terminating April 30, 1920.
2. That we, the undersigned, hereby agree that the rate of wages stated in the accompanying schedule shall be the rate to be paid to the various trades in the city of Ottawa.
3. That we accept the principle of the eight-hour day except for laborers and steam engineers, who are permitted to work nine hours if necessary.
4. That we agree to eliminate overtime as far as possible, except in the case of accident, or for the saving of life or property.
5. That we agree to the principle of weekly pay, employers to be allowed two days in which to make up their pay roll.
6. No member of the unions in the employ of any recognized contractor shall be allowed to work after hours for any other contractor or for any private party.
7. The members of the unions parties to this agreement propose to do all they can to promote efficiency by working to the interests of their employers, by giving a fair day's work for the wages paid.

Industrial Council.

8. We agree to the formation of an Industrial Council consisting of five representatives from the Building Trades Council and five representatives from the Ottawa Branch of the Canadian Building and Construction Industries, with an independent chairman to be agreed upon by both parties.

9. In case of any dispute between the parties to this agreement, it is understood that before a strike is resorted to the dispute in question shall be laid before the Indus-

trial Council, this council to be called within 48 hours after being notified by either party.

10. This agreement is subject to the individual agreement of the various unions.

11. The employers agree to the principle of closed shop.

12. The parties to this agreement recognize only the following holidays: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Dominion Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas Day.

Schedules.

Occupation.	Wages per hour.
Masons and bricklayers, marble and tile setters.....	\$0. 75
Stonecutters.....	. 75
Carpenters.....	. 60
Painters.....	. 50
Plasterers.....	. 70
Electrical workers.....	. 60
Cement finishers.....	. 60
Plumbers and steamfitters.....	¹ . 65
Laborers.....	² . 45
Steam shovel workers.....	. 95
Steam hoist workers.....	. 65
Steam mixer workers.....	. 60

Wages in Calgary Metal Trades.

REPRESENTATIVES of the Calgary metal-trades unions and of the different contract shops in that city entered into an agreement on May 17, 1919, for a 44-hour week and certain minimum wage rates, and providing that "whatever is the general basis of settlement in wages in Toronto or Winnipeg will automatically take effect in Calgary, plus 5 cents over the highest point." The agreement is as follows:

This agreement entered into between Patternmakers' League of North America, Molders' Local 360, International Association of Machinists 357, and International Brotherhood of Blacksmiths and Helpers 281, and the different contract shops in Calgary.

In effect from this date and to remain in effect thereafter unless five days' — notice has been given in by either parties of a desire to change.

Clause 1.—The regular working days shall not exceed eight hours the first five days of the week, and four hours on Saturday. Shops to close at 12 noon on Saturday. The night shift shall consist of seven and a half hours per night, five nights per week and paid for 44 hours.

Clause 2.—All time worked over schedule shall be considered overtime and shall be paid for at the rate of time and one half for the first four hours after close of shop hours, and double time thereafter. Double time for Sundays and all Dominion holidays: New Year's Day, Good Friday, Empire Day, King's Birthday, if proclaimed by Federal Government, Dominion Day, Labor Day, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas Day.

¹ To Dec. 31, 1919.

² Maximum, 50 cents per hour.

Clause 3.—The minimum rate of pay shall be as follows: (pending settlement in Winnipeg and Toronto):

	Cents per hour.
Machinists.....	80
Molders.....	80
Patternmakers.....	80
Blacksmiths.....	80
Acetylene welders.....	80

Temporary, and 5 cents per hour above Toronto or Winnipeg, up to 85 cents per hour retroactive from date of starting work.

	Cents per hour.
Specialists.....	65
Rough drillers.....	60
Helpers.....	60
General laborers.....	55
General laborers.....	50

(First three months.)

Whatever is the general basis of settlement in wages in Toronto or Winnipeg will automatically take effect in Calgary, plus 5 cents over the highest point.

Apprentices, 30 cents per hour first year and 5 cents per hour increase each six months of the second year, and 5 cents per hour increase each additional six months until the finish of apprenticeship.

Clause 4.—Apprentices shall serve four years, and during said term shall be advanced in all branches of the trade. The ratio of apprenticeship shall not exceed one for the shops at large and one for every five journeymen regularly employed.

Clause 5.—(a) A patternmaker shall be any person who has served an apprenticeship at patternmaking.

(b) A molder shall be any person who has served four years with varied experience at the trade. (Fifteen minutes latitude will be allowed either way for completion of jobs.)

(c) Machinists' work will consist of the operating of lathes, planers, slotting, milling, shaping, boring, or other machine tools requiring skilled operation. Laying off work, fitting and erecting tractors, dismantling and assembling.

(d) A blacksmith shall be any man who has served four years with varied experience at the blacksmith trade and who, by skill and experience, is capable of taking a piece of work, with use of blue prints, and transmitting such work to a successful completion within reasonable time.

Clause 6.—No person to be allowed to start work at any of the crafts unless he has a card, or accepted by shop committee. The employer has the option of starting non-union men in event of union being unable to secure union craftsmen.

Clause 7.—When a grievance of specified or general nature arises, same will be taken up with the management by the shop committee of the craft affected; failing an adjustment, the chairman of the different crafts shop committee will take the matter up. All grievances to be adjusted during shop hours, time limit not to exceed 30 minutes.

Farm Laborers' Wages in 1918.

A STATEMENT of farm laborers' wages in Canada in 1917 appeared in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for April, 1919 (pp. 178, 179). Similar figures have been put out by the Dominion Bureau of Labor Statistics covering 1918, showing that the wages paid for this class of labor, both male and female, were considerably higher than those paid in 1917, which were then the highest on record. During the

summer of 1918, taking the Dominion as a whole, the average wages per month, inclusive of board, were \$70 for males as compared with \$64 in 1917, and \$38 for females as compared with \$34 in 1917. For the year as a whole the average wages paid to males were \$617 as compared with \$611 in 1917, and to females \$416 as compared with \$364. The increase in the average value of board per month is noted, the figures being \$21 for males and \$17 for females, as compared with \$19 and \$15, respectively, in 1917. The following statement shows, by Provinces, the average wages (including board) paid to male and female farm labor during the summer of 1918:

AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES (INCLUDING BOARD) OF FARM WORKERS IN SPECIFIED PROVINCES OF CANADA IN THE SUMMER OF 1918.

Province.	Males.	Females.
British Columbia.....	\$89	\$57
Alberta.....	86	50
Saskatchewan.....	86	49
Manitoba.....	78	45
New Brunswick.....	69	31
Quebec.....	65	33
Ontario.....	62	35
Nova Scotia.....	60	30
Prince Edward Island.....	46	25

Wages in Sweden During the War.¹

AN investigation of wartime changes in the level of money wages paid in Sweden was made during the past year by the Swedish Government. The investigation, the results of which are being published in the Sociala Meddelanden, the monthly journal of the Department for Social Affairs, disclosed decided increases in all industries. In the lumbering industry the average daily piecework earnings of woodcutters increased from 97.3 cents in 1913 to \$3.59 in 1918, or 269 per cent, while the average daily earnings of a driver (plus the keep of his horse) increased from \$2.05 to \$8.80, or 329.3 per cent. These figures are based on returns covering 150,000 persons employed in lumbering during the winter months in northern Sweden.

In the case of seamen the figures, which were obtained from the official records kept by the Swedish Seamen's Registry, show that during the period 1914 to 1917 the average monthly wage for all classes of workmen on steamers rose from \$19.18 to \$22.97, or 19.8 per cent, and for workers on sailing vessels from \$16.77 to \$22.16, or 32.2 per cent. In addition to the fixed wages, bonuses to cover war risks were granted. These ranged in 1918 from \$14.86 to \$25.69 for ordinary seamen and unskilled firemen; from \$14.86 to \$27.03 for able seamen and skilled firemen; and from \$14.86 to \$29.75 for donkeymen, boatswains, and carpenters. The bonuses varied ac-

¹ Data taken from Labour Gazette, London, May, 1919, pp. 180, 181.

ording as the voyages were along the Swedish coast, to other Baltic seaports, and to more distant places. Certain allowances varying in proportion to the war-risk insurance upon the vessel were also made to deck hands and engine-room hands. By reason of these allowances an able seaman, taking part in a voyage between France and England might, during the war, earn \$135.19 per month, while one employed on a journey between Sweden and England could earn \$67.58.

Index numbers show the percentages in rates of cash wages of the more important agricultural workers during the period from 1913 to 1918. Male and female farm servants living in received increases of 104 and 91 per cent, respectively, while carters and stockmen living out had increases of 85 and 81 per cent, respectively. Compared with 1913 the day rates of male laborers who boarded out increased 125 per cent in summer and 134 per cent in winter, while those who received board in addition to money wages had increases of 88 per cent in summer and 106 per cent in winter. Female farm laborers who received only money wages had increases of 148 per cent in summer and 140 per cent in winter during the same period, while those who received board in addition to money wages had increases of 112 per cent in summer and 116 per cent in winter.

Reports as to handicrafts, transport, and hotel and domestic service show that at the end of 1918 the increase over 1914 in the handicrafts and transport group amounted to 110 per cent, as compared with 68 per cent in the hotel and domestic service group. At the end of 1917 the increase in both groups was the same—41 per cent. The smaller increase in the hotel and domestic service group in 1918 is attributed to the large increase in the cost of board and lodging, which forms part of the remuneration of this class of workers. Inquiries made to ascertain the increase in the value of board and lodging of female servants showed that in towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants the average increase between 1914 and 1918 was 148 per cent, for other places it was 140 per cent. In Stockholm alone the increase amounted to 255 per cent.

Wages and Labor Costs in the Wood-Pulp Industry.

ONE of the largest industries of Sweden is the wood-pulp industry. It has grown from a production of 318,000 tons in 1900 to 1,324,000 in 1916. The pulp industry is also one of the largest export industries of the country. Exports in 1900 came to 207,000 tons and in 1912 to 812,000 tons. Most of the wood pulp now manufactured, as well as exported, is chemically produced pulp (978,273 tons in 1916) as distinguished from the mechanically produced (346,184 tons in 1916). The so-called sulphite process is the most generally employed.

Recent data as to wages and labor costs in the industry are contained in a detailed memorandum prepared by the members of the wood pulp manufacturers' association.¹ The data apply to 33 establishments, which produced over 764,000 tons² of wood pulp in 1915.

Out of 4,696 wage earners reported by the 33 establishments in question, 1,934, or 41.3 per cent, had earnings of 40 ores (10.7 cents) or less per hour, and 790, or 16.8 per cent, earned 55 ores (14.7 cents) and over per hour. The ordinary working day is 10 hours.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WAGE EARNERS RECEIVING CLASSIFIED WAGES PER HOUR FOR ORDINARY WORKING TIME (NOT INCLUDING OVERTIME OR EXTRA WORK) IN 33 ESTABLISHMENTS.

Classified wages per hour.	Northern Sweden.		Southern and central Sweden.		Total.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Under 25 ores (\$0.067).....	42	1.3	45	3.0	87	1.9
25 (\$0.067) but less than 30 ores (\$0.08).....	92	2.9	254	16.8	346	7.4
30 (\$0.08) but less than 35 ores (\$0.094).....	307	9.6	256	16.9	563	12.0
35 (\$0.094) but less than 40 ores (\$0.107).....	629	19.8	309	20.4	938	20.0
40 (\$0.107) but less than 45 ores (\$0.121).....	475	14.9	269	17.8	744	15.8
45 (\$0.121) but less than 50 ores (\$0.134).....	420	13.2	162	10.7	582	12.4
50 (\$0.134) but less than 55 ores (\$0.147).....	519	16.3	127	8.4	646	13.8
55 ores (\$0.147).....	117	3.7	7	.5	124	2.6
Over 55 ores (\$0.147).....	531	18.3	85	5.6	666	14.2
Total.....	3,182	100.0	1,514	100.0	4,696	100.0

The labor cost of producing one ton of wood pulp in 1915 as reported by 33 establishments, and including 4,342 employees, is as follows:

SUMMARY OF LABOR COSTS PER TON OF PULP IN 33 ESTABLISHMENTS, EMPLOYING 4,342 WORKERS, IN 1915.

Department.	Northern Sweden.		Southern and central Sweden.	
	Crowns.	Dollars.	Crowns.	Dollars.
Productive:				
Wood room.....	3.89	1.04	4.83	1.29
Digesters.....	.55	.15	1.24	.33
Blow pits.....	.40	.11	.51	.14
Screen room.....	.38	.10	.56	.15
Dryers or wet machines.....	1.37	.37	1.84	.49
Boiler house.....	1.12	.30	1.29	.35
Power plant.....	.49	.13	.49	.13
Acid room.....	.60	.16	.77	.21
Total productive.....	8.80	2.36	11.53	3.09
Repairs:				
Machine work.....	1.11	.30	.87	.23
Carpenters.....	.42	.11	.44	.12
Bricklayers.....	.21	.06	.22	.06
Lead burners.....	.14	.04	.33	.09
Total repairs.....	1.88	.50	1.86	.50
Grand total.....	10.68	2.86	13.39	3.59
Screenings.....	.29	.08	.43	.12
Yard labor.....	11.89	3.19	1.90	.51

¹ Arbetsslöner m. m. vid pappersmassfabriker tillhörande Pappermassförbundet för år 1915. [No place, no date.] 75 mimeographed leaves.

² Refers to ton of 2,240 pounds wherever used in this article.

COMPARATIVE LABOR COSTS (INCLUDING REPAIRS) PER TON OF PULP, BY GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS, 1911 TO 1915.

Years.	Northern Sweden.		Southern and central Sweden.	
	Crowns.	Dollars.	Crowns.	Dollars.
1911.....	10.87	2.91	13.74	3.68
1912.....	10.68	2.86	13.41	3.59
1913.....	10.51	2.82	13.19	3.53
1914.....	10.69	2.86	13.57	3.64
1915.....	10.68	2.86	13.29	3.56

¹ So reported; differs by 10 ores (3 cents) from total given in the preceding table.

Expressed in hours of labor it requires 18.1 one-man hours to produce a ton of wood pulp in the establishments (18) in northern Sweden, and in those (15) in southern and central Sweden 22.2 hours. These data include repairs but not yard labor nor labor in connection with screenings. The highest time cost per ton in any establishment is 44.4 hours; the lowest is 12.4 hours.

Employment and Wages in the Glass Industry in Japan.¹

THOUGH encouraged by the Government in 1876 by the establishment of a model glass factory, transferred 10 years later to private ownership, the glass industry of Japan was only fairly prosperous until the outbreak of the recent European war, at which time, due to the shutting-off of supplies from France, Belgium, and Germany, the manufacture of glass received such a stimulus that it now bids fair to compete with the industry in other countries. Before 1914 practically all the window glass used in Japan was imported, but this branch of the industry is receiving special attention and in 1918 its product to the value of \$1,756,000 was exported.

The number of employees engaged in glass making, which was 5,724 in 1908 and had increased to only 9,458 by 1914, is reported for the year 1917 as 17,694. Only about 2,000 of these were women, due mainly to the nature of the work and to the fact that skill and experience enter largely into efficient glass blowing. It is of interest to note, however, that while women still constituted in 1914, as in 1908, only about 5.5 per cent of the total number of employees, by 1917 the proportion of women had risen to 11.8 per cent, in conformity with the general trend the industrial world over.

¹ From Commerce Reports, June 21, 1919, Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce, Department of Commerce, Washington.

In competing with other countries Japanese glass manufacturers would seem to have a great advantage in the low wages paid even to well trained labor. The table following is compiled from unofficial sources, official statistics of wages paid to male glass workers not being available:

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF GLASS WORKERS IN JAPAN IN 1917.

Sex and age.	Per cent of total employees.	Average daily wage in 1917.
Males:		
Over 15 years of age.....	73	\$0.38
Under 15 years of age.....	18	.14
Females:		
Over 15 years of age.....	8	.17
Under 15 years of age.....	1	.11

The average wages in the pottery industry, the previous trade of large numbers of glass workers, were 37 cents a day in 1917, as compared with 32 cents in 1914. It is understood that wages for all kinds of labor increased at least 40 per cent in the last year.

MINIMUM WAGE.

Minimum Wage for Women in Mercantile Industry in the District of Columbia.

A RECENT number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (May, 1919, pp. 216-219) contained an account of the formation of a Minimum Wage Board in the District of Columbia, and of its consideration of wages of women in the printing and allied trades, resulting in the establishment of a minimum wage of \$15.50 per week for such women. The board next proceeded to call a conference on wages of women in the mercantile industry. In accordance with the terms of the law creating the board, employers and employees were asked to elect representatives to act on this conference. The employers promptly nominated six representatives, three of whom were selected by the board. For the purpose of securing the active cooperation of the employees four meetings were held at which the purpose of the conference was explained in detail and the women were urged to take a full part in the deliberations and decisions. The employees manifested great interest in the matter and were very willing to do their part. At the final meeting, at which their representatives were to be elected, there was an attendance of at least 700, and the questions and suggestions from the floor showed that the women were keenly alive to the possibilities of the plan. Nominations were numerous, and the six representatives asked for were secured by a process of elimination, 15 being elected at first, and this number being reduced by successive choices. From these six the Minimum Wage Board chose three, and then appointed three members to represent the public. According to the terms of the law, one or more members of the board must sit in each conference, but in this case the whole wage board took part.

At the outset the conference had before it figures prepared by the board, based upon an investigation covering 4,609 women in the mercantile industry, showing that more than one-half (53 per cent) received wages of \$12 or less per week, only 25 per cent receiving \$16 or more. About 7,000 women are employed in this industry in the District.

The conference held 10 meetings before deciding upon its recommendations to the Minimum Wage Board. The first item considered was the cost of room and board in the District. Evidence was presented based on figures collected by the board, on information received from the manager of the Homes Registration Service of the

United States Housing Corporation, and on questionnaires filled out by 782 women employed at \$16 or less a week in department and 5, 10, and 15 cent stores. From these questionnaires it appeared that 345 of the women concerned who were not living at home paid an average of \$7.22 per week for room and board; 341 living at home and paying more than \$5 a week averaged \$6.31; 53 living at home and paying less than \$5 a week averaged \$3.43; while 43 who lived at home made no report. The manager of the Homes Registration Service reported that the average price in Washington for room and board, with two persons in a room, each receiving 15 meals a week, appeared to be about \$35 per month per person, and that there seemed little likelihood that these figures would show any decrease in the near future. The budget presented by the employee members of the conference fixed the cost for room and board at \$8.50, with \$2 a week more allowed for lunches. After much discussion each member was asked to vote for the amount which he thought a fair and reasonable allowance for room and board. Three votes were registered for \$8.50 and three for \$10, the three others ranging from \$9.40 to \$9.52. Finally, \$9.30 was fixed upon as a compromise, every member agreeing to this amount.

Nearly as much discussion took place over the proper allowance for clothing. The budget presented by the employees allowed \$4.65 per week for this item. The employers presented a budget allowing \$3.43 per week; while from the questionnaires already referred to, it appeared that the actual expenditure for clothing of 295 women living away from home was \$4.03 a week. Four estimates of the necessary minimum expenditure for clothing were finally placed before the conference, as follows:

	Per week.
Employers.....	\$3.43
One representative of the public.....	4.00
A second representative of the public.....	4.30
Employees.....	4.65

After careful consideration of actual prices of goods to-day, and of the range and number of articles required, the conference compromised on an allowance of \$4 per week for clothing.

The discussion over the amount to be allowed per week for incidentals was not prolonged. The principle was admitted that a minimum wage ought to include provision for recreation, vacation, self-improvement, and similar purposes, and the amount was fixed at \$3.20 per week.

There was much discussion over the wage which should be fixed for beginners in the work, and over the length of time a beginner should serve before being entitled to the standard minimum wage, but these points were settled by the early part of July.

Recommendations Submitted to Minimum Wage Board.

On July 12th the conference presented to the Minimum Wage Board the following recommendations, signed by every member of the conference, including the members of the Minimum Wage Board:

To the Minimum Wage Board of the District of Columbia:

The conference on the mercantile industry having completed its consideration of and inquiry into the subject submitted to it by the board reports its findings and recommendations as follows:

1. The conference finds that the minimum wage for women workers in the occupation under inquiry should be \$16.50 per week, and that any lesser wage is inadequate to supply the necessary cost of living to women workers in such occupation and to maintain them in health and to protect their morals. The weekly budget upon which this wage is based is: Room and board including lunches \$9.30; clothing, \$4.00; and sundries, including laundry, sickness, dentistry, oculist, amusements, vacation, savings, insurance, church, charity, organizations, self-improvement, carefare, and other incidentals, \$3.20.

2. The conference recommends:

(a) That the wage to be paid to any woman worker who has had seven months' experience in the mercantile industry shall be not less than \$16.50 per week.

(b) That the wage to be paid to learners and apprentices in such occupation shall be not less than \$12.50 per week if such learner or apprentice has had less than three months' experience in such occupation, and not less than \$14.50 per week if such learner or apprentice has had more than three months' experience but less than seven months' experience in such occupation; and that the maximum time that any woman shall be employed at wages less than \$16.50 per week shall be seven months.

Following the procedure established by law, the Minimum Wage Board must hold a public hearing on these recommendations, the date of which must be advertised for 30 days before its holding. After this hearing, if the recommendations are adopted by the board and embodied in an order, two months must elapse before they become effective, so that the new rates can hardly go into effect before the first of next November. Two facts make it seem almost certain that the recommendations will be adopted. They have been publicly indorsed by the secretary of the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association, so that there is little likelihood that serious opposition will develop at the public hearing. And the recommendations have been signed by the three members of the Minimum Wage Board, all of whom attended the conference meetings and took part in the work, so that unless serious opposition develops, bringing to light some entirely new factor in the situation, the board will naturally adopt the recommendations which they have already indorsed.

Two facts stand out prominently in connection with this award. The wage fixed, \$16.50 per week, exclusive of bonuses or commissions, is the highest which has yet been awarded in the United States, the highest minimum which has yet been fixed outside of the District of Columbia being \$13.50 in California for women in stores.

More important than this in its implications for the future is the fact that this award was reached with the active assistance of the workers themselves. One of the chief objections brought against minimum wage boards has been the plea that it was impossible to rouse the workers to take any interest in them. The experience in the District shows the workers ready to cooperate cordially and intelligently in accomplishing the real purpose of minimum wage legislation. They have taken their full part in securing the present award, and the fact that they have done so is the strongest possible testimony to the success of the methods adopted by the Minimum Wage Board of the District.

New Minimum Wage Orders Affecting California Mercantile and Canning Industries.

THE Industrial Welfare Commission of California has fixed a minimum wage of \$13.50 for workers in the mercantile and canning industries of the State, the orders becoming effective on June 22, 1919, in the case of the mercantile industry and on July 12, 1919, in that of the canning industry, and superseding orders previously issued affecting these two industries.¹ These new minimum wage orders (I. W. C. Order No. 5, amended, mercantile industry; and I. W. C. Order No. 3, amended 1919, canning industry) are considered by the commission to be "by far the most scientific that we have yet been able to make." "The mercantile order," continues the commission in a communication to this Bureau, "is the result of one year and six months' experience regulating that industry, and the canning order is the result of practically four years' regulation. We believe that in this canning order we have been able to definitely fix a basis fair to all women workers and one that will provide those who are especially good with excellent incomes during the canning season."

Order Affecting Workers in the Mercantile Industry.

The following is the text of the order affecting workers in the mercantile industry, superseding order No. 5, dated July 6, 1917. The wage scales applicable to minor learners, adult learners 18 years of age and under 20, and adult learners 20 years of age and over, are set forth in subsections (a), (b), and (c) of section 2 of the order. For the sake of brevity the rates given in these subsections are

¹ Rates of wages for workers in the mercantile industry were published in the MONTHLY REVIEW for September, 1917 (pp. 116, 117); and for workers in the canning industry, in the MONTHLY REVIEW for July, 1917 (pp. 57, 58), and the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1918 (pp. 171, 172).

grouped into one table under section 2. With such slight editorial modification, the order is in the same form as issued by the industrial welfare commission.

Experienced Workers.

1. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ or suffer or permit an experienced woman or minor to be employed in the mercantile industry in California at a rate of wages less than \$13.50 per week (\$58.50 per month), except as otherwise provided in section 9 of this order.

Learners.

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

Period.	Rate for workers beginning at age—					
	14, 15, 16, and 17. ¹		18 and 19.		20 years and over.	
	Week.	Month.	Week.	Month.	Week.	Month.
First six months.....	\$8.00	\$34.67	\$9.00	\$39.00	\$10.00	\$43.33
Second six months.....	8.50	36.83	10.00	43.33	11.00	47.67
Third six months.....	9.00	39.00	11.00	47.67	12.00	52.00
Fourth six months.....	10.00	43.33	12.00	52.00		
Fifth six months.....	11.00	47.67				
Sixth six months.....	12.00	52.00				
Thereafter not less than.....	13.50	58.50	13.50	58.50	13.50	58.50
Length of apprenticeship.....	3 years.		2 years.		1½ years.	

¹ When a minor who starts at the age of 17 years attains the age of 18 years, she shall be paid not less than the beginning wage for adult learners.

(d) That all learners shall be registered with the commission. Application for the registration of learners shall be made by the employer not later than two weeks from the date of starting employment. Pending issuance of certificates of registration, the learner shall be paid not less than the minimum rate for the wage group in which she belongs.

(e) The total number of female learners in any establishment shall not exceed 33½ per cent of the total number of females employed, and the total number of male learners shall not exceed 33½ per cent of the total number of males employed. In computing the total number of employees, special and part-time workers shall not be included.

Part-time Workers.

3. (a) All adult part-time workers and experienced minor part-time workers, except waitresses,¹ shall be paid not less than 35 cents per hour.

(b) All inexperienced minor male and female part-time workers, except waitresses,¹ shall be paid not less than 25 cents per hour.

(c) All adult and minor part-time workers shall be registered with the commission. Application for the registration of part-time workers must be made by the employer, and pending the issuance of certificates such workers must be paid in accordance with the rates specified in sections 3 (a) and 3 (b).

(d) The total number of adult and minor female part-time workers in any establishment shall not exceed 5 per cent of the total number of females employed.

¹ Special minimum rates for part-time-work waitresses will be determined when the orders are made in the hotel and restaurant industry.

Special Workers.

4. (a) All adult special workers shall be paid not less than \$2.25 per day.
- (b) All minor experienced special workers shall be paid not less than \$2.25 per day.
- (c) All minor inexperienced special workers shall be paid not less than \$1.50 per day.
5. All women and minors now employed in the mercantile industry must be rated and paid in accordance with their periods of employment, as specified in sections 1 and 2.
6. 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 for the wage group in which the worker belongs.
7. Every person, firm, or corporation employing women or minors in the mercantile industry shall keep 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. Minor employees must be marked "minor" on the pay roll.
8. No person, firm, or corporation shall employ, or suffer, or permit any woman or minor to work in any mercantile establishment more than 8 hours in any one day, or more than 48 hours in any one week, or more than 6 days in any one week.

Infirm Workers.

9. A permit may be issued by the commission to a woman physically disabled by age or otherwise, authorizing the employment of such licensee for a wage less than the legal minimum wage; and the commission shall fix a special minimum wage for such a woman.
10. Every person, firm, or corporation employing women or minors in the mercantile industry shall furnish to the commission, at its request, any and all reports or information which the commission may require to carry out the purposes of the act creating the commission; such reports and information to be verified by the oath of the person, member of the firm, or the president, secretary, or manager of the corporation furnishing the same, if and when so requested by the commission.
- Every person, firm, or corporation shall allow any member of the commission, or any of its duly authorized representatives, free access to the place of business of such person, firm, or corporation for the purpose of making inspection of, or excerpts from, all books, reports, contracts, pay rolls, documents, or papers of such person, firm, or corporation relating to the employment of labor and payment therefor by such person, firm, or corporation, or for the purpose of making any investigation authorized by the act creating the commission.
11. Every person, firm, or corporation employing women or minors in the mercantile industry shall post a copy of this order in a conspicuous place in the general workroom and in the women's dressing rooms.
12. The commission shall exercise exclusive jurisdiction over the questions arising as to the administration and interpretation of this order.

Definitions.

A learner is a woman or minor to whom the industrial welfare commission issues a permit to work for a person, firm, or corporation for less than the legal minimum wage in consideration of such person being provided by his or her employer with reasonable facilities for learning the mercantile industry. Learners' permits will be withheld by the commission where there is evidence of attempted evasion of the law by firms which make a practice of dismissing learners when they reach their promotional periods.

A special worker is one who works less than six days a week.

A part-time worker is one who is employed for less than eight hours in one day.

Students attending accredited vocational, continuation, or cooperative schools may be employed at part-time work on special permits from the commission, and at rates to be determined by the commission.

For the purpose of this act, a minor is defined to be a person of either sex under the age of 18 years.

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

Dated at San Francisco, Calif., this 22d day of April, 1919.

Order No. 5 of the Industrial Welfare Commission, dated July 6, 1917, is hereby rescinded as and of the date when this order becomes effective.

Order Affecting Workers in the Canning Industry.

The following is the text of the order affecting workers in the fruit and vegetable canning industry, which supersedes Order No. 3, dated April 3, 1917.

Day-work Rates.

1. (a) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer, or permit any experienced woman or female minor to be employed on day work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry at a rate of wages less than \$13.50 per week or 28 cents per hour, except as otherwise provided in section 7 of this order.

Women and female minor day workers are deemed experienced when they have been employed in the establishment one week at time rates.

(b) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer, or permit any inexperienced woman to be employed on day work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry at a rate of wages less than 21 cents per hour.

(c) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer, or permit any inexperienced female minor to be employed on day work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry at a rate of wages less than 18 cents per hour.

(d) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any male minor to be employed on day work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry at a rate of wages less than 25 cents per hour.

Preparation of Fruit and Vegetables.

2. (a) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer, or permit any woman or female minor to be employed in the preparation of fruit or vegetables in the canning industry at a rate of wages less than \$13.50 per week, or 28 cents per hour, provided that

(b) Where the employer elects to pay on a piece-rate basis instead of a time basis in the preparation of any product, the piece rates shall be not less than the scale given below; provided further, that if, in individual establishments, these piece rates do not yield to at least 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of the women and female minors employed on each product at least 28 cents per hour, said piece rates must be raised, in such individual establishment, to yield to said 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of the women and female minors so employed on said product an hourly earning of not less than 28 cents.

Asparagus.....	per 100 lbs..	\$0. 22
Cherries.....	do....	. 65
Apricots.....	do....	. 47
Cling peaches.....	do....	. 31
Free peaches.....	do....	. 20
Hand-peeling peaches.....	do....	. 50
Pears.....	do....	. 55
Plums.....	do....	. 16
Muscat grapes (stemming).....	do....	. 65
Tomatoes (finished product).....	12 quarts..	. 04 $\frac{1}{2}$

It is further provided that rates per box shall be fixed on the maximum weight capacity of the box, one box being placed upon another. The rates per box so fixed shall be posted daily on the bulletin board, together with the average weight per box. This bulletin board shall be placed in plain sight of the cutters.

For the preparation of fruit or vegetables, any person, firm or corporation may elect either the time-rate method of payment, as in section 2 (a) of this order, or the piece-rate method, as in section 2 (b). Notices shall be posted in the general workrooms and in the women's dressing rooms, stating which method is in use, and a copy of said notice shall be sent to the industrial welfare commission.

Inexperienced women, inexperienced female minors and infirm workers working upon the preparation of fruit or vegetables on which piece rates are being paid, shall be included in the 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent mentioned above.

Preparation of all Other Products.

3. For the preparation of all products upon which no piece rates have been fixed by the commission, piece rates may be fixed by individual establishments, provided, however, that the piece rates so fixed shall yield to at least 66 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent of the women and minors working on each said product, not less than 28 cents per hour.

Canning and Labeling.

4. For the canning and labeling of all varieties of fruit or vegetables, piece rates may be fixed by individual establishments, provided, however, that all adult women employed at such piece rates shall be guaranteed earnings of not less than 21 cents per hour for the first week's employment, and thereafter not less than 28 cents per hour during regular time.

Hours of Labor.

5. (a) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any minor to work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry more than eight hours in any one day or more than 48 hours in any one week, or more than six days in any one week.

(b) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any adult woman to work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry more than eight hours in any one day or more than 48 hours in any one week or more than six days in any one week except in case of emergency, provided, however, that the provisions of this section shall not apply to those occupations coming under the provisions of the Statutes of California, 1913, Chapter 352, "An act limiting the hours of labor of females," etc.

(c) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any woman or minor to work at labeling in the fruit or vegetable canning industry more than eight hours in any one day or more than 48 hours in any one week or more than six days in any one week.

(d) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any adult woman to work in the fruit or vegetable canning industry, in case of emergency, at a rate of wages less than one and one-quarter times the above scale.

Emergency work shall be all work performed by any woman in excess of eight hours in any one day, or all work performed by any woman in excess of six days in any one week, provided, however, that all work in excess of 12 hours in any 24 hours shall be paid for at not less than double the time or piece rates herein provided.

(e) Every woman and minor employed in the fruit or vegetable canning industry shall be entitled to one day's rest in seven; provided, however, that nothing in this section shall apply to any case of emergency as specified in section 5 (f) of this order.

(f) Sunday shall be considered the day of rest for all women and minors unless a different arrangement is made by the employer for the sole purpose of providing another day of the week as the day of rest. In all such cases a written or printed

notice shall be posted in the workroom designating the day of rest for all women and minors; and provided further that all work performed on the day of rest shall be paid for at the rate of time and one-quarter of the time or piece rates paid for the first eight hours and double said time and one-quarter thereafter.

(g) No person, firm or corporation shall employ, or suffer or permit any woman or minor to be employed before 6 o'clock a. m. or after 10 o'clock p. m.

6. Every person, firm or corporation employing women or minors in the fruit or vegetable canning industry shall keep a record of the names and addresses, the hours worked and the amounts earned by such women and minors. Such records shall be kept in a form and manner approved by the industrial welfare commission. Minor employees must be marked "minor" on the pay roll.

Every person, firm or corporation employing women or minors in the fruit or vegetable canning industry shall furnish to the commission at its request, any and all reports or information which the commission may require to carry out the purposes of the act creating the commission; such reports and information to be verified by the oath of the person, member of the firm, or the president, secretary or manager of the corporation furnishing the same, if and when so requested by the commission. Every person, firm or corporation shall allow any member of the commission, or any of its duly authorized representatives, free access to the place of business of such person, firm or corporation, for the purpose of making inspection of, or excerpts from all books, reports, contracts, pay rolls, documents, or papers of such person, firm or corporation, relating to the employment of labor and payment therefor by such person, firm or corporation; or for the purpose of making any investigation authorized by the act creating the commission.

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

8. Every person, firm or corporation employing women or minors in the fruit or vegetable canning industry shall post a copy of this order in a conspicuous place in the general workroom and one also in the women's dressing room.

9. The commission shall exercise exclusive jurisdiction over all questions arising as to the administration and interpretation of this order.

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

Dated at San Francisco, Calif., this 12th day of May, 1919.

Order No. 3 amended of the Industrial Welfare Commission, dated April 3, 1918, is hereby rescinded as and of the date when this order becomes effective.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

Efforts to Standardize the Working Day for Domestic Service.

By MARY T. WAGGAMAN.

EVER since the signing of the armistice England has been in a turmoil of labor difficulties. Not the least among them is the domestic service question. Both the Ministry of Reconstruction and the Ministry of Labor have been struggling with this problem. The Women's Advisory Committee of the Ministry of Reconstruction was requested to study the subject. Four subcommittees were created and a divided report was made, five memorandums being submitted to explain the dissenting opinions of certain members of one of the subcommittees. Various nonofficial bodies have been evolving methods to meet the situation. Miss Clementina Black, an expert on women in industry, has gone so far as to propose a plan which "will at one sweep remove from each separate dwelling the buying, preparing and clearing up of the day's meals," and which will carry on the household work by means of a "domestic federation."¹ The British crisis, however, in domestic employment has already been touched upon in recent numbers of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.² The situation in this country is probably not comparable in acuteness to that in England, as the exodus of household workers into other activities has not been so extensive here. Again, caste lines in America are not drawn so taut as they are in Great Britain, which may possibly account for the less violent recoil here against domestic service. It is evident, however, that the war has also brought about in the United States significant changes which have radically affected home labor. The servant question, which Mrs. Kathleen Norris, the well-known author, calls "the most exasperating of all domestic problems" and "an absolute menace to family life," is certainly very much to the fore. In the American Journal of Sociology³ more than a score of years ago Jane Addams arraigned domestic service as a "belated industry" and scored its ethics. Dr. I. M. Rubinow has declared that "the backwardness of the home causing an antiquated labor

¹ Clementina Black: *The New Housekeeping*, W. Collins Sons & Co., London, 1918, p. 67.

² "Domestic service and unemployment among English women," MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, April, 1919, pp. 191-195.

³ "Report of women's advisory committee on domestic service, Great Britain," *Idem*, June, 1919, pp. 226-229.

⁴ American Journal of Sociology, March, 1896, p. 536.

contract with an exceptional restriction of the worker's personal liberty makes a social discrimination against this vocation and causes that lack of servants."¹

At present the complaints of servantless housewives are heard on every side. The Woman's Division of the United States Employment Service reports that figures received by that service "on domestic and allied work indicate that the 1920 census will show an accelerated shift in 'females engaged in gainful occupations' over the 27 per cent shift of the 30 years preceding 1910, out of domestic service."²

From the same source we learn that "domestic work is the one industry for either sex in which Employment Service offices have had labor surplus at no time during the past year and a half."

"A tabulation for two typical weeks in recent months shows that excessive demand over supply (of servants) is practically universal and continuous. * * *"² In one week the net excess help wanted was 2,492. In the second week there were 2,941 net excess calls—a labor shortage in this line of 40 per cent.²

The Woman in Industry Service reports that the Housekeepers' Alliance of one of the Southern States has been pleading with industrial employers to discharge Negro girls so that they may again be available as domestic servants.

From the foregoing it would seem safe to assume that the call of the kitchen is falling on unheeding ears—that domestic service is a very unpopular occupation. When opportunities are offered to leave it, it is left. In this connection it is interesting to summarize recent movements which indicate that the servant problem is being analyzed and practical efforts are being put forth to solve it.

New York Committee on Household Assistants.

The organization in January, 1919, in New York City of the committee on household assistants under the auspices of the United States Employment Service was the outcome of the constant shortage of domestic servants, which was found not only in every New York City branch employment office but also in similar branch offices in various parts of the State. This shortage ran from 50 to 66½ per cent.

In the late fall and winter months of 1918 numbers of women had been dismissed from munition factories who had formerly done domestic work, but when such work was offered them again it was rejected. They preferred the factory, with its shorter working day and Sundays off, and an improved social status. If housewives were

¹ "Household service as a labor problem," by I. M. Rubinow in *The Journal of Home Economics*, April 1911, p. 132.

² Typewritten report furnished by Woman's Division of the U. S. Employment Service, June 25, 1919.

to get any help in their homes it was clearly to be seen that they would either have to draw such help from the group available from stores, offices, and factories or from a class of women having their own homes and families who could do part-time work but were not able to meet business and industrial requirements. The United States Employment Service therefore organized the committee on household assistants with the following personnel:

Chairman, Mrs. Percy Jackson, representing the Consumers League, the Women's Municipal League, and the Women's City Club; Miss Emily Gunther, head of the Department of Household and Institutional Administration at Teachers' College; Miss Penrose, of the Household Training Department of the Y. W. C. A.; Miss Louise Odencrantz, assistant to the Federal Director on Women's Work of the United States Employment Service; Mrs. Richard Boardman and Mrs. Elihu Root, representing the employers; Mrs. William Wadhams, representing interest in training; and Mrs. Marie Orenstein and Miss Jeanette Eaton, for publicity service.

It was decided to make placements through the United States Employment Service. A conference of woman examiners was held and a great deal of publicity was given to the plans of the committee, but at first very little was accomplished in the way of placements. The committee concluded therefore to establish training courses in household work in order to create an interest in the plan of the eight-hour day assistant. This conclusion was "based on the belief that graduates of the school would be placed without question and that well-equipped workers would prove the best advertisement of the system." A household occupations course was planned for the Washington Irving High School, and efforts were made to advertise it. However, no one registered. It was concluded that the matter would have to be taken up at the employers' end of the line—a demand for household assistants would have to be created. The establishing of an eight-hour day for domestic workers was a specialized task which could not be carried on in the general employment offices. Moreover, employers would have to be taught how to plan their work and placements would have to be followed up.

In the beginning of March the work of the committee was threatened with complete disintegration because of the cut in the appropriation of the United States Employment Service. However, private financial support was forthcoming to carry through the experiment for two months with a paid executive secretary in one of the United States Employment Service offices. The following outlines the household assistant system:¹

¹ Mimeographed copy of Report of the Publicity Committee of the Committee on Household Assistants (New York City).

Regular eight-hour assistants engaged to be exclusive employees for the housewives (preferably working for no one else at the same time) and engaged to work quite as permanently as ever servants do. They give eight hours a day, six days a week. They eat and sleep at home. They agree to give extra service whenever required, for which they are always to receive extra pay. The wage is determined according to a sliding scale of efficiency and length of time in employment, and does and should compare favorably with that which obtains in factory, shop and office. These assistants are engaged for regular specific duties, just as resident maids are, but—and here is to be found the safety valve never existing in our present order of domestic service—never, under any condition, is specialization permissible. During the eight hours they hold themselves ready to do whatever the circumstances of the particular day require.

The committee spent two weeks in publicity work. In this connection copies of a folder were distributed among hundreds of employers and with the cooperation of the United States Employment Service contact was established with 150 employers. In the interests of one of these employers the following advertisement was inserted in the New York Sunday Times:

A young business woman may secure three months' vacation on coast of Maine if willing to help with the housework, 8 hours a day, 6 days a week, in exchange for room and board, traveling and incidental expenses paid and \$5 a week additional. Apply by letter only.

Eighty-five answers were received.

Other advertisements followed. Both applicants and employers were of a superior type. Applicants for summer jobs included teachers, social workers, business women, statisticians, college girls, buyers, etc., who said they liked housework and wanted "to make good at it." Employers showed enthusiasm and a sense of responsibility toward the system. The employers might be classified as follows:¹

1. The woman from the suburbs who is willing to give up her resident maids and introduce this system as soon as she understands it.
2. The women in New York who have rather large establishments and can not make the adjustment quickly. They * * * have made out schedules covering the particular duties in their homes and have registered for assistants in the fall.
3. The women whose households are without service and who under pressure of necessity rush into headquarters to beg for assistants—this last group were the most numerous.

Applicants fell into the groups indicated below:¹

1. The married, trained, and heretofore, resident domestic who seems to be the best adapted at present for the home assistant, principally because of her long years of training.
2. The high-school graduate interested to take up this profession instead of going into business.
3. The young business woman who really likes housework and finds she can be a part-time home assistant while studying.

¹Mimeographed copy of report of the Publicity Committee of the Committee on Household Assistants (New York City).

4. The married woman who has her own home and understands the problem of household work. One or two of this type have even had their own maids. One or two have grown children and wish to become wage earners.

5. The business women and school teachers who can get the benefit of a change of occupation by becoming home assistants during the summer months at the seashore and in the mountains.

Employers were invited to come to headquarters to thrash out difficulties. A schedule was drafted or possibly the supervisor would visit the prospective employer's residence before arrangements were finally made and the contract signed. Both employer and home assistant were urged to consult with headquarters in the adjustment of any difficulties that arose. Two points of the problem stood out prominently: The arrangement for Sunday shift, and the "resisting of the pressure to employ home assistants where resident maids are still used." The committee, however, concludes that—¹

The five weeks' effort has proved beyond the shadow of a doubt the reliability and responsibility of the home assistant. The task which lies before us is that of training her and making her efficient. The experiment has accomplished its fourfold purpose. An enormous demand on the part of employers has been established; a new source of applicants has been tapped; public interest has been demonstrated, and most important of all it has been clearly proved that the eight-hour day home assistant is a solution of the domestic problem and capable of adjustment to many different homes, while a definite method of establishing this system has now been satisfactorily worked out.

The experiment has had to be discontinued because further funds are not available.

Home Assistant Plan in Other Cities.

The household assistant system has also been inaugurated in Philadelphia, Pa., Hartford, Conn., and Providence, R. I. In Philadelphia the Young Women's Christian Association has been active in the movement. In Hartford the plan has been established in cooperation with the Housewives' League, the City Civic Federation, and the United States Employment Service. In that city the workers have committees for training, recreation, and community part-time service, community laundry, etc., while the employers have similar committees.

In November, 1918, a bureau of household occupations was set up by the Housewives' League of Providence. The workers are furnished neither meals nor lodgings. As in the case of the New York system, the employees are called household assistants. They have standardized pay and hours and are addressed as Mrs. or Miss. If the bureau's rules are not kept by the parties to the domestic bargain, the names of such parties are dropped from the bureau's register.

¹ Mimeographed copy of Report of the Publicity Committee of the Committee on Household Assistants (New York City).

Training classes have been started which offer opportunity for women to perfect themselves in certain lines and also for the purpose of inducing women who have been in the factories to learn how to do housework. The president of the Housewives' League of Providence describes the success the bureau has had and states that the bureau has been particularly appreciated by women who are able to give only a part of each day or some days a week to home-assistant work.

Despite its enormous Negro population, Washington, D. C., has also experienced a severe servant shortage. The United States Employment Service reports that in the spring of 1919 in the District of Columbia the calls for household, hotel, and restaurant help in two typical weeks were in excess of registration by 32 and 64 per cent.¹ A plan has been under discussion in that city for groups of housekeepers living in the same neighborhood to cooperate in the employment of domestic workers so that jobs in different dwellings or apartments can be dovetailed, with a minimum loss of time to employees in going from place to place.

Cooked Food Agencies.

A survey of the agencies for the sale of cooked foods without profit² was made by the Woman's Committee of the Council of National Defense in the spring of 1918. While primarily undertaken as a matter of national preparedness for war developments in the food situation, the investigation obviously has a direct bearing upon the servant question. The report on such agencies was restricted to "noncommercial agencies which strive to remove or lessen the entire preparation of three meals a day in the individual home without weakening the privacy of the family." In the section of the report dealing with the American agencies a brief account is given of past efforts in the matter of providing cooked food. Among the experiments described is that of a communal kitchen in New York which started in 1918 and came to an untimely termination. Some of the reasons given for the failure were religious prejudice against what was thought to be a "communistic venture," the use of volunteer helpers (the advice of the British Ministry of Food was never to use the volunteer worker except possibly in small communities), the fluctuation of market prices, and the difficulty of getting necessary supplies.

Further space in the report is given to the American Cooked Food Service, the first station of which was started in New York, February 1, 1918. Such service was planned to "meet the needs of the great mass of independent homes, * * * and to save the con-

¹ From typewritten report from Woman's Division of U. S. Employment Service.

² "Agencies for the sale of cooked foods without profit," report prepared by Iva Lowther Peters, Ph. D., under the direction of the food production and home economics department of the Woman's Committee, Council of National Defense, Washington, 1919.

sumer from commercial exploitation"—to benefit the young family living on low salary without a maid, and the large family where the mother is on the brink of nervous prostration for lack of sufficient domestic help, and others, from the lonely lodger in a hall bedroom to families having private residences or luxurious apartments.

The report states that probably "for the majority of patrons the cooked meals are delivered at the home for the same price that the retail buyer would pay for the raw foodstuffs * * *." Economies are also effected through reduced maid service, and elimination of food waste and the upkeep of individual kitchens.

Progressive Household Club of Los Angeles.

A unique association of workers is the Progressive Household Club of Los Angeles, organized to provide "a cheerful and welcome home for the domestic" out of service or taking a rest. The club is a recreational center with educational features, lectures being frequently given to the members. Prior to the war, classes in English for foreign girls were held twice a week, but these classes were abolished as immigrant pupils were no longer forthcoming. The members of the club are reported to be of a high-grade type and expect first-class wages. The employment office of the association procures jobs free to its membership.

The finances of the club are too restricted to carry out schemes calling for a large outlay of money. However, the domestic while out of a job or on a vacation can have, for a small expenditure, a room and the use of the kitchen and laundry. Members and their friends can always avail themselves of the parlors, where there are numbers of books and magazines.

This club indorsed the California bill providing for a 10-hour day for domestic workers. The Assembly bill (A. B. 25) was defeated. Its companion (S. B. 88) passed both houses but received a pocket veto.

Domestic Workers' Union.

From Toronto, Canada, comes word of the organization of a Domestic Workers' Alliance which is affiliated with the Bartenders and Hotel Waitresses, etc., under the American Federation of Labor. The charter of this new union has been obtained and it is reported that it already has a membership of over 200.

Attitude of the National Women's Trade-Union League of America.

The following resolution, adopted at the seventh biennial meeting of the National Women's Trade-Union League of America, which met in Philadelphia the first week in June, 1919, graphically indicates the viewpoint of this organization on the question of domestic service:

Whereas, standardization of working conditions is imperative in all trades and occupations, of whatever nature, and

Whereas, there are two and a half million domestic workers in the country, and

Whereas, the conditions of domestic service are notoriously without standard, and
Whereas, this lack of standardization works harm not only to the domestic workers but also to those employers that are fair-minded and would concur in standards if there were any, and to the community; and

Whereas, organization of the workers is the only effective means of securing standards and maintaining them; therefore be it

Resolved, That the National Women's Trade-Union League do all in its power to promote the organization of domestic workers throughout the country, and

That this convention go on record as favoring exactly the same standards of hours, wages, and working conditions for domestic workers as for workers in any other occupation.

The Outlook.

The above-mentioned attempts toward solving the difficulties that now beset the doing of the necessary and important work of the home seem to tend to the establishment of a new domestic day—a new era in domestic management—and to the overthrow of many outworn and now unworkable domestic conventions. Coincident with the wage earners' clamor for participation in the management of industry comes the demand for the democratization of the kitchen and the abolishing of the more or less feudal relations of domestic service.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE.

Metal Mine Accidents in the United States During 1917.

A RECENT publication of the Bureau of Mines¹ contains data concerning accidents in metal mines in the United States during the calendar year 1917. The number of operators making returns for the year 1917 was 4,637, about 600 less than in the previous year. The number of days worked during 1917 was only 110,000 less than in 1916. In 1917 the total number of employees reported was 200,579, as compared with 204,685 in 1916. The decrease of 2 per cent was chiefly in the gold and silver group (8,200); the iron mines showed an increase of about 4,000; and the copper mines, lead and zinc mines (Mississippi Valley), and the nonmetal mines employed practically the same number as in 1916. The labor shortage seemed largely due to increased turnover and to shifting of labor from one occupation to another.

The statistics show that the normal fatality rate did not increase and, in spite of war conditions and labor shortage, there was a decrease in the number of nonfatal injuries. In the fire in the North Butte mine, Butte, Mont., on June 8, 1917, 161 men were killed. If this number is deducted from the total number of fatalities for 1917 (852), the normal rate is shown to be 3.60 per 1,000 300-day workers instead of 4.44, or 0.02 less than in 1916. This is the lowest rate for the period during which the Bureau of Mines has collected statistics on the subject, beginning in 1911, when the rate was 4.45 per 1,000 300-day workers.

The report states that the number of nonfatal injuries was 46,286, as compared with 48,237 in 1916, making a nonfatal accident rate of 240.87 per 1,000 300-day workers, as compared with 250.64 per 1,000 in 1916 and 248.56 in 1915. The general tendency of the nonfatal injury rates from 1911 to 1916 was to increase. This is said to have been due chiefly to the fact that the enactment of compensation laws and the establishment of better inspection service caused the companies to keep more complete records. An examination of the most systematic and complete records kept by large companies leads

¹ Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. Metal-mine accidents in the United States during the calendar year 1917. Washington. 80 pp. Technical paper No. 224.

to the belief "that the foregoing nonfatal injury rates at metal mines are lower than those that actually exist."

As the size of the mines was not considered in the compilation of the tables from the reports received from operators, the figures cover reports from prospectors, development companies, and producing mines. As far as can be ascertained, all of the large companies made out detailed reports, so that, measured on the basis of production, the statistics are regarded as representative of the industry.

The tables represent the five divisions of the mining industry, as follows: Copper mines, 649 operators; gold, silver, and miscellaneous metal mines, 3,166 operators; iron mines, 205 operators; lead and zinc mines (Mississippi Valley), 369 operators; and nonmetallic mineral mines (not including coal mines), 248 operators.

It is explained that as many of the States now have compensation laws the bureau's classification of serious and slight injuries is on a 14-day basis in order to conform to the classification used by the States. This classification of injuries is as follows:

FATAL, SERIOUS, AND SLIGHT INJURIES IN METAL MINES IN THE UNITED STATES,
1916 AND 1917.

Injury.	1916	1917
Fatal.....	697	852
Serious (time lost more than 14 days):		
Permanent disability—		
Total.....	44	39
Partial.....	633	665
Others.....	10,099	10,220
Slight (time lost, 1 to 14 days, inclusive).....	37,401	35,351
Total.....	48,237	46,286

Permanent total disability includes the loss of both legs or arms, one leg and one arm, total loss of eyesight, paralysis, or other condition permanently incapacitating the workman from engaging in a gainful occupation. Permanent partial disability means the loss of one foot, leg, hand, eye, one or more fingers, one or more toes, any dislocation where ligaments are severed, or any other injury known in surgery to be permanent partial disability.

The table following shows the number of employees, the number of fatalities and injuries, and the fatal and nonfatal accident rates, by kind of mines, during 1916 and 1917.

NUMBER EMPLOYED, NUMBER KILLED AND INJURED, AND FATAL AND NONFATAL ACCIDENT RATES IN MINES DURING THE YEARS ENDING DEC. 31, 1916 AND 1917.

Kind of mine.	Active operators.	Number of men employed.	Average days worked.	Number killed.	Number injured (time lost more than 1 day).	Number of 300-day workers.	Killed per 1,000 300-day workers.	Injured per 1,000 300-day workers.
1916.								
Copper.....	604	61,228	309	230	20,168	63,107	3.64	319.58
Gold, silver, and miscellaneous metal	3,921	60,107	268	217	10,234	53,639	4.05	190.79
Iron.....	199	53,488	278	169	11,904	49,504	3.41	240.17
Lead and zinc (Mississippi Valley)...	285	20,615	264	57	4,773	18,142	3.14	263.09
Nonmetallic mineral.....	249	9,247	260	24	1,158	8,003	3.00	114.70
Total.....	5,258	204,685	282	697	48,237	192,455	3.62	250.64
1917.								
Copper.....	649	61,275	312	374	19,935	63,619	5.88	313.35
Gold, silver, and miscellaneous metal	3,166	51,892	281	196	8,385	48,606	4.03	172.51
Iron.....	205	57,230	283	191	12,278	53,960	3.54	227.54
Lead and zinc (Mississippi Valley)...	369	20,269	246	68	4,544	16,644	4.09	272.99
Nonmetallic mineral.....	248	9,913	280	23	1,144	9,256	2.48	123.58
Total.....	4,637	200,579	287	852	46,286	192,085	4.44	240.97

¹ Includes 161 fatalities due to the North Butte mine fire, Butte, Mont.

As shown by the preceding table, the average number of days worked in 1917 was 287; in 1916 it was 282. In the various States the number varied from 181 in Ohio to 338 in California. As a mine can be operated only about 300 days in a year, unless work continues on Sundays and holidays, the comparison of the number of fatalities and injuries per 1,000 workers in the various kinds of mines is made on a 300-day basis, to insure uniformity.

The causes of accidents are shown in considerable detail, and should serve as a guide to the safety engineer in determining where effort for accident reduction could be made to the best advantage.

Comparative data for accidents at metal mines, coal mines, and quarries are shown.

Meeting of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons at Atlantic City, June 8, 1919.

THE great advance that has been made in industrial medicine and surgery in recent years; the increasing recognition of the importance of physical examinations of employees; the need for real statistics based on physical examinations in order to facilitate definite conclusions regarding industrial conditions; and uniformity in workmen's compensation legislation, including the appointment of a medical adviser to every compensation commission, were some of the more important and significant questions considered at the fourth annual convention of the American Association of Industrial Physicians and Surgeons, held at Atlantic City on June 8,

1919. This association was organized in 1916, by Col. Harry E. Mock, of the Surgeon General's Office, who became its first secretary and who at the recent convention was reelected president of the organization.

The secretary reported a membership of 600, approximately 27 per cent of the estimated number of industrial physicians and surgeons in the United States. A committee, with Dr. Otto F. Geier, of Cincinnati, Ohio, as chairman, was appointed to outline courses of study in industrial medicine to be introduced in the medical colleges. A legislative committee was also appointed with Dr. J. W. Schereschewsky, of the United States Public Health Service, as chairman.

The president of the association, in his annual address, noted some new developments in industrial medicine and surgery, dwelling particularly upon the great advancement that has been made since the organization of the association in 1916, and calling attention to the opportunity offered to industrial physicians to prevent industrial losses by the rehabilitation of injured workmen. The possibility of reclaiming men for industry was demonstrated, he pointed out, by the reclaiming of defectives for military service during the war. The interest manifested by medical schools in industrial medicine is shown by the fact that eight such schools have introduced some branch of industrial medicine into their courses.

Dr. Royal Meeker, Commissioner of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, was present and took occasion to refer to the very great need for reliable statistics based on physical examinations of workers in order better to determine the real industrial conditions. Dr. Meeker declared that a medical adviser should be attached to every industrial commission, since lawyers are manifestly incompetent to pass upon medical questions.

An interesting feature of the convention was the discussion of hernia, a condition which has presented very difficult problems to employers, industrial physicians, and compensation boards. A resolution was offered asking industrial boards, in passing on cases of hernia, to treat the injury as a disease rather than as an accident if the hernia is of long standing. The resolution, however, was not adopted.

At the afternoon session a paper was read by Capt. E. A. Oliver, formerly physician at the Sears-Roebuck Co. of Chicago, on "Syphilis, an inestimable factor in industrial inefficiency," in which it was shown that this disease greatly reduces efficiency and that its presence serves to prolong the period of disability resulting from disease or accident. Emphasis was laid by a number of speakers upon the importance of physical examinations of workers, in order that they

might be placed in work for which they are suited. C. B. Selby, of Toledo, Ohio, and B. J. Curry, of the American Thread Co., Holyoke, Mass., brought out this point.

Col. A. J. Lanza, of the United States Public Health Service and the Working Conditions Service of the Department of Labor, told of the work that has been done by the Division of Industrial Hygiene and Medicine of the latter Service, addressing himself to the subject "National program for industrial hygiene and medicine."

"Strains of back an accident or disease" was the subject of a paper read by Lt. Col. R. B. Osgood, United States Army. Dr. William D. Blair, of Pittsburgh, spoke on "Conservation of the vision of industrial workers," calling attention to the fact that most cases of blindness could be prevented by proper protective measures, such as the use of goggles, etc.; and Col. James Boardley, jr., of Baltimore, spoke on the importance of proper lighting conditions in factories.

Resolutions presented to the convention on the subject of compensation laws, health insurance, industrial clinics, artificial respiration, and hernia were, with the exception of that on hernia, referred to the board of directors with power to act. As already noted, the hernia resolution was tabled.

Medical and Surgical Service for Employees in Industrial Establishments.¹

DURING the first six months of 1918 a study was made by the United States Public Health Service of the provisions for the medical and surgical care of employees in 170 industrial establishments in the Eastern and Middle Western States. One hundred and fifty-five of these establishments were found to be on a comparable basis and are used in the report in the analysis of equipment, conditions, and services rendered.

The relation of medical service to industry, from the employer's viewpoint in its effects upon time lost, labor turnover, workmen's compensation, etc., and from the employee's standpoint in the improvement in health and earning power and in general working conditions, is discussed. In this connection it is considered important that the plant physicians should cooperate with the safety men in the removal of insanitary and unhealthful conditions. However, of the 118 establishments employing whole or part-time physicians but 17 were found in which the physicians make regular inspections. Ten others inspect at irregular intervals or upon request, while 28 meet with safety committees. The opportunities for constructive work

¹ Studies of the Medical and Surgical Care of Industrial Workers, by C. D. Selby, consulting hygienist, United States Public Health Service. Public Health Bulletin No. 99, Washington, 1919. 115 pp.

on the part of the physicians are believed by the author to be very great, although the point is made that the training of physicians is such that it is more common to find those who are trained in details than those who have administrative ability. To a man of the latter type there is opportunity to expand his service from the mere dressing of injuries to assistance in accident prevention through careful analysis of and recording of accidents; placing employees with regard to their physical limitations; supervision of the health of those engaged in dangerous processes; observation of the capacities and limitations of operatives; determination from physical examinations of the adaptation of employees to their work; physical reexaminations of sufficient frequency to enable the physician at all times to be familiar with the conditions of health of the employees; protection from communicable diseases through compulsory reporting of sick employees; general medical and surgical treatment and special treatment such as dental prophylaxis; supervision of the sanitation of lunch rooms and advice as to the preparation of nourishing and well-balanced menus; securing needed rest or sanitarium treatment for employees; education through talks, lectures, bulletins, etc., of means of prevention of sickness; and finally, through sympathetic consultation and assistance in adjusting social and financial difficulties. Cases are noted where doctors have expanded their activities to include employment departments and service or welfare departments.

Of the 155 establishments reported upon, 137 maintained dispensaries; 68 had whole-time, 50 part-time, and 20 consulting physicians; while in 37 cases physicians were on call. Whole-time medical service is found to be practicable for small establishments and entirely desirable for large ones; and greater demand is found for trained female nurses than for any other class of attendants, 81 establishments reporting such assistants. Thirteen establishments employed dentists.

An attempt was made to find out the pay the doctors received for their services, and while this information was difficult to secure there were enough reports to justify these conclusions: "(a) That the remuneration of industrial physicians is very evidently a matter of individual bargaining; (b) that physicians who render service only on request are better paid proportionately than part-time doctors; (c) and that part-time doctors are better paid in proportion to the time they give than whole-time doctors."

Descriptions are given of the rooms of medical departments, with suggestions as to location, equipment, and size; and considerable space is devoted to examples of record and report cards.

In view of the special needs brought to light in the course of the investigation the recommendations following are made.

1. That standards be formulated and promulgated relative to—
 - (a) Vocational requirements.
 - (b) Physical examination of workers.
 - (c) Vocational placement of workers.
 - (d) Working conditions.
 - (e) Maintenance of health among workers.
 - (f) Medical and surgical practices in industry.
 - (g) Systems for recording and reporting morbidity statistics among workers, conditions of sanitation in plants and volume and variety of work of industrial medical departments.
2. That medical colleges be induced to provide courses of instruction in industrial sanitation and medicine, and that affiliations be arranged between the colleges and well-organized industrial medical departments for post-graduate training in actual practice.
3. That a comprehensive educational campaign be organized for the continuous instruction of (a) the general medical profession, (b) industrial physicians, (c) employers, and (d) industrial workers, in order that the benefits of industrial hygiene and medicine may be more generally recognized and made more available.
4. That provisions be made whereby industrial managements may be more readily able to procure industrially trained physicians, sanitarians, and nurses for service in their medical departments.

Fatal Industrial Accidents in Canada During 1918.

A RECENT report of the Canadian Department of Labor¹ shows that a total of 1,222 fatal industrial accidents occurred in 1918, as compared with 1,195 during 1917 and 950 during 1916. Of the 1,222 fatalities, 263 deaths, or 21.5 per cent, occurred in mining, smelting, and quarrying operations; 255, or 20.9 per cent, in the steam railway service; 155, or 12.7 per cent, in lumbering operations; and 122, or 10 per cent, in the metals, machinery, and conveyances group. It is stated that these percentages vary but little from those recorded for the same groups in 1917, the figures for 1918 in mining being slightly higher and for steam railway service slightly lower than in the previous year.

In the steam railway service 153 fatal accidents were caused through the victims being run over by, or caught between, cars. Of the 104 fatalities caused by explosions in mines, smelters, and quarries, 88 were due to the disaster at the Stellerton coal mines.

¹ The Labour Gazette, Ottawa, May, 1919, pp. 639, 640.

The fatalities in the various industrial groups are shown in the following table:

FATAL INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS IN CANADA IN 1918.

Industry or occupation.	Num-ber.	Per cent.
Agriculture.....	36	2.9
Fishing and hunting.....	5	.4
Lumbering.....	155	12.7
Mines, smelters, and quarries.....	263	21.5
Railway, canal, and harbor construction.....	7	.6
Building and construction.....	76	6.2
Metals, machinery, and conveyances.....	122	10.0
Woodworking trades.....	5	.4
Pulp and paper mills.....	25	2.0
Clothing.....	2	.2
Textile.....	4	.3
Food, tobacco, and liquor.....	41	3.4
Chemicals and explosives.....	52	4.3
Leather.....	3	.2
Steam railway service.....	255	20.9
Electric railway service.....	8	.6
Miscellaneous transport.....	39	3.2
Navigation.....	7	.6
Public utilities.....	29	2.4
Municipal employment.....	13	1.1
Miscellaneous.....	75	6.1
Total.....	1,222	100.0

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

Reports of Workmen's Compensation Boards in Canada.

Alberta.

THE Workmen's Compensation Board of Alberta has issued a report covering the first five months' operations of the new provincial law.¹

The law creating the board was enacted last year, superseding a somewhat limited act of 1908, and took effect as to schedule 1 (mines, coke ovens, and briquetting plants) on August 1, 1918. It became operative as to other industries on January 1 of the current year, so that the report is limited to proceedings affecting schedule 1.

The act provides strictly for a state insurance system, the board being charged with full powers in the administration of the fund as well as of the law in all its aspects. The report shows 264 employers under the act, with 10,259 employees, and a pay roll of \$5,540,512. A preliminary assessment of 3 per cent was made on July 17, 1918, using as a basis the average monthly pay roll for the 12 months ending May 31, 1918. Subsequent assessments were made every 2 months at the rate of 3 per cent on the average monthly pay rolls. The assessments amounted to \$96,323, of which \$94,638 was collected. Coal mines constitute practically the entire coverage of schedule 1, the assessments from the other industries included amounting to but \$576.

During the 5 months of initial operation, 943 accidents were reported, of which 5 were fatal and 7 caused permanent partial disability; no claim was made in 281 cases, and in 284 others no compensation was found to be payable. A loan of \$5,000, made by the Government to assist in creating a fund, was repaid with interest, and compensation amounting to \$13,442, medical aid to \$270, and administrative expenses and equipment to \$10,379 were paid. Reserves for existing liabilities are estimated at \$15,920, leaving \$54,985 to the credit of the various groups in schedule 1.

¹ First annual report of the Workmen's Compensation Board of the Province of Alberta, 1918. Edmonton, 1919. 19 pp.

Manitoba.

THIS report covers the first full year's operations of the Manitoba compensation act of 1916,¹ the first report covering but 10 months' operations, up to December 31, 1917. The law is administered by a commissioner and two directors, their expenses being provided for by a levy of 7.5 per cent of the premiums paid by employers to insurance companies, and an equivalent contribution from self-insurers, the total amounting in 1917 to \$33,702. This statutory amount was found to be in excess of the actual administrative expenses by a margin of 0.6 per cent. In 1918, however, the expenses exceeded the income by \$4,830. It is stated that this deficit will be more than covered by contributions to be made by the Canadian Northern Railway and allied companies, which had refused to pay the prescribed amounts, but which, at the time of the report, had practically completed arrangements to comply with the act.

While the law provides for no insurance fund as usually understood, it does require insurance in an approved company or acceptable proof of financial ability to act as self-insurers. In addition to this, insurance companies and self-insurers must contribute to an accident fund to be available for immediate payments to injured workers, and must also make deposits or give bonds to secure future payments in cases of permanent disability or death. The accident fund reports compensation payments amounting to \$116,247 during 1918, and a balance at the end of the year amounting to \$70,793.

Of the 1,756 compensable accidents reported during 1918, 42 were fatal, 2 caused permanent total disability, 69 permanent partial disability, and 1,643 temporary disability. Payments on account of these accidents are not reported.

In 1917 there were 1,323 compensable accidents reported, of which 28 were fatal, 1 caused permanent total disability, 65 permanent partial disability, and 1,229 temporary disability. The amount of compensation on account of these injuries, including estimates in a few cases not finally dealt with, was \$88,280; besides this, \$23,002 was paid out in medical benefits.

The board suggests amendments, one to meet the situation developed by a decision of the courts that procedure before the board should be in the same form as court procedure, which the board regards as too formal and calculated to defeat the purposes of the act; and one to enable the board to require establishments in which more than a certain number of men are employed to procure a first-aid kit and employ a competent person to render first aid in case of injury. The board is also endeavoring to interest employers in the subject of the reemployment of injured men, but with only indifferent success thus far.

¹ Report for 1918 of the Workmen's Compensation Board, Manitoba. Winnipeg, 1919. 13 pp.

SOCIAL INSURANCE.

Report of Connecticut Social Insurance Commission.

THE Commission of Public Welfare of Connecticut, appointed in 1917 under legislative authority, has made its report.¹ Of the dozen or so general social subjects which the creating act specifically authorized the commission to study, only five were investigated: Health insurance, hours of labor and minimum wage, old-age pensions, mother's pensions, and occupational disease.

The report contains a résumé of arguments for and against health insurance; general data on the extent of sickness and disability, including an analysis of Connecticut health statistics by Dr. F. L. Hoffman; several drafts of standard health insurance bills, including a draft of a proposed law presented by the opponents of health insurance; and a draft of the minimum wage law recommended by the commission.

Health Insurance.

The commission reports that health insurance has aroused but little interest in the State. The Connecticut Federation of Labor went on record in 1918 as favoring health insurance, old-age pensions, and a minimum wage, but the commission was "unable to determine whether or not this somewhat vague expression of favor implies a support of the compulsory principle in connection with health insurance or whether or not the minimum wage is favored for all industrial workers or only for women and children." All of the employers of labor who appeared before the commission were unanimous in the opinion that it would be unwise for the legislature at this time to consider legislation relating to compulsory health insurance, old-age pensions, or the minimum wage.

Representatives of the medical profession in the State strongly deprecated any action on health insurance at the present time, declaring that it was a matter to which a great deal more thought and study should be given, and that those of their number who were best informed were either in the military service or so much absorbed in additional duties incident to the war that they could not give us the benefit of their knowledge.

A questionnaire was sent out by the commission to the physicians not absent from the State, to which only about 30 per cent responded. To the last interrogatory in

¹ Report of the Commission on Public Welfare of Connecticut. Hartford, 1919, 136 pp.

the questionnaire, "What suggestions have you to make as to how the problem of adequate medical service can best be handled to serve the interest of the State, the physicians, and the sick of limited means," nearly half of those who did respond either had no suggestion to offer, or expressed the opinion that things were all right as they were. The replies of not a few indicated that they did not look beyond their own immediate practice; a small number favored a better medical organization and suggested an extension of hospital service. Not more than a dozen took sides for or against compulsory health insurance. * * *

Until recently the opponents of compulsory health insurance have used the arguments already indicated, but without anything concrete in the way of a counter proposition to meet the claim that something must be done for the improvement of living conditions of industrial workers and the prevention of communicable diseases. It now appears that some of these opponents have prepared a measure for legislative consideration which in their opinion will do all that the State may properly do in connection with health and sanitation and without the necessity of establishing as an adjunct any form of compulsory insurance.

This new measure offers a very elaborate plan for the organization and administration of a department of health, with the establishment of divisions of administration and finance, sanitary engineering, laboratories and research, statistics, communicable diseases, publicity and education, child hygiene, public health nursing, tuberculosis, and hospitals. It may be urged that such a plan might be less socialistic than the measures proposed for compulsory health insurance, which include many of the alleviatory features included in this latest scheme, but it certainly is not less paternalistic. It may also be that the operation of such a plan would prove less expensive to the State than a compulsory health insurance law; but, in our opinion, either would prove more of a burden than the State of Connecticut would care to assume at this time.

The commission admitted that some of the arguments in favor of a compulsory measure appeal strongly to humane sentiment and are convincing to the extent that more should be done by the State to improve living conditions and prevent disease, but it is not convinced that any of the measures thus far presented should be enacted in Connecticut. After a careful study of the evidence the commission feels that—

Our State should not be the first in the United States to experiment with a plan or system which has not operated effectively and satisfactorily in other countries and which must of necessity involve the expenditure of a large amount of money—too large a burden to be imposed at the present time. It may well be that this State should now improve and extend the code under which the department of public health and safety operates, so that health and sanitation may be more efficiently safeguarded. So may the compensation law be amended to cover occupational disease and thus aid in reducing the loss resulting from sickness. These changes can be made in harmony with our principles of government, and the correctional and curative features of the social insurance scheme may be incorporated in our laws without placing the State in any way in the field of social insurance. It may also be that some plan can be devised by which the insurance features of the social insurance scheme, which after all are only palliative, may be economically administered under rigid State supervision and control. In our opinion this time has not arrived, and, for the reasons hereinbefore given, the General Assembly may with entire propriety postpone further legislative consideration of this phase of social insurance until the changes in out national, State, and personal relations resulting from the war have been fully readjusted.

Hours of Labor and Minimum Wage.

No testimony was presented to the commission which, in their opinion, justified a recommendation for any change in the present statutes concerning the employment of women and minors, hours of labor, or legal day's work. With regard to a minimum wage the commission believed that the general assembly might properly follow the example of other States by establishing a minimum wage or living wage for women and minors. It was recommended that such a law should be limited in its operation to women and minors, but should exclude those engaged in domestic service. Nor should the minimum wage in an occupation necessarily operate throughout the whole State when differences in cost of living warrant restriction to certain areas.

Old-Age Pensions.

The subject of old-age pensions, whether considered from the standpoint of an insurance under which the individual shall be required to insure and bear a part of the cost, or the out and out pension where the Government bears the entire cost, was found, by reason of the actuarial and financial problems involved, exceedingly difficult and complex.

Among the objections to the free or noncontributory system the commission enumerated the following: It is the foe of individual thrift and enterprise; it has practically the effect of deferred pay; the cost increases very rapidly; obtaining something for nothing, or seeming to do so, has always proved demoralizing.

Against the contributory system, which obtains a more general approval, it is urged that those whose need is the greatest are the least likely to apply for the protection and bear a share of the cost.

We may criticise the ineffectiveness and the cost of existing forms of voluntary insurance against the disabilities of age, just as we may realize that a considerable burden is imposed on the State for the maintenance of those who, for one cause or another, are unable either to work or to find work and so become wholly dependent on the State or on private charity. Notwithstanding this, it is doubtful if the situation in Connecticut, with regard to the extent of the disabilities or the necessities of those who become so disabled, is so acute as to call for the initial experiment in this respect to be made by the general assembly.

Mothers' Pensions.

In view of the fact that mothers' pension laws have been enacted in 36 States, the commission recommended that Connecticut might well follow their example and either make provision directly for allowances of this kind at the cost of the State, or confer upon the towns the necessary power and authority to make such allowances in lieu of the relief which may be furnished under the general statutes.

Occupational Disease.

The commission believed that any disease arising out of and in the course of employment should be included within the provisions of the compensation law. It was recommended that the—

British method of incorporating a limited schedule with authority to extend such schedule from time to time should not be followed, but an amendment should be so phrased that it will not be necessary to include an elaborate schedule of diseases to be extended from time to time by further legislation or by the finding or order of some official. Such a change would naturally be brought about by a definition of "personal injury," which will include a disease contracted during employment and arising out of and in the course of such employment. Under such an amendment the compensation commissioners will have to determine the fact just as the fact is determined as to traumatic injuries accidentally sustained arising out of and in the course of employment. The data reported to the commissioner of the bureau of labor statistics [State bureau] * * * indicate that in the great majority of cases it will be no more difficult to establish the right to benefits under the act in cases of occupational disease than in cases of traumatic personal injury.

An amendment to the compensation law embodying the above provision was enacted by the State legislature in 1919.¹

Ministry of Health Act of Great Britain.

THE recent approval of the Ministry of Health Act by the King brings into effect an act that establishes a new office under the British Government, the incumbent being entitled "Minister of Health." Dr. Christopher Addison, who has been active in promoting the movement for such a law, has been appointed as the first minister, and by an order in council the act came into operation on July 1 of the current year.

In its original effect the act takes over for the new ministry the powers and duties of the Local Government Board and of the insurance commissioners of England and Wales. It also transfers to the ministry all the powers of the Board of Education with respect to attending to the health of expectant and nursing mothers and of children who have not reached the age of five years and are not in attendance in schools recognized by the board of education; also the subject of midwives under acts of 1902 and 1918, and powers exercised by the Secretary of State with regard to infant life protection under Part I of the Children Act, 1908. Further transfers are authorized of the powers of the board of education with respect to the medical inspection and treatment of children and young persons, powers of the Minister of Pensions with regard to the health of disabled officers and men after they have left the

¹ See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for July, 1919, p. 186.

service, powers of the Secretary of State with regard to persons insane or mentally deficient, and other powers that seem to relate to the health of the people, either directly or indirectly.

It will be noted that this last group of powers is merely authorized and not accomplished, while in the first group the transfer is actually made. In order to limit the functions of the Ministry of Health strictly to the duties properly incumbent upon it, any powers and duties transferred under this blanket provision which are not strictly in line with the purposes of the ministry may be taken away from it and placed elsewhere. The effect of the order is to clarify the whole situation with regard to provisions for health for women, children both in and out of school, pensioners from the Army and Navy, and persons mentally deficient. Thus far the act is only a consolidation of existing powers. An added feature is the authority given the King by an order in council to establish "consultative councils" whose duty shall be to give advice and assistance in connection with matters affecting the health of the people; these councils are to include persons of both sexes who have had practical experience in the matters to be considered. The act contains provisions for its operation in Scotland and Ireland as well as in England and Wales.

A provisional order issued for the purpose of enlarging upon the plan for consultative councils directs that they shall consist of any number of persons not exceeding 20 as the ministry may determine, who shall be appointed for terms of three years, with an annual appointment of one-third of the membership, no member to serve continuously for more than six years. This draft order indicates the purposes of not only giving these councils consultative powers but of authorizing them to make suggestions on their own initiative.

Belgian Unemployment Benefits.¹

NEW regulations governing unemployment benefits, worked out by the special committee on unemployment (*la Commission spéciale du Chômage*), named April 1, 1919, by the Minister of Industry, Labor and Supply (*Ministre de l'Industrie, du Travail et du Ravitaillement*), became effective May 4, 1919.

The benefits are to be paid in cash, the sum to be determined in each case by the degree of need. Seventy-five per cent of the expense is borne by the Government and 25 per cent by the local authorities, i. e., commune, Province, charitable institutions, and private donations. Any supplementary assistance must come from local authorities and must be in food and clothing.

¹ *Revue du Travail*, (Belgium), May 15, 1919.

The amount of money benefits to be granted to a household is determined by the difference between its needs and its resources. The needs of a household are fixed in accordance with the following table:

INCOME NEEDED PER WEEK BY BELGIAN HOUSEHOLD, BY SIZE OF FAMILY.

Size of household.	Basic income per week.
	<i>Frans.</i>
1 person.....	10.50 (\$ 2.03)
2 persons.....	15.75 (3.04)
3 persons.....	21.00 (4.05)
4 persons.....	26.25 (5.07)
5 persons.....	31.50 (6.08)
6 persons.....	36.75 (7.09)
7 persons.....	42.00 (8.11)
8 persons.....	47.25 (9.12)
9 persons.....	52.50 (10.13)
10 persons.....	57.75 (11.15)
Increase for each person after the tenth...	4.50 (.87)

To avoid granting benefits in excess of actual need, declarations of resources must be made out and handed in to local authorities. These are then rigidly checked over by committees representing the district and the Province.

Rules for calculating these resources are set forth in the regulations, in order to determine accurately the degree of need. Certain items which in reality are resources are exempted from calculation as such. For instance, 50 per cent of wages are exempted, and likewise all of the first month's wages, in order to encourage the workers in getting a fresh start. Moreover, if a worker can show a certificate proving that he has obtained regular employment amounting to 90 hours per half-month, he may receive one month's unemployment benefits in advance to enable him to buy clothing and other necessities.

In the same way, exemptions from calculation as resources are allowed as follows: On a house acquired by a worker before August 1, 1914, and still occupied by him; on property which has been mortgaged up to two-thirds of its value to the Auxiliary Cooperative Society of the Societies of Workers' Dwellings (*Société Coopérative Auxiliaire des Sociétés d'habitations Ouvrières*); on a single sheep or goat, providing the owner has no other animals.

Some persons are excluded from unemployment benefits. Among them are: Agents, employees, and workmen of public offices; professional persons, such as teachers, artists, actors, authors, engineers, doctors, etc.; persons owning a horse and two cows; households whose gross monthly income exceeds 120 francs (\$23.16) for the head of the family and 40 francs (\$7.72) for each other member thereof; workmen—including their families—who refuse suitable

work at current wages or, refusing conciliation or arbitration, take part in a strike or lockout.

Certain rules based on an arbitrary standard are laid down for computing family income derived from rent of land, from garden and farm products, and from livestock.

Benefits are not payable when suitable work has been refused. This term shall be construed to mean such work as does not exceed 9 hours per day at the following minimum wages: Male, adult, 1 franc (19.3 cents) per hour in industrial districts and 0.85 franc (16.4 cents) per hour in semiurban districts; female, adult, 0.75 franc (14.5 cents) per hour in industrial districts and 0.65 franc (12.5 cents) per hour in semiurban districts; minors, 0.50 franc (9.7 cents) per hour in industrial districts and 0.40 franc (7.7 cents) per hour in semiurban districts; agricultural workers, 5 francs (96.5 cents) per day.

LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS.

Labor Organizations Held Liable for Acts of Members.

A DECISION of far-reaching influence was handed down in the Circuit Court of Appeals, Eighth Circuit, on April 28 of the current year. The point in question was the liability of the United Mine Workers of America for destructive acts done by members of the union in 1914 in the Prairie Creek district of Arkansas. The case is entitled *United Mine Workers of America et al. v. Coronado Coal Company et al.*, and is a continuation of a case that was before the court in 1916 under the title *Dowd v. United Mine Workers of America* (235 Fed. 1). The action was originally brought by Dowd as a receiver for the Coronado Coal Co. and eight other companies to recover damages resulting from conspiracy and combination in restraint of interstate trade and commerce. The district court entertained demurrers and dismissed the case, but on appeal to the Circuit Court of Appeals it was held that there were sufficient grounds for proceeding with the trial on the complaints made.

In accordance with this decision the district court heard the case and found that the defendant organization with its local branches and officials had been guilty of the acts charged, and damages were assessed in the amount of \$200,000. Inasmuch as the proceedings were had under the provisions of the Sherman antitrust law, this judgment was trebled; and, following a subsequent request, the court below taxed the defendants with interest from the date of the destruction of the property on which the action was based to the date of the judgment.

The defendant union appealed, submitting 184 assignments of error, but the decision of the court below was affirmed with the exception of the taxing of interest, which was held to have been improperly done, and the judgment was ordered reduced in this amount. Failure to reduce the judgment in this amount would result, the court held, in a new trial being granted.

It appears that the United Mine Workers of America is an unincorporated labor union, embracing mine workers in the United States, Canada, and Mexico; that there are some 30 districts with numerous local unions; and that each district union has jurisdiction over the local unions in its area, while the national organization has super-

visory jurisdiction over all. The fact that 28 local unions named as defendants and the district union, as well as the national organization, are unincorporated bodies was offered as a reason why no action could be instituted against them as entities and therefore no process or judgment could bind them.

The court held that this had been decided in the Dowd case mentioned above, and declined to consider the matter further. Other matters of practice were discussed, as the joinder of parties, the production of evidence, etc. Records and correspondence showing the scope and purpose of the organization were held to have been properly admitted as evidence and all technical matters were decided adversely to the contentions of the union. The liability of the executive board for the acts of the district officials and local unions was shown from publications of the union as well as from the constitution of the national organization, and the court concluded that "the national organization has undoubtedly, under the constitution, supreme authority. The judgment, discretion, wisdom, and power of the entire organization are vested in the national organization; every member of a local union is a member of the national organization and a contributor to its funds."

The evidence disclosed the purchase of arms and ammunition by officers of the United Mine Workers of America, payment therefor by union funds, and their distribution to union members in the affected districts. Indictments and pleas of guilty of individual defendants, members of the local unions, were brought in as evidence, showing that unlawful acts had been approved and encouraged, and that the national organization and its officers had ratified various torts committed in the course of the strike. The whole purpose of the strike to destroy competition by men in union mines was shown, and reference was made to the decision of the district judge in another case involving the same organization (*Hitchman Coal and Coke Company v. Mitchell*¹), the purpose being to show the object of the mine workers to gain control of the coal mines of the country.

The facts revealed showed threats, personal violence, and murder; also the destruction of large amounts of property, including loaded cars, mine buildings and equipments, and residences occupied by workers who refused to join the union; and other acts of violence. Injunctions were disregarded and no effort was made by the national organization to prevent the unlawful acts committed locally. "On the other hand, strike benefits were paid, pensions allowed, court costs assumed, and every act committed by those members of the district and local organizations approved by the entire organization."

¹ 202 Fed. 512; noted in U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics Bulletin No. 152, p. 137. The decision of the United States Supreme Court in the same case is reviewed in the MONTHLY REVIEW for January, 1918, p. 146.

These facts were held by the court of appeals to be a sufficient ground for the finding of the court below that the organization as a whole was responsible, applying the principles of the law relating to conspiracy, and since the evidence was sufficient to show interference with interstate commerce, 75 per cent of the coal mined being shipped to customers outside of the State of Arkansas, the application of the Sherman Act was held to be approved.

Other complaints related to a refusal of the court below to direct a verdict in behalf of the defendants and the nature of the remarks made to the jury by the presiding judge during the period of its deliberations. Neither objection was found by the court to be well grounded, though Circuit Judge Hook dissented with regard to the latter point, holding that the judge had exceeded the proper bounds in his remarks. The opinion of the court, however, was to the effect that the treble judgment, amounting to \$600,000, was properly assessed against the national organization, in view of its relation to its subordinate units and the membership generally. It was held also that the ratification of the tortious acts of the members fixed this liability, regardless of the question of whether or not the acts committed were beyond the authority intended to be given by the constitution and by-laws of the union.

This case differs from that of *Loewe v. Lawlor* (208 U. S. 274, 28 Sup. Ct. 301), known as "The Hatters' Case," inasmuch as in that case individual members of unions were held responsible for the acts of the union because of their support of the union during the commission of the acts complained of, as well as subsequently. The present case corresponds to the famous *Taff-Vale* decision in which the British courts held union funds subject to process for the recovery of damages due to acts of the members of the union. The *Taff-Vale* decision led to the enactment of a law declaring labor organizations not responsible in their collective capacity for the acts of their members. An attempt to secure the enactment of a similar provision of law by the Legislature of Massachusetts was abandoned because of an adverse decision by the supreme judicial court of the State, to which the measure was referred for an opinion as to its constitutionality (In Re Opinion of Justices, 98 N. E. 337).

The doctrine laid down in this decision is not novel, as a number of earlier cases had held that damages, not only actual but punitive, may be awarded where either a workman or an employer has been maliciously prevented from carrying on his work or business, with resulting loss; however, no case of equal importance has come before the courts of this country relating to this particular phase of the subject of the rights and liabilities of labor organizations. The fact that the union was unincorporated adds to the interest in the case, since it has been a frequent complaint that the refusal of unions

to incorporate was for the purpose of evading their legal responsibilities for their own acts and those of their constituent membership. An appeal is said to have been taken in this case to the Supreme Court of the United States, so that the final decision can not be said to have been reached. The case transcends in importance that of Hitchman Coal & Coke Co., already mentioned, and its final determination will be awaited with interest.

Labor Legislation of Chile.

THE annual bulletin recently issued by the labor office of Chile¹ reproduces several laws relating to labor. The following is a summary of the more important provisions of these laws:

Nurseries for children.—By the law of January 8, 1917, every factory, shop, or industrial establishment employing 50 or more women over 18 years of age is required to provide a room especially furnished for the care of children under 1 year of age whose mothers are employed in the establishment.

Mothers may leave their work for periods aggregating one hour per day for the purpose of nursing their children, and, whatever may be the system of wage payment, no deduction from wages or earnings may be made for this absence.

Seats for employees.—Stores, bazaars, shops, mercantile warehouses, and all similar establishments are required, by the law of November 25, 1914, to provide a sufficient number of chairs or seats for the use of clerks and employees.

In all such establishments clerks and employees must be given a lunch period of at least one hour and a half. The lunch hour may be staggered.

Sunday rest.—The law of November 5, 1917, requires employers to allow their employees one full day's rest in seven. This day shall be Sunday, excepting in certain industries and occupations in which a cessation of work would work injury to the public or the establishment. When the day of rest is on a day other than Sunday, all employees may or may not be given the same day off. In the latter case, the schedule must be posted in the workrooms and office of each establishment, and may not be changed without a month's notice.

Employees may not be required to work from 9 p. m. on the day preceding, nor before 6 a. m. on the day following, a religious or national holiday.

Labor in State railroad shops.—A law effective December 27, 1917, provides that all State-operated railroad workshops must be kept

¹ Boletín de la Oficina del Trabajo. No. 11, 1918, 317 pp. Santiago.

clean, well-ventilated, well-lighted, and well-floored, and in a condition assuring the safety of life and health of the employees.

Injurious and toxic gases and dust must be immediately and directly conveyed to the exterior and not permitted to mix with the air in the shops. All working places must be made free from emanations proceeding from water-closets, drains, pits, and other sources of infection. The maintenance of bath and washrooms is obligatory.

Guards are required for all wheels, belts, gearings, and other dangerous apparatus. Dangerous and moving and revolving parts of machinery and apparatus must be provided with safety devices. Steam, gas, and electric motors must be so placed as to be accessible only to those having charge of them. Stairways, platforms, and scaffolding, and overhead ways and bridges must be provided with guardrails, and pools, vats, and tanks containing corrosive or hot liquids must be inclosed by railings.

Persons employed in running telegraph or telephone wire at an elevation greater than 6 meters (19.7 feet) must be provided with safety belts with rope or chain to support or suspend them in case of accident.

Water gauges on locomotive boilers must be inclosed in heavy transparent glass tubes. On freight trains, equipped with automatic brakes, shelters inclosed by guardrails to prevent the falling of trainmen must be provided.

In each railroad zone an ambulance car must be provided, equipped with all articles necessary for the treatment and transportation of persons injured in accidents. Hospitals must be established for the care and treatment of injured employees.

Ordinary hours of labor shall not exceed 10 per day, including 2 hours of rest at noon. Night work shall not exceed 10 out of 24 hours. All employees must be given 24 consecutive hours of rest once each week.

Engineers, firemen, and brakemen shall not ordinarily be permitted to work more than 10 hours per day, except in cases of accident or of delay in schedules. Double wages shall be paid for overtime.

The employment of boys under 12 years of age in railroad shops is prohibited. Young persons between the ages of 12 and 16 years may be employed subject to the following provisions: (a) Hours of work must not exceed eight per day, including two hours' rest period; (b) night work is prohibited; (c) Sunday and holiday work is prohibited; (d) such persons must not be employed in the operation of dangerous machinery (the oiling of moving machinery is especially prohibited), in the operation of saws, or in the manufacture of explosives; (e) if they are less than 15 years of age they must have in their possession a certificate showing that they have completed their primary schooling.

The employment of females between the ages of 16 and 20 years on night, Sunday, or holiday work, or in dangerous or unhealthful work is prohibited. Eight hours constitute a day's work. Women may not be employed after midnight. They may not be employed during the four weeks preceding or the four weeks following childbirth, nor placed in charge of motors in operation, power-transmission apparatus, or dangerous machinery.

State railroad retirement and benefit fund.—As provided by the law of May 10, 1918, the savings fund is reorganized as the State railroad retirement fund, the purpose of which is: (a) The general administration of funds provided under existing laws,¹ and all funds created by the voluntary deposits of State railroad employees; (b) the encouragement of voluntary savings; (c) the provision of a pension system, life and accident insurance, and employees' mutual societies; (d) the development of institutions for moral, social, and economic betterment of employees and their families; and (e) the provision of a railroad sanitary service.

Generally speaking, all persons regularly employed as clerks, skilled workmen, or laborers are required to become contributors to the fund. Those not so required may become voluntary contributors. The general fund shall, by annual appropriations, maintain a medical, pharmaceutical, and hospital service for employees and passengers.

Full retirement benefits are granted after 20 years of service, and proportional benefits to those who have been in the service over 5 years; those who have served 1 year but less than 5 years are entitled to the return of the amounts contributed plus the interest; those who have served less than 1 year, their contributions only.

Voluntary contributions to the benefit fund may be made, subject to withdrawal on sight, for a term or under special conditions. No interest is allowed on any sum under 1 peso (36.5 cents) or on sums on deposit less than 30 days. Interest shall not be less than 5 per cent per annum. Savings certificates, payable in full on date of issue or in installments, may be issued as a basis of constituting annuities of definite maturity values.

Voluntary contributions may be made, under certain conditions, for the purchase of annuities, on current accounts for the purchase of real estate, for the constitution of a retirement fund, and in any other way considered an incentive to economy and saving.

Married women and minors shall be considered as free administrators of their own affairs, as regards their deposits and payments in the benefit fund.

¹ See MONTHLY REVIEW, February, 1918, p. 435.

Extra benefits may be granted to voluntary contributors who become incapacitated for work through industrial accidents or occupational diseases.

The amount of funeral expenses allowable is to be fixed each year at an amount not less than 150 pesos (\$54.75) nor more than 300 pesos (\$109.50). Claim for such expenses must be made within one year from the date of death. In case funeral expenses become payable to a hospital or mutual association, only the actual expenses may be paid.

Supplementary annuities may be granted to widows or widowers and their dependent children under 18 years of age, the supplementary annuity not to exceed 25 per cent of the regular annuity, and the total amount not to exceed 360 pesos (\$131.40).

Special allowances may be made to persons under 18 years of age while attending school. Such allowances may not exceed 120 pesos (\$43.80) per year for each minor, nor 360 pesos (\$131.40) per year for one family, whatever the number of minors. Families receiving annuities amounting to over 2,200 pesos (\$803), either from the fund or directly from the railroad, are not included in this provision. The fund is under no obligation to continue such grants.

The fund is to provide for the voluntary retirement of contributors at 55, 60, and 65 years of age. These annuities may be acquired by one payment or by periodical payments which may be either as alienated or reserved capital. In the latter case the contributions, without interest or bonus, are payable to the dependents at the death of the purchaser. No immediate annuity may be purchased which yields less than 120 pesos (\$43.80) per annum or more than 1,200 pesos (\$438).

The benefit fund may contract for life insurance, subject to the rigid application of the insurance regulations, and, until a national mortality table is calculated, the rates and values are to be based upon tables in use by the national life insurance companies. Collective insurance may be effected with employees' mutual companies, or reinsurance of a portion of their risk may be assumed by the fund.

HOUSING.

Report of the United States Housing Corporation.

A PREVIOUS report of the United States Housing Corporation of the Department of Labor which appeared December 3, 1918, outlined the preliminary work, the organization, the purpose, and the methods of the corporation.¹ A recent report, which has been specially prepared for Congress and will not be printed, briefly reviews the field covered by the first report and describes the work of the corporation subsequent to November, 1918, that is, up to May, 1919. A more complete report in two volumes is in preparation, Volume II of which has appeared.

The Housing Corporation provided living accommodations in 26 localities. In 24 of these localities houses for 5,899 workers' families were erected. Dormitories or residence halls for 8,109 persons were also provided in some of these localities. These operations of the corporation covered a period of four months, July to November, 1918. Eighty-nine per cent of the families will be cared for in individual houses against 11 per cent in apartments. The approximate final cost of these accommodations will be \$35,000,000, making a per capita gross cost of \$1,104, assuming that a worker's family represents on the average at least four persons. Hence the cost per family may be roughly set down as a trifle over \$4,400.

Of the houses and apartments, 2,094 were occupied on May 15, and 2,479 persons were occupying the hotels and dormitories constructed by the corporation.

The number of families provided for, and the character of the accommodations provided by the corporation, are set forth in the following table.

¹ Summarized in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW of February, 1919, pp. 246 to 251.

SUMMARY TABLE OF FAMILY ACCOMMODATIONS PROVIDED BY THE UNITED STATES HOUSING CORPORATION.¹

Location.	Total number of families provided for.	Type of house.							Number of families occupying houses having each classified number of rooms (each house has also a bathroom).								Number of families occupying apartments having each classified number of rooms (each apartment has also a bathroom).				
		One-family.			Two-family.			Apartment.	3	4	5	6	7	8	2	3	4	5	6		
		Detached.	Semide-tached.	Row.	Detached.	Semide-tached.	Row.														
Aberdeen, Md.....	68	65	3	1	2	65	
Alliance, Ohio.....	89	89	52	37	
Bath, Me.....	90	74	16	20	54	16	
Bremerton, Wash. (Puget Sound).....	290	245	45	25	145	75	19	17	9	
Bridgeport, Conn.....	889	5	164	250	40	106	324	40	201	198	122	4	30	252	42	
Charlestown, W. Va.....	85	45	40	35	10	20	20	
Erie, Pa.....	317	56	92	148	21	104	102	90	14	7	
Hammond, Ind.....	185	79	32	52	22	79	70	14	14	8	
Indianhead, Md.....	100	100	100	
New Brunswick, N. J.....	192	28	68	96	36	60	36	32	28	
New London, Conn.....	116	12	104	70	46	
New London, Conn. (Groton).....	25	7	18	17	8	
Newport, R. I.....	48	48	36	12	
Niagara Falls, N. Y.....	196	46	150	20	48	68	60	
Niles, Ohio.....	75	75	5	40	30	
Philadelphia, Pa.....	650	650	643	7	
Portsmouth (Craddock), Va.....	759	417	144	94	104	60	70	481	32	12	104	
Portsmouth (Truxton), Va.....	250	200	50	250	
Pompton Lakes.....	15	15	15	
Quincy, Mass.....	414	90	114	210	146	153	112	3	
Rock Island District.....	649	551	98	115	427	107	
Vallejo (Mare Island), Calif.....	227	83	24	120	40	114	56	17	
Waterbury, Conn.....	55	29	26	18	37	
Watertown, N. Y.....	115	85	30	59	56	
Total.....	2 5899	2350	1058	1295	250	226	52	668	125	1018	1749	2257	50	32	19	63	421	122	43	

¹ Does not include stores, cafeterias, restaurants, heating plants, and other special structures.² Does not include 267 houses constructed and abandoned at three different locations.

The report of the corporation to Congress makes the following observations:

Rental policy.—All houses of the corporation are being rented. Rental prices have been fixed after careful study, both of the cost of construction, the prevailing rentals of the city in which they fall, and the ability of the workmen to pay. An attempt has been made to fix a price which will be fair to the workman and to the Federal Government, and a price which will not discourage private building enterprise within that same community, for it is recognized that as the Federal Government has built houses for emergency purposes only that it would be poor policy for the Government in managing its properties to charge rents so low that private builders could no longer afford to build. The American workman does not want to be subsidized, and in our experience has proved willing to pay a just price.

Reduction in personnel.—Coincident with the termination of all projects not sufficiently far advanced to justify completion, the corporation has been cutting down its personnel. On November 15, 1918, four days after the signing of the armistice, there

were 848 persons on the rolls of the corporation; on May 16, 1919, the number was 367. Further reductions are being made every two weeks.

Disposal of records of corporation.—The large number of daily inquiries received by the United States Housing Corporation for information on varied aspects of this comprehensive subject have convinced members of this corporation that some permanent provision should be made by the Federal Government for the utilization of the materials and the information which have been collected by the Housing Corporation and other branches of the Government which have been charged with work in this field. The almost universal shortage of housing accommodations has led to an exceptional amount of interest in this field and has brought the subject intimately home to every chamber of commerce, manufacturer's association, or real estate board. It is apparent that they do not want the Federal Government to continue to build houses, or in any way to subsidize house building, but they do desire that the materials on this subject gathered for an emergency purpose shall not be stored in some out of the way place, but that they shall be rendered available for the service of the home builders of America.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Thirty-ninth Annual Convention of the American Federation of Labor.

THE thirty-ninth annual convention of the American Federation of Labor met at Atlantic City, N. J., on Monday, June 9, 1919, and remained in session until Monday, June 23. The president, Samuel Gompers, presided over the sessions.

The reports of the secretary and of the executive council for the year just passed were submitted to the convention on the first day of its sessions.

As to finances, the secretary's report recorded a total balance on hand, April 30, 1919, of \$217,490.16, after all expenses had been met. The receipts for the year were \$780,008.55. With respect to the 884 directly chartered local trade and Federal labor unions (not affiliated with any international unions), the secretary's report showed total receipts of \$54,308.19 for the defense fund for these organizations. The sum of \$7,654.50 was paid out in strike benefits for these bodies during the year, and the balance in the defense fund was \$179,725.89.

The secretary's report further showed that during the year ending April 30, a total of 555 charters were issued to national and international, State central, local trade, and Federal labor unions; and that charters were revoked or surrendered, and unions disbanded, suspended, or amalgamated in 471 instances.

The reports of international and national organizations carried the information that they issued during the year a total of 6,743 charters; and that 1,719 lapsed or were surrendered. The gain in individual membership as reported by the secretaries of 66 international organizations was 826,449. Reports from a like number of internationals show a total of 1,515 strikes, in which 234,446 workers were directly involved. Of this number 203,876 secured improved conditions. The total cost of the controversies to the internationals involved was \$1,391,833.30. In addition, \$82,547.48 was donated by unions for financial assistance of unions on strike.

According to the report, the total membership of all unions, international, national, Federal, and local, affiliated with the Amer-

ican Federation of Labor, increased during the year to 3,260,068, or 19.6 per cent more than the number reported at the convention of 1918. There are now 111 national and international unions, 884 local trade and Federal labor unions, 816 city central bodies, 572 local department councils, 46 State federations, and (included in the above figures) 33,852 local unions, in the American Federation of Labor.

Proceedings of the Convention.

The convention received a greeting from President Wilson in Paris. Addresses of welcome were delivered by Gov. Runyon, of New Jersey, Mayor Bacharach, of Atlantic City, and President Arthur A. Quinn, of the New Jersey State Federation of Labor, to which President Gompers replied with a speech in which he enunciated the new conception of industrial justice that has risen in the minds of the workers during the war. He said:

The day of tyranny and autocracy, whether it be in the political or the industrial life of our people, has gone, and if any employer believes that industrial autocracy or despotism is going to prevail in the United States of America, he has counted and is counting without his host. The principles for which this labor movement has contended and is contending must come to full fruition. We are making no unjust or unwarranted demands upon society or upon employers as such, but for the service which men and women of labor give to society, a service without which civilization itself would perish—for that service we insist upon a return that shall give us the opportunity to live full-rounded lives, ourselves, our wives, our children, our dependents, and to make of this country of ours and this world of ours a place worthy of the civilization of our time.

The first day's session was largely occupied by the reading of the report of the American Federation of Labor delegation to the Peace Conference.

On the second day of the convention, the report of the American Federation of Labor delegation to Italy was read, and Mr. Glenn E. Plumb, counsellor for the Railroad Brotherhoods, delivered an address describing the brotherhoods' plan for Government acquisition and ownership of the railroad systems and their operation by a corporation to be controlled by a board of directors representative equally of the public, the managers of the railroads, and the workers on the railroads.

On the third day, the report of the fraternal delegates to the British Trades-Union Congress was read to the convention, as well as the report of the American Federation of Labor delegation to Great Britain, France, and Italy.

After considerable debate, the convention voted, by 26,476 to 3,997, in favor of a resolution disapproving of wartime prohibition and expressing the conviction that the prohibition amendment to the Constitution should be amended so as to permit the brewing of 2.75 per cent beer.

Mrs. Rena Mooney, wife of Thomas J. Mooney, undergoing life imprisonment after conviction on the charge of complicity in the Preparedness Day bomb outrages in San Francisco in 1916, addressed the convention in behalf of her husband's plea of innocence.

Miss Margaret Bondfield, fraternal delegate from the British Trades-Union Congress, addressed the convention on the fourth day, as did also her colleague, S. Finney. Other fraternal delegates who addressed the convention were J. M. Walsh, representing the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, and B. Suzuki, president of the Workmen's Friendly Society of Japan. On the fifth day, Hon. William B. Wilson, Secretary of Labor, made an address. The Secretary referred to the great part labor had taken in the war, to the agitations of Bolshevism, to the activities of the I. W. W. as seen by the President's Mediation Commission of which Secretary Wilson was chairman, to the necessity for maintaining the American standard of living for wage workers, and then continued:

The employers and the employees have a mutual interest in securing the largest possible production with a given amount of labor, having due regard to the health, the safety, the opportunities for rest, recreation, and improvement of the workers. These being safeguarded, the larger the amount that is produced the larger will be the amount that there is to divide. If there is nothing produced there will be nothing to divide. If there is a large amount produced there will be a large amount to divide. Their interests diverge only when it comes to a division of what has been mutually produced, and if they are wise in their generation in these modern times, with labor realizing its importance in the defense of the country and the maintenance of the country, instead of solving the problem by the use of the economic power on the part of the employer, imposing his will upon the worker, or the use of collective power on the part of the employees imposing their will upon the employers, they will sit around the council table and endeavor to work out the problem on a democratic basis that will secure to each all that he is entitled to receive.

Summary of Resolutions Adopted.

Among the resolutions adopted and actions taken were the following:

Urging immediate provision by Congress of funds with which to continue the United States Employment Service and legislation making that service a permanent branch of the Government.

Condemning the so-called "Rockefeller plan of industrial representation" and all so-called "company unions," and demanding the right to bargain collectively through trades unions.

Instructing the executive council to cooperate with organizations of Federal employees in efforts to secure upward revisions of salaries, and condemning low-wage standards in the Federal service.

Urging upon Congress passage of legislation establishing minimum salaries of \$1,000 for grade teachers and \$1,200 for high-school teachers in the schools of the District of Columbia.

Favoring the passage of H. J. Resolution 32, pending in Congress, enfranchising the citizens of the District of Columbia and the Canal Zone.

Declaring in favor of civil service for workers in public libraries; denouncing control exercised over public libraries by private wealth and urging public ownership, control, and administration of these institutions, and representation of union labor on all boards of trustees of public libraries; instructing the executive council to give assistance to efforts to organize library workers.

Expressing support of governmental activities in scientific and technical research and urging its extension.

Condemning mob rule and lynch law.

Protesting against massacres of Jewish residents of Poland, the Ukraine, and other countries of eastern Europe.

Indorsing efforts of the United States Public Health Service in combating the spread of venereal diseases; and calling upon all affiliated organizations to acquaint their members with the program of the Public Health Service in this regard.

Commending the work of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics "for great good accomplished in establishing figures which furnish a fair basis to be used in making desired readjustments" of wage rates.

Urging extension of the jurisdiction of the reclassification commission, reclassifying Federal civil service in the District of Columbia, to empower it to investigate and make recommendations with respect to duties, wages, salaries, hours, and titles of Federal employees throughout the country.

Calling attention of Congress to extension of the control of meat packers over preparation and sale of unrelated food products, and supporting the Federal Trade Commission program of remedial legislation with respect to the meat-packing industry.

Affirming the belief of the convention that the people of Ireland should be accorded right of self-determination; asking the United States Senate to request the American Peace Mission to secure a hearing before the Peace Conference for representatives of the "Irish Republic" and urging Congress to give recognition to the government of the "Republic of Ireland."

Declaring in favor of public ownership and control of the railroads and instructing the executive council to cooperate with the railroad brotherhoods in their effort to reorganize railroad industry along lines of the so-called "Plum plan."

Urging withdrawal at the earliest possible moment of all United States troops from Russian soil; refusing indorsement of the soviet government of Russia "or any other form of government in that

country until the peoples of Russia, through a constituent or other form of national assembly, representing all of the people, through popular elections, shall have reestablished a truly democratic form of government."

Opposing the movement for a general strike in protest against delay in according a new trial to Thomas J. Mooney, San Francisco labor leader; but instructing the executive council to give early attention to devising practical ways and means to secure a new trial.

Requesting the Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries of the House of Representatives to investigate alleged failures by the Department of Commerce to properly enforce the seamen's act; denouncing bills introduced by Senator Calder and Representative Gould of New York, repealing important clauses of the seamen's act.

Indorsing the McKellar-Keating civil service retirement bill.

Indorsing effort toward the establishment of a minimum wage for Government employees.

Approving effort for establishment of a Federal budget system.

Approving proposed legislation prohibiting immigration to the United States for a fixed period of years.

Expressing "insistent demand that immediately following the signing of the peace treaty all laws in any way limiting or infringing upon the right of free speech, of a free press, and freedom of assembly, which were enacted as war measures, shall be repealed."

After some debate the convention indorsed the League of Nations covenant and the draft convention of the International Labor Conference, the vote being 29,909 for indorsement and 420 against. An amendment, however, was adopted, stipulating that the action could not be construed as denying the right of self-determination to Ireland.

Reports of Committees.

The report of the committee appointed to consider the question of the shorter work day was adopted. The committee in its report dwelt upon the high cost of living and the unemployment problem as causes of present unrest among workingmen, noted instances where the 44-hour week has already been introduced, and expressed the belief that "it will be but a short time till the 8-hour day, with half holiday on Saturday, meaning a 44-hour week, will be the universal hours of labor and adopted in all industries." The committee, however, went further than this and stated, in conclusion:

There is no doubt but that in the near future many organizations will determine that in order to take care of all of their members gaining a livelihood by employment at their trade it will be necessary to inaugurate a six-hour day.

Your committee therefore recommends further that the executive council lend its assistance in the fullest degree to any organization seeking to establish a shorter work-day that will provide for the employment of all its members. The organization itself must necessarily be the judge of what should be the length of the work in the industry over which it has jurisdiction. When it has decided and established its claim to shorter hours, no matter what they may be, then the American Federation of Labor should lend its fullest assistance and your committee so recommends.

The recommendations of the committee on education as adopted by the convention include the following:¹

Simplification of courses of study so as to afford in the upper years of the elementary school diversified training for children who can not go to higher schools. These diversified courses should be flexible, so that pupils will be able to transfer from one to another. "We must not compel the child to pay the penalty throughout life for a mistaken decision made in childhood. Organized labor should demand and help to secure an expansion and diversification of both elementary and secondary education so that a democratic equality of opportunity for preparations for the callings of their choice may be offered the children of the people."

Hearty support of the demand for well-considered methods of vocational guidance in our schools.

Vigorous and effective teaching of the privileges and obligations of intelligent citizenship, particularly in industrial and vocational courses; and the teaching of English to non-English-speaking people.

The establishment of complete systems of modern physical education under specially trained instructors.

Better enforcement of compulsory educational laws and the universal establishment of a minimum school-leaving age at 16 years.

A thoroughgoing revision upward of the salary schedule of all teachers.

Teachers should have tenure of position during efficiency with no dismissals without full public hearings before a commission on which the teachers are fairly represented.

Election of Officers.

The officers elected for the ensuing year are: President, Samuel Gompers; first vice president, James Duncan; second vice president, Joseph F. Valentine; third vice president, Frank Duffy; fourth vice president, William Green; fifth vice president, William B. Mahon; sixth vice president, Thomas A. Rickert; seventh vice president, Jacob Fischer; eighth vice president, Matthew Woll; secretary, Frank Morrison; treasurer, Daniel J. Tobin; fraternal delegates to the British Trades-Union Congress, William L. Hutcheson, John J. Hynes; delegate to the Canadian Trades and Labor Congress, Sam Griggs. The location of next year's convention was left to the executive council.

¹ These resolutions are given in full on pages 253 to 255 of this issue.

The American Federation of Teachers.

By MRS. V. B. TURNER.

UNIONISM among teachers, long since an effective force in Great Britain, is a movement of recent and comparatively rapid development in the United States. Teachers' unions, it is true, have for more than a decade existed in various parts of the country and a number of them have been affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. But this early unionizing of teachers was purely a local matter and only in exceptional cases, as for instance, that of the Chicago unions, did the activity of the local organizations become generally known.

Gradually a knowledge of the struggle for improvement in salaries and in working conditions spread beyond local limits, and this fact, together with the utter inability of the existing teachers' organizations to meet the pressing need for similar changes throughout the profession, forced the teachers to a decision that the usual type of teachers' organization is not strong enough either in itself or in its affiliations effectively to meet present-day requirements, and finally resulted in the fusing of the scattered unions into a national body affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

Organization and Growth of American Federation of Teachers.

The American Federation of Teachers was organized in Chicago, April 15, 1916, through the initial efforts of the Chicago teachers who are pioneers in the union movement among teachers, and who, from their struggles with forces inimical to educational welfare in that city, were convinced of the immediate necessity for stronger and more concerted action. The call for the formation of the national federation was made by the Chicago Teachers' Federation, the Chicago Federation of Men Teachers, and the Federation of Women High School Teachers of Chicago. Similar organizations in New York, Washington, Scranton, Oklahoma City, and Gary responded by sending delegates to meet those from the Chicago federations. A constitution was adopted and officers were elected, thus effecting an organization of 2,800 members from eight locals, six of which were at that time affiliated with the American Federation of Labor.

According to reports from the organizers and officials of the various unions this number has increased during the brief existence of the federation to 90 locals with about 8,000 members, the greatest

activity in organization manifesting itself since January 1, 1919. In a few cities the teachers are 100 per cent organized. Five unions in Washington, D. C., represent about 75 per cent of the teaching force. Teachers' unions have also invaded the far west. Sixty-seven out of 69 high-school teachers in Sacramento, Calif., are members of the high-school teachers' union recently organized in that city. The San Francisco union has passed the 150 mark and a State federation was formed May 31, 1919. The Chicago Federation of Men Teachers has 200 members—a majority of the male teachers in the Chicago high schools. The Federation of Women High School Teachers is younger and smaller, having only 60 members. One of the New York locals numbers 1,000 members, while the teachers of Memphis, Tenn., are about 90 per cent organized. Three normal schools have locals, the Milwaukee Normal being the pioneer. Howard University, of Washington, D. C., organized the first university local and now has a membership of 38 cooperating with the university organization in bringing about desirable changes. The University of Illinois and the College of the City of New York have followed its example, and according to press reports several of the Harvard professors are members of a teachers' union in Boston.

Object of the American Federation of Teachers.

The slogan of the federation is: "Democracy in education. Education for democracy," and its object, as stated in the constitution,¹ "shall be to bring associations of teachers into relations of mutual assistance and cooperation; to obtain for them all the rights and benefits to which they are entitled; to raise the standard of the teaching profession by securing the conditions essential to the best professional service, and to promote such a democratization of the schools as will enable them better to equip their pupils to take their place in the industrial, social, and political life of the community."

Membership.

Prior to July, 1918, the membership of the unions consisted only of public-school teachers who had class-room work. Principals or school officials having disciplinary or rating power over other teachers were not admitted to membership, the idea being that teachers would act more freely and independently apart from the usual restraint of schoolroom supervision.

During the annual convention held at Pittsburg, Pa., July 4-6, 1918, the constitution was amended to "admit to membership associations of public-school principals in their capacity as teachers

¹ American Federation of Teachers' Constitution, 1918, Art. II, p. 3.

or as public-school employees under such rules and regulations as may be fixed by the executive council of the American Federation of Teachers" and in accordance with the provisions of the constitution limiting such membership. In communities where there are fewer than 15 principals, individual principals may be admitted to membership in teachers' locals after the locals have been established and actively working for two years and provided that their constitutions do not forbid the admission of principals. An amendment making college and university professors eligible to membership in the federation was also adopted by the same convention. Since that time organization has taken place among principals and to some extent in universities, as previously noted.

National Officials.

The officers of the federation, consisting of a president, a secretary-treasurer, and nine vice presidents, constitute the executive council, which carries out the instructions of the national conventions. A list of the officers elected at the last convention follows:

President, Charles B. Stillman, Wilmette, Ill.; secretary-treasurer, F. G. Stecker, Chicago, Ill.; national organizer, first vice president, L. V. Lampson, Washington, D. C.; editor of the *American Teacher*, sixth vice president, Henry V. Linville, New York City; second vice president, Mabel L. Rees, Brooklyn, N. Y.; third vice president, Anita Bailey, Gary, Ind.; fourth vice president, Judith R. Riddick, Norfolk, Va.; fifth vice president, S. E. Compton, Washington, D. C.; seventh vice president, Clara K. Stutz, Washington, D. C.; eighth vice president, Carrie L. Colburn, Olean, N. Y.; ninth vice president, Isabel Williams, St. Paul, Minn.

General Constitutional Provisions.

The constitution also provides that the convention of the federation shall meet annually during the Christmas vacation or at such other time as the executive council may set, the place of meeting to be determined by the delegates at each annual convention. Each local with a membership of 100 or less is entitled to two delegates to the national convention and for every "additional hundred members or major fraction thereof, one additional delegate." The finances of the federation are met by a monthly per capita tax of from 10 to 25 cents, graduated according to the amount of annual salary of members, 5 cents a month being reserved in every case to cover subscription to the "*American Teacher*," the official organ of the federation. Charters for new locals may be obtained from the executive council upon the application of seven or more public-school teachers

and the payment of a fee of \$10. Since July, 1918, this provision has also been applicable to teachers in private institutions except such institutions as are maintained primarily for religious purposes or as private financial enterprises.

Affiliations.

On May 9, 1916, the American Federation of Teachers was affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, and, according to Article XII of the constitution, "shall permanently maintain that affiliation." It is also affiliated with the Women's National Trade Union League of America. Each union is or may be affiliated with its local central labor organization and with the State federation of labor, as well as with other clubs or federations nonunion in character.

It is apparently the affiliation of teachers' unions with labor rather than the fact of the existence of such unions which has created opposition to them. Critics of this policy advance the idea that teachers are public employees and should not, therefore, ally themselves with particular social groups. Such action, they contend, stimulates class consciousness and thus controverts the teachers' stand for democracy.

To this objection it is urged that the majority of children in the public school come from working-class homes, and that the teachers, by emerging from their traditional isolation and casting in their lot with organizations fundamentally and unselfishly interested in public education, are practically demonstrating their slogan of democracy in education. Furthermore, it is believed that this alignment, instead of fostering class feeling, will tend eventually to break down existing barriers between so-called labor and other classes, due frequently to misunderstandings or a different point of view.

The imputation is made that teachers are adopting unionization merely to increase their salaries. The advocates of the unions consider that any improvement in the status of the teachers will equally benefit children who can not afford any but public education, and that concerted action for such purposes is legitimate and needs no defense.

Their defense, however, is that long before the war great discontent prevailed among the teachers of the United States regarding the conditions of their employment—unskilled laborers being in many instances paid as well; their tenure of position was insecure; autocratic supervisory methods prevailed; and there was little or no provision for sickness and old age. With the war and its accompanying rise in cost of living and increased opportunities for

other lines of work, an economic crisis so far as teachers are concerned became imminent. While some were undoubtedly attracted by industrial opportunities, others were inexorably forced out of the profession in the interests of self-preservation.

According to an official source,¹ the average salary for all public school teachers in the United States in 1915 was \$543.31; that is, "\$1.73 per working-day throughout the year or \$1.48 per living-day throughout the year." The statistics upon which this statement is based show that a large number of positions paid \$400 and \$300 a year and some less. Since that time an effort has been made in different States to raise the level of teachers' salaries, but the report continues: "The most roseate optimist we have heard of says salaries have advanced 10 per cent within the last three years. If that is true, the average daily wage of the teachers in the United States is now (1918) \$1.63 instead of \$1.48." According to reports² received by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics the average increase in the cost of living in 18 shipbuilding centers from December, 1914, to December, 1918, was 73.4 per cent. It is apparent from a comparison of these statistics that a very substantial increase in teachers' salaries must be had if an educational breakdown is to be averted.

The teachers have no desire to leave the profession, and those who have joined the unions have come to believe, as previously stated, that the quickest and most effective way of attracting public attention to this vital matter of salaries is to organize in such manner as will enable them to secure a living wage. The material, and incidentally the spiritual, independence thus attained will, they think, better prepare them adequately to satisfy the demands of an exacting public.

The American Federation of Labor offered such an alliance. Its attitude toward the Towner Bill,³ and the educational programs advocated by various State labor federations, notably New York and Illinois, indicate that labor not only is awake to the needs of the public schools but is ready to assist in securing, through more complete equipment and a better trained, better paid force, adequate educational facilities for children of all classes.

To meet the objection that teachers' unions might be ordered out on strike, the unions maintain that they are completely autonomous bodies, their constitution having no provision regarding strikes; that they depend rather upon "organization, publicity, and political action" to safeguard teachers' interests. The authors of the

¹ National Education Association of the United States. Teachers' salaries and cost of living. Washington 1918, p. 25.

² MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, May, 1919, pp. 166-168.

³ Bill (H. R. 15400) introduced by Representative Towner, of Iowa, at the instance of the American Federation of Teachers, the National Education Association, and the American Federation of Labor for the creation of a Federal department of education.

National Education Association salary report for 1918 have the following to say in this connection:¹

The literature of the unionist organizations is conservative in tone. One need not be disturbed by the fear that they will resort to undignified and violent measures. Unions formed of American teachers may be depended upon to pursue a wise, patient, and purely democratic policy. Moreover, what the teachers of the country are asking of the people—their ultimate employers—is not asked in selfishness but in the widest interest of the people themselves. Public schools are the chief bulwark of liberty. If the teachers of the country are ruined economically, the schools will fail and democracy itself will be imperiled.

Activities of Individual Unions.

While the necessity of increases in salary is the immediate impelling motive in the unionizing of teachers, and reports from various locals indicate that encouraging results are being obtained through such organization, the activities of the unions are not confined to efforts in this direction. In one city it is claimed that an organized attack made by the teachers' federations upon violators of the tax law has added \$1,250,000 annually to the school revenue. Campaigns for the protection of teachers' tenure, for the investigation and publicity of school-fund expenditures, for a limitation of the hours of labor for women and children, and against the unreasonable punishment of teachers, have been successfully carried on.

One of the smaller unions which, so it states, is affiliated with its local trades council, and which has the recognition of the school board and the backing of a strong public sentiment, including the support of the local press, has secured the early hiring of teachers, together with the correction of an unjust contract, higher salaries, longer school term, and the cooperation of the school board on school problems.

Legislation has been urged to increase the State and county appropriation for educational purposes. Classes in citizenship and in subjects of direct practical benefit to the workers are being arranged for the summer months, teachers' councils have been elected to cooperate with the superintendents and boards of education on administrative problems. The ordinary citizen is being brought to a more intelligent understanding of school problems, and is therefore developing a more active interest in the personnel of boards of education.

It is evident from an examination of the various activities of teachers' unions that a not unimportant factor of these organizations is the placing of responsibility upon the teacher to participate actively in civic and national affairs. "Federation teachers," says the

¹ National Education Association of the United States. Teachers' salaries and cost of living. Washington, 1918, p. 20.

president of one large union, "are no longer buried in any sort of monastic or scholastic calm. They have struck out into the great life current of the Nation, State, and city. They have developed a broader conception of the functions and relations of the teacher, and an identification of his fundamental interests as a worker with those of other workers. * * * There is evident in the federations the growth of a whole new body of ideals for teachers and a new spirit of independence and self-respect in their ranks."

Activities of the American Federation of Teachers.

The federation has held three annual conventions. The first one met in Chicago, December 29 and 30, 1916, and adopted a program which constitutes the charter of educational principles of the federation, and at the third convention, which was held in Pittsburg, Pa., July, 1918, the constitution was revised and adopted in its present form and a restatement made of educational needs as they have developed since the adoption of the original program.

The work of the national federation has largely been along two lines: Organization and educational propaganda. Two members of the executive council, the president and the first vice president, devote practically their entire time to the formation of new locals. Representatives of the federation appearing before the various labor conventions and the meetings of educational and other bodies not only have kept educational needs prominently before the public but have secured the endorsement of these bodies to educational programs and to proposed local or national legislation regarding the status of teachers. Delegates from the American Federation of Teachers as members of committees on education have assisted in formulating educational programs for State and national labor organizations. The St. Paul convention of the American Federation of Labor held July 10-20, 1918, adopted as a whole the report upon labor's educational program written and presented by the present president of the American Federation of Teachers, and a similarly prepared report adopted at the recent meeting of the American Federation of Labor at Atlantic City is a statement of the educational policy of the American Federation of Teachers as well as of organized labor. The report follows:¹

With regard to vocational education, the model laws recommended by the executive council to the St. Paul convention, and the principles adopted by that convention, including the indorsement of the unit as opposed to the dual system of administration, should be reindorsed. In this connection commendation should be given to the various States which have enacted continuation-school laws, and to the labor movement of those States for the part they played in securing such legislation.

¹ Report of proceedings of the American Federation of Labor. Eleventh day session, Atlantic City, N. J. June, 1919. Pp. 14, 15.

Hearty support should be given the increasing demand for well considered methods of vocational guidance in our schools.

Careful consideration should be given to the simplification of courses of study, especially in the lower grades; but in connection with any movement toward simplification, the committee believes that—

The upper years of the elementary school should be reorganized to afford diversified training, so that boys and girls who can not go on to higher schools will receive training specifically designed for their needs, and not be compelled as at present to prepare for a rôle they will never play. These diversified courses should be flexible so that a pupil will be able to transfer from one to another. We must not compel the child to pay the penalty throughout life for a mistaken decision made in childhood. Organized labor should demand and help to secure an expansion and diversification of both elementary and secondary education so that a democratic equality of opportunity for preparations for the callings of their choice may be offered the children of the people.

In all courses of study, and particularly in industrial and vocational courses, the privileges and obligations of intelligent citizenship must be taught vigorously and effectively; and at least in all vocational and industrial courses an unbiased industrial history must be taught, which shall include accurate account of the organization of the workers and the results thereof, and shall also include a summary of all legislation, both State and Federal, affecting the industries taught.

The basic language of instruction in all schools, both public and private, should be the English language, foreign languages to be taught only as subjects in the curriculum.

The provision of adequate facilities for the teaching of English to non-English-speaking people.

The establishment of complete systems of modern physical education under specially trained instructors.

The provision of ample playground facilities as a part of the public school system.

Continuous medical and dental inspection throughout the schools.

Better enforcement of compulsory education laws, and the universal establishment of a minimum school-leaving age of 16 years.

The extension of a free-textbook system to the District of Columbia and such States and communities as have not adopted it.

Wider use of the school plant, securing increased returns to the community through additional civic, social, and educational services to both adults and children.

Public forums should be established in every school where there is sufficient demand, under the direction of the superintendent of schools, working in cooperation with advisory committees, representing the various elements in the community.

The educational interests of the children and the future welfare of the State demand a drastic reduction in the prevailing size of classes.

In view of the demonstration by war conditions of the industrial and educational value of the metric system, the committee recommends that the executive council cause an investigation to be made of the advantages of the introduction of the metric system into this country with a view to determine what further steps, such as congressional action, may be advisable.

A thoroughgoing revision upward of the salary schedule of teachers in the public schools, normal schools and universities, to meet the increased cost of living and the growing appreciation of the value to the community and the nation of the teachers' services.

The liberal ungrudging reorganization and increase of school revenues as the only means of maintaining and developing the efficiency of our public schools.

In order to secure a more democratic administration of our schools, to develop a spirit of cooperation, and to gain for the community the benefit of the experience

and initiative of the teaching body, boards of education and superintendents of schools should confer with committees representing organizations of the teachers' choice in all cases of controversy between school authorities and teachers, and should consider and make official public record of suggestions dealing with the conduct of the schools submitted by the teachers through such committees.

Teachers should have tenure of position during efficiency. There should be no dismissals without full public hearings before a commission on which the teachers are fairly represented.

In a democracy the primary requirement is citizenship educated to straightforward logical thinking, based on facts established by carefully sifted evidence. The schools can not develop this essential mental fiber if the pupils are carefully shielded from knowledge of the topics men and women think about. Secondary only to a citizen's ability to do his own thinking, is his ability to make his influence felt in his group and community by effectively presenting his views to his fellows, and meeting opposition in a spirit of tolerance. This power of effective self-expression and the habits of tolerance, and of intellectual fairness toward opponents, can not be formed without the discussion of topics that give opportunity for their exercise. Therefore in order to enable the schools to perform one of their chief functions—preparation for active citizenship—pupils should be encouraged to discuss under intelligent supervision current events and the problems of citizenship.

It is unquestionable that teachers have no right to impose their personal views on pupils. But it is necessary in some quarters to emphasize that neither do school authorities have that right. And it is further necessary to ask this convention to indorse with all its power the principle that men and women in becoming teachers do not thereby surrender their rights as American citizens, and that inquisitions by school authorities into the personal, religious, political, and economic views of teachers is intolerable in a free country, strikes at the very basis of our public-school system, and can only result in the development of mental and moral servility and the stultification of teachers and pupils alike.

The right of teachers to affiliate with organized labor is beyond question. And in that connection, the right of teachers to hold meetings in school buildings outside of school hours, for the purpose of discussing organization, or of conducting the business of their organization, should not be questioned. Boards of education have no proprietary right in the schools, but are simply trustees for the public, of which the teachers are a part.

The committee recommends that this convention urge all State and local central bodies to make a committee on education one of their standing committees, where it has not yet been done, and to make vigorous effort to secure adequate representation of organized labor on all boards of education.

The achievements of the American Federation of Teachers, in cooperation with the labor movement, during the past year, lead the committee to repeat with greater emphasis the declaration of the St. Paul convention that the most effective guaranty of democracy and of progress in our schools is the affiliation of the teachers of the country with the great democratic force of organized labor, and to again urge the recommendation that the executive council of the American Federation of Labor and all State and local central bodies give every support to the American Federation of Teachers in the work of organizing the teachers.

Convention of Association of Governmental Labor Officials, June 2-4, 1919.

AMONG recent conventions and conferences dealing with social and labor problems is that of the Association of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada, which was held in Madison, Wis., June 2-4, 1919. The membership of this association includes employees of Federal, State, provincial, county, and municipal departments having to do with the enforcement and supervision of labor laws. Most of the delegates were State labor commissioners, factory inspectors, and representatives of the United States Department of Labor. Twenty-one States, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and one Canadian Province (Alberta), were represented.

The addresses and papers included such topics as factory inspection, industrial hazards, women in industry, workmen's compensation, the problems of reconstruction, the rehabilitation of soldiers, child labor tax laws, industrial relations, and the employment problem.

At the business session the following officers were elected for the ensuing year:

President, George P. Hambrecht, Madison, Wis.; first vice president, J. W. McLeod, Edmonton, Alberta, Canada; second vice president, S. C. Groeschel, Columbia, S. C.; third vice president, F. E. Wood, New Orleans, La.; fourth vice president, Miss Ethel Elliott, Tulsa, Okla.; fifth vice president, J. P. Summers, Juneau, Alaska; secretary-treasurer, Miss Linna E. Bresette, Topeka, Kans.

Among the important resolutions adopted by the association were those dealing with questions of land settlement, child labor, and the Woman in Industry Service of the United States Department of Labor. The text of these resolutions follows:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this convention that land settlement by State and Government credit aid is immediately necessary to save this country from the necessity of importing foodstuffs, and to relieve the distress of underhousing conditions in our cities.

Resolved, That the United States Department of Labor plan of a rotary fund to establish men on the land, pay them for developing it, and then helping them by long-time credit to buy it on a community farming plan is the most feasible and will bring quickest results.

Resolved, That we indorse Secretary Wilson's idea that the land itself should be held in title of sale by the Government so that the farms improved under Government credits can not be bought up by large tracts, creating again a new tenantry system.

Resolved, That States should adopt this system wherever land settlements are contemplated.

Resolved, That it is the sense of this convention that the poverty of aged, crippled, and indigent parents or relatives should be carried by society and not be shifted to the backs of little children; therefore the poverty clause should be abolished or repealed from all child labor laws, and the authority to issue employment certificates be delegated to one department.

Whereas a Federal division for women in industry in the United States Department of Labor has been of valuable assistance in helping to solve problems arising out of the employment of women in new occupations; and

Whereas it is a recognized fact that women will remain in many of these occupations; and

Whereas the woman in industry service of the United States Department of Labor can be of valuable assistance to the various States in helping to formulate and establish standards of employment for women: Therefore be it

Resolved, That Congress be urged to continue the woman in industry service in the United States Department of Labor and appropriate sufficient funds for this work.

Convention of Danish Cooperative Trade-Unions.

THE United States minister at Copenhagen, Denmark, reports¹ that on April 25, 26, and 27, 1919, there was held in that city a general meeting of the Danish cooperative trade-unions, which embrace about 255,000 organized laborers. The gathering was attended by 456 representatives from the various Danish industries and also by delegates from German, Swedish, and Norwegian labor unions.

The chairman reported that the period 1916 to 1918, inclusive, had been one of phenomenal growth in the movement, the number of organizations increasing from 51 to 54, the number of local unions from 1,315 to 2,367, and the number of members from 132,000 to 255,150, the last figure representing an increase of 93.3 per cent. Classified by trade a large part of the increased membership is as follows:

MEMBERS OF DANISH COOPERATIVE TRADE UNIONS IN SPECIFIED TRADES, 1915 AND 1918, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN 1918.

Trade.	Number of members in—		Per cent of increase.
	1915	1918	
Farm laborers	4,200	30,000	614.3
General laborers	44,000	81,000	84.1
Blacksmiths	14,000	19,000	35.7
Carpenters	7,000	9,000	28.6
Tailors	5,000	13,000	160.0
Laborers in wooden industries	3,000	9,000	200.0
Laborers in shoe industry	3,000	5,000	66.7
Women's trade unions	4,000	10,000	150.0

¹ Dispatch of May 10, 1919, transmitted to this Bureau by the State Department.

Resolutions Adopted.

A deputation was appointed to place before the Danish Parliament the following resolutions, adopted at the meeting:

1. The immediate introduction of a maximum working day of 8 hours is demanded.
2. Young persons between 14 and 18 years of age should not be employed more than 6 hours a day and should have the same lunch hour as adult laborers. They should not be employed between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m., nor on Sundays or other holidays. Nor should they be employed in industries dangerous to the health. Vocational and continuation training should be established in the interest of such young workers, regardless of sex. The training should not be neglected because given during working hours. In such cases the necessary freedom should be granted.
3. The maximum working time of adult women should be fixed at 44 hours per week, or 8 hours on each of five days and 4 hours, concluding at noon, on Saturdays. As a general rule women should not be employed on Sundays.
4. The working time of adult men should be fixed at 48 hours per week.
5. In addition, the following rules should be established with regard to adult men and women laborers:

No work should be allowed between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m. unless in the public interest or on technical grounds.

Industries dangerous to the health should be subject to special examination.

Laborers, as well as employers, should be forbidden to carry out, or to arrange for the carrying out, of work belonging to their own undertaking after the conclusion of the working hours.

A further resolution was adopted calling for the introduction, in 1920, of summer vacations in the various industries.

Scandinavian-Finnish Sociopolitical Conference.

ACCORDING to a dispatch from the United States minister at Copenhagen, transmitted to this Bureau by the State Department, there was held in that city on April 25 to 29, 1919, simultaneously with the meeting of Danish trade-unions,¹ a Scandinavian-Finnish Sociopolitical Conference, which was attended by representatives of social organizations and by Government officials of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway, and Sweden.

Some of the principal social topics which were discussed at the conference were sickness insurance, accident insurance, old-age pensions, unemployment insurance, limitation of working hours, protection of children and young people, exchange of information concerning legislation for the purpose of establishing uniform principles as well as of creating an understanding among the Scandinavian countries, including Finland and Iceland, with regard to international negotiations.

¹ See preceding article.

At a plenary meeting which was held on April 28 it was concluded to create a permanent Scandinavian commission, to include representatives of employers and laborers in an equal number, as well as representatives of other parties whose interests may fall within the scope of the functions of this commission. In this connection the dispatch says:

The commission should be summoned at least once a year and it may form subcommittees, consisting of members from the main commission, to discuss certain questions. It may also request the governments to appoint experts to enter the commission or to form special commissions to discuss and examine particular questions.

In case a vote is to be taken within the commission each country possesses one vote and a majority decides.

The five delegations should each establish a secretariat which should cooperate with each other.

The object of such a collaboration shall first of all be that of carrying on a reciprocal work of enlightenment. With this idea in mind the commission recommended to the Governments that the social authorities in the individual countries be empowered to negotiate directly with each other to the greatest possible extent and that each of the five Governments cause uniform social statistics to be established in their countries, and that the task of considering the question of issuing a mutual sociopolitical periodical be assigned to the commission.

Independent of the permanent commission, it was decided to form as soon as possible a "special commission," consisting of five representatives from each of the countries. The purpose of this commission will be that of vindicating the sociopolitical interest of the Scandinavian countries, especially at the contemplated conference in Washington.

While all of the aforementioned questions were dealt with by one committee, another committee was concerned with the question of working hours.

The committee taking up the question of working hours decided to make the following recommendations to the authorities in the Scandinavian countries, including Finland and Iceland:

To recognize in principle that eight hours per day or 48 hours per week are the highest effective working hours in the industries, and minor industries, as well as in the economic enterprises of the State or community.

That the question of night work and work on Sundays be made the subject of a close examination with the purpose of limiting such working hours to industries where it is required on technical grounds.

That rules be laid down that children under 14 years of age should not be employed in the industries in question and that young men and women between 14 and 18 years should only be engaged in work which does not constitute a menace to their physical development, and on the condition that their school training and other training may be continued in a satisfactory manner.

A third committee, which was charged with the questions of employment, assignment of work and insurance against accidents, recommended:

That steps be taken on the part of the community, by planning and organizing work, to counteract unemployment and that support from the side of the Government or municipalities to unemployed laborers in the shape of money—whether this be effected

through insurance or in any other way—should only be rendered to persons unemployed against their will.

That in so far as contributions are made by the Government or by the municipalities, the insurance against unemployment should be organized in such a manner that the public may exercise an effective control with the insurance, especially by establishing a close collaboration between the latter and the public bureau for the assignment of work.

That the assignment of work should take place, to the greatest possible extent, through public offices or offices controlled by the public and which do not carry on the assignment of work as a trade.

The dispatch notes that in a report which was made by the committee in connection with the insurance question it was suggested that laborers who are citizens of one of the five countries be placed on equal footing, with regard to indemnities, with the laborers of any of these five countries in which they may reside.

LABOR BUREAUS.

Department of Labor in Brazil.¹

IN compliance with an act of the National Congress of Brazil conferring specific authority on the President of the Republic to reorganize the public service bureau under the title of the national department of labor, a decree was issued on October 16, 1918, providing as follows:

Among the duties of this branch of the Government service are the following: (a) To prepare and execute all rules and regulations relative to labor in general; (b) to supervise immigration; (c) to supervise colonization, both native and foreign; and (d) to regulate and inspect all matters relating to agricultural interests.

The department is composed of three bureaus: (1) Labor legislation, inspection, and statistics; (2) bureau of colonization and public lands; and (3) bureau of immigration, emigration, administration, agriculture, and accounting for the department. Each bureau is composed of two sections.

The office of superintendent of immigration of the port of Rio de Janeiro is abolished and the duties formerly belonging to that office are transferred to the third bureau of the new department, and the supervision and lodging of immigrants at the Island of Flores shall hereafter be exercised by the chief of that bureau.

The present chiefs of sections in the public service bureau shall be transferred to positions as chiefs of divisions in the new department.

Including the administrative officials, 69 positions are provided. This number may be increased from time to time as the executive may consider it necessary for the good of the service.

All employees receiving a salary exceeding 7,200 milreis² (\$1,980) are appointed by the President of the Republic. Those receiving a salary exceeding 2,400 milreis (\$616) and up to and including 7,200 milreis are certified by the minister, and those receiving 2,400 milreis or less are designated by the director of the department.

The appointment of the director shall be approved by the Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce and also by the Minister of Internal Affairs.

The appropriation for the first year's operation is limited to 508,920 milreis (\$139,953). It is proposed that the department shall publish a quarterly bulletin.³

¹ *Diario Oficial*, Rio de Janeiro, Oct. 29, 1918.

² The figures given are in Brazilian money, the exchange value of which, according to United States Treasury Department Circular No. 1, was 27.5 cents in July 1, 1919, and conversions are made on this basis.

³ See MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1918, p. 241.

CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Work of National War Labor Board for Year Ending May 31, 1919.¹

THE National War Labor Board was created as part of the war machinery of the country and it is passing out of existence as the need for war machinery is passing. Its existence has covered a term of barely 13 months, only one-half of which was a period of active hostilities. During that period the board developed by the force of circumstances into a supreme court of industry. As to its success in such a rôle there can be no reasonable doubt. Over and over again it has demonstrated its effectiveness in adjusting industrial disputes and thereby securing maximum production, when such disputes menaced the success of the war. By the nature of its organization and the character of the principles followed, it has also almost invariably been able to secure adjustment on a basis of right and justice that appealed as such to the judgment of all fair-minded men.

Disposition of Cases.

From April 30, 1918, to May 31, 1919, the date of this report, the board has received 1,270 cases, 25 of which were consolidated with other cases, leaving 1,245 separate controversies which had to be passed upon by the board. Of these 1,245 cases, 706 (57 per cent) have been referred to other agencies having primary jurisdiction or have been dismissed because of voluntary settlement, lack of jurisdiction, or for other reasons; 77 (6 per cent) are pending or remain on the docket as undisposed of because of divided vote or suspension; while in the remaining 462 cases (37 per cent) awards or findings have been handed down. In addition the board made 58 supplementary decisions in cases where action had already been taken, making a total of 520 formal awards or findings. This record within a period of less than 13 months is one which unquestionably has never been approached by any similar agency in the history of industry.

¹ National War Labor Board. Memorandum Report of the Secretary as to the work of the Board for the 12 months ending May 31, 1919. Washington, 1919. 16 pp.

An analysis of the disposition of the 1,245 cases referred to is given in the following table:

Statement showing disposition of cases before the National War Labor Board to May 31, 1919.

Complaints received:	
Joint submissions	193
Ex parte	1,052
Total	1,245
Disposition of cases:	
Awards and findings made	² 462
Dismissed	391
Referred	315
Pending	23
Remaining on docket because board unable to agree	³ 53
Suspended	1
Total	1,245

² Not including 58 supplementary awards, etc., in cases in which action had already been taken.

³ These 53 cases represent actually only 3 case groups, as one of the case groups involves 51 docket numbers.

As to the 315 cases which were received by the board and referred to other boards and agencies having original jurisdiction, the following table shows the number referred to each specified agency:

Number of cases referred to each specified agency.

Department of Labor, Division of Conciliation	164
Department of Labor, Employment Service	1
Railroad Administration, Division of Labor	13
Navy Department	6
Treasury Department	1
Post Office Department	8
Emergency Fleet Corporation, Industrial Relations Division	4
Emergency Fleet Corporation, Labor Adjustment Board	6
War Industries Board	3
War Labor Policies Board	1
Fuel Administration	6
Federal Oil Inspection Board	1
War Department, various divisions	24
War Department, Quartermaster General	8
Army Ordnance, Industrial Relations Section	29
Signal Corps and Aircraft Production Board	20
Board members	10
Officers of international unions	10
Total	315

It will be seen from the foregoing analysis that more than one-half of the complaints referred were sent to the Division of Conciliation of the Department of Labor with the object in view of having the differences adjusted, if possible, without recourse to formal proceedings before the board.

Of the cases removed from the docket of the board without action by formal award or finding, the greater number were dismissed without prejudice because of lack of prosecution or because the board was advised that the parties involved had entered into a formal agreement and no further action by the board was necessary. The following table shows in detail the number of cases removed for each reason specified:

Cases removed from docket for reasons specified.

Lack of jurisdiction.....	93
Lack of agreement.....	11
Lack of prosecution.....	159
Voluntary settlement between parties.....	116
Withdrawal.....	12
Total.....	391

It should be noted that cases removed from the docket required in many instances as careful consideration by the board or its staff as those cases in which formal awards or findings were made.

Analysis of the Work of the Board by Months, May, 1918, to May, 1919.

An interesting insight into the volume of work which might have been developed by the board had not the armistice been signed, is set forth in the following table, which furnishes a review of the work of the board by months during the 13 months ending with May 31, 1919:

Month.	Cases placed on docket.			Awards and findings made.				
	Joint submissions.	Ex-parte.	Total.	Industrial.	Public utilities.	Total.	Supplementary actions.	Total actions.
May to July.....	38	208	246	13	21	34	34
August.....	29	96	125	4	4	4
September.....	39	180	219	8	8	10
October.....	18	133	151	14	12	26	3	29
November.....	24	251	275	17	21	38	3	41
December.....	13	55	68	17	8	25	9	34
January.....	9	78	87	43	12	55	10	65
February.....	3	70	73	35	12	47	6	53
March.....	15	1	16	114	7	121	11	132
April.....	1	4	5	79	9	88	11	99
May.....	4	1	5	15	1	16	3	19
Total.....	193	1,077	1,270	359	103	462	58	520

¹ Including 25 docket numbers consolidated.

The rapid expansion of the work of the board during the period of actual hostilities is at once apparent from an examination of the foregoing table. At the time of the signing of the armistice the board had acted on 455 cases but had made only about 72 formal awards and findings, due to the fact that special attention had been given to

important cases involving the production of large quantities of munitions, ordnance, and essential war materials. After the signing of the armistice a resolution of the board provided that no new cases except joint submissions would be received by the board after December 5, 1918. Altogether there have been received during the six months since the armistice only 423 new cases, as compared with 847 cases entered on the docket during the six months prior to the armistice. During the six months period since the armistice the board has acted on the 375 cases which were pending when the armistice was signed as well as approximately 400 new cases which have been docketed.

Scope of the Board's Awards.

A careful tabulation of the data in the files shows that up to May 22 the awards and findings of the board (excluding 11 for which the information is lacking) directly affected 1,084 establishments employing 669,496 persons, of whom 80,271 were employees of street railways. These numbers, it is to be emphasized, include only those persons who were specified directly in the terms of the decisions. In very many cases the decision was applied in practice to other employees of a plant than those in whose names the controversy was filed.

Of still more importance is the fact that very frequently a decision in regard to one company was accepted by other companies similarly situated. The information on this point is very limited, but it is known that in very many instances controversies were settled voluntarily or by other adjustment agencies on the lines laid down by existing decisions of the board. Thus it is known that the decision of the board in the Bridgeport case was accepted and applied in the plants of the Remington Arms Co. in other places; and that the street railway decisions have been the basis of voluntary adjustment in Philadelphia, Washington, and many other cities.

Indeed, the "principles" of the National War Labor Board as laid down by the conference board and as interpreted by the War Labor Board had a vastly wider influence and acceptance than indicated by any mere numerical statement of the persons directly affected by the decisions of the board. Other governmental adjustment agencies—such as the industrial service section of the Ordnance and other branches of the War Department, as well as the labor adjustment divisions and boards of other procurement divisions of the Government—have used these principles and precedents as a manual in their own adjustment work. Moreover, the conciliators of the Department of Labor, whose work during the war has been of far-reaching importance, averted many difficulties by citing the

principles and precedents of the board to the parties in controversy and working out an adjustment thereunder.

Of special interest, also, is the large number of strikes and lock-outs averted or called off as a direct result of the board's intervention. The exact number is unknown, but the records show at least 138 instances of this character.

Origin of Cases.

The proclamation of the President creating the National War Labor Board conferred upon it jurisdiction in all controversies "in fields of production necessary for the effective conduct of the war, or in other fields of national activity, delays and obstructions in which might, in the opinion of the National Board, affect detrimentally such production."

The jurisdiction, as regards subject matter, thus conferred upon the board was extremely broad, inasmuch as in the reorganization of industry on a war basis there existed very few business activities which did not affect, directly or indirectly, the effective conduct of the war. This is indicated by the fact that the board dismissed fewer than 50 complaints on the ground that war production was not involved.

In practice, however, the jurisdiction of the board was greatly and desirably limited by the further provision of the proclamation that the board should refuse to take cognizance of a controversy "in any field of industrial or other activity where there is by agreement or Federal law a means of settlement which has not been invoked."

This provision excluded from the consideration of the board, except by way of appeal, large groups of cases where the parties concerned had provided by voluntary agreement for other means of arbitration or where Federal law had provided other arbitration agencies. Thus the vast shipbuilding industry had set up by agreement its own Labor Adjustment Board; the Ordnance Department and other producing departments of the Government had provided special industrial service sections to consider the complaints of their employees; and the coal mining industry had its labor conditions controlled by agreement of all parties with the Fuel Administration. In this way, in a number of the most important industries, means of adjustment of disputes had been arranged for, and controversies therein could reach the board only on appeal. The procedure of the board provided, moreover, that appeals would be heard only on the ground that the principles of the President's proclamation had been violated, or that either party to an award had violated it, or to determine questions of jurisdiction as between Government boards. In no case was an appeal permissible on question of fact.

The cases which came to the board on appeal from decisions of other boards were very few. Perhaps the most important of these was the New York Harbor case, which came up on appeal from the New York Harbor Wage Adjustment Board.

A very large number of cases, however, came to the board by way of reference from conciliation agencies—such as the Department of Labor—which had been unable to adjust the matters in controversy. Thus of the 462 cases in which the board made awards and findings almost exactly one-third came by way of reference from other agencies and two-thirds by way of direct complaints to the board. Most of the cases coming by reference were from the Department of Labor, but some of the most important were referred by the War and Navy Departments and had been previously handled by the Industrial Service Sections of these departments. Such were the St. Louis cases, the Bridgeport cases, the Worthington Pump case, the Smith & Wesson case, and the Newark, N. J., machinists' cases.

It is also of interest to note that of the complaints brought directly to the National War Labor Board about 12 per cent were made by employers or employers' associations; the remainder were made either by groups of employees or, in the case of union shops, by their union representatives.

Execution of Awards.

The board was given no legal authority to enforce its decisions. In cases of joint submission the parties had, of course, the right of legal redress as in all cases of violation of contract. Otherwise the execution of the board's decisions depended on the support of public opinion, the support of other governmental agencies, and the obligation laid upon employers and employees by their chosen representatives in the formation of the board and the drafting of its principles.

Particularly during the period of active hostilities the powers of the procurement departments of the Government—such as the War and Navy Departments—were very great, and these powers, as well as the influence of the President himself, were consistently used in support of the awards of this board. The most striking cases of this kind were the Bridgeport and Smith & Wesson cases. In the former the President told the striking employees he would use the Federal Employment Service and other branches of the Government to their disadvantage if they did not accept the board's award. In the Smith & Wesson case the War Department immediately took over the plant of that company when it refused to abide by the board's decision.

The outstanding fact, however, is that, as long as active war was on, the decisions of the board were accepted almost without exception, both in *ex parte* cases and in cases of joint submission. Since

the armistice, and more particularly since the first of the year, the changed industrial conditions, the questioning in some quarters as to the board's authority in the intermediate period between the armistice and the proclamation of peace, and the uncertainty in some minds as to the continued existence of the board, have combined to create a condition when the board's decisions have been less spontaneously accepted.

Hearings by Board and Examiners.

When the number of submissions to the board became so great as to render hearings by examiners necessary, such hearings almost entirely supplanted hearings before board members. In addition to the heavy requirement of considering the testimony secured by examiners the board heard only cases of peculiar difficulty or listened to oral argument in cases in which the testimony had previously been submitted to examiners. In total there have been 488 hearings held by the board members and by examiners, hearings by examiners being 321, or 66 per cent of the total.

The hearings were distributed as follows:

Hearings held before—

Umpires.....	20
Full National War Labor Board.....	59
Recess or standing committee.....	6
Joint chairmen.....	46
Joint chairmen and section.....	2
Double section.....	1
Board and section.....	1
Sections.....	32
Examiners.....	321
Total.....	488

During the months of greatest activity examiners' hearings averaged about 15 per week, and in view of the length of many hearings and their wide separation geographically, this involved the need of some 30 examiners. Usually the hearings were held at the place of controversy. This was done primarily for reasons of economy, as it was much less expensive to send an examiner with necessary assistants to another point than it was to pay the expenses of representatives and witnesses to Washington. The policy adopted was to assign only one examiner to a hearing, except in cases of particular difficulty or complexity; but this policy could not always be observed, owing to the need of breaking in new examiners, a process which could be best accomplished by sending a new man with a more experienced examiner, in order that he might get practical training.

Special Field Representatives.

At the outset of the board's work it was thought that beneficial results might be obtained by having representatives, designated by the employers' and employees' groups, make preliminary investigations of complaints which were brought before the board. It was expected that these special field representatives might be successful in mediating or adjusting differences, or could prepare special reports as to the facts involved for the consideration of the board. Later these special field representatives were instructed to assist the parties to a controversy in preparing their cases for hearings. This procedure, while sound in theory, did not work out satisfactorily in actual practice for the reason that it tended to extend or accentuate the original differences as to which complaints were made. As a consequence, in the procedure as finally adopted by the board the use of special field representatives was discontinued.

Administration of Awards.

The policy of the board has been always to encourage to the greatest possible extent the self-administration of its decisions. In practice, however, even the best drawn awards almost always left room for divergent interpretations. If the differences were small, adjustment could be made by correspondence, but in case of major differences the sending of an examiner as an interpreter and administrator proved to be the only alternative to having the parties bring their difficulties direct to the board. The demand for such service was particularly acute in cases where an award provided for collective bargaining in a plant where collective bargaining had not previously existed. Often the parties in such cases were completely at a loss as to how to begin such a system and imperatively needed counsel with some one familiar with the processes of installing shop-committee systems.

A large number of awards specifically provided that an examiner—or administrator, as he came to be called—should be sent to interpret the award. In addition, a great number of requests for administrators have been received in cases where the award did not specifically provide for the sending of an administrator or where such action was contingent upon a request made by one or both parties. The number of administrators available has never been sufficient to meet all of the requests made. Moreover, the demand for the services of administrators has steadily increased as more and more decisions were rendered by the board, and at present there is a greater demand for such services than at any previous time.

In total, 180 awards and findings have been administered by the Department of Administration of Awards. Administrators have been present in person in 128 cases. The maximum number of administrators at the time of greatest activity was about 25.

The administration of the street railway awards was susceptible of a high degree of standardization. They had a common authorship—all of them were written by the joint chairmen; they related to a single industry of remarkably homogeneous character; and, usually, the employees were highly organized and both parties had been accustomed to collective bargaining.

The industrial awards, on the other hand, presented a bewildering variety of conditions, and have, in many cases, necessitated the installation of elaborate machinery for collective bargaining. A notable instance of this is the Bridgeport case, where over 60 establishments, employing 60,000 persons, were involved. It is of much interest to note that the system of department and works committees established under this award has been accepted by both parties as a permanent institution.

Another striking item in the history of the administrative work was the statement of officials of the Corn Products Refining Co. (Docket No. 130) to the administrator of the board, that the expense of the award to the company, amounting to a million dollars or more, was more than compensated for by the improved classification of occupations worked out by the board and its examiners and by the greater security of industrial relations secured by the award.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

Strikes and Lockouts in the United States, January to March, 1919.

ACCORDING to information received by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 608 strikes and lockouts occurred in this country during the first quarter of the year 1919. Inasmuch as many reports do not reach the bureau until several months after the strikes occur, the number of strikes occurring during the quarter was probably somewhat larger than the above figure would indicate. Complete data relative to these strikes have not been received by the bureau and it has not been possible as yet to verify what have been received. The figures in the following tables should therefore be understood to be only an advance statement and not to be accepted as final.

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS BEGINNING IN EACH MONTH, JANUARY TO MARCH, INCLUSIVE, 1918 AND 1919.

Kind of dispute.	January.	February.	March.	Month not stated.	Total.
Strikes:					
1918.....	180	208	293	56	737
1919.....	172	193	176	43	584
Lockouts:					
1918.....	8	11	11	4	34
1919.....	8	8	4	4	24
Total:					
1918.....	188	219	304	60	771
1919.....	180	201	180	47	608

The figures in the above table indicate a diminution in strike activity each month in 1919 as compared with the corresponding month in 1918.

Probably the strike that attracted the greatest amount of attention during the quarter was that of the marine workers in New York City in January, although the general strike in Tacoma and Seattle in February, involving some 60,000 workers, was the largest. Noteworthy strikes in New York City were those of the furriers in January and rag pickers in March, each involving 10,000 persons; the 35,000 clothing workers in January; the harbor workers in March; and the longshoremen during the same month. Other large strikes were those of the street car men in Milwaukee in January, and in Newark

in March; the textile employees in Passaic in March, and in Philadelphia in January; clothing workers in Philadelphia and Cleveland; fur workers in Chicago and Brooklyn; the fishermen in California; railway clerks in the South; the metal trades in New Orleans; the cigar makers in Porto Rico; and the miners in Pennsylvania and West Virginia.

The data in the following tables relate to the 584 strikes and 24 lockouts reported to have occurred in the three months under consideration. A few strikes that occurred during the quarter but in which the exact month was not stated appear in a group by themselves.

STATES IN WHICH 10 OR MORE STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS WERE REPORTED AS OCCURRING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1919.

State.	January.		February.		March.		Month not stated.		Total.		Grand Total.
	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	
New York.....	34		34	1	43		8		119	1	120
Pennsylvania.....	21		17	1	10		6		54	1	55
Massachusetts.....	6	1	28		11		3		48	1	49
New Jersey.....	13		17		10	1	3		43	1	44
Ohio.....	12	1	8		17	2	2	1	39	4	43
Illinois.....	11		12		14		2		39		39
Washington.....	8		7		5		3		23		23
Connecticut.....	8		3		9				20		20
California.....	2		5		7	1	1		15	1	16
Georgia.....	2	1	5	2	5				12	3	15
Texas.....	3		5	2			4		12	2	14
Indiana.....	5	2			2		3	1	10	3	13
Montana.....	1		7		3		1		12		12
Wisconsin.....	5	1	2	1	3				10	2	12
Missouri.....	5		3	1	2				10	1	11
Rhode Island.....	1		8				1		10		10
27 other States and Territories.....	35	2	32		35		6	2	108	4	112
Total.....	172	8	193	8	176	4	43	4	584	24	608

Of these disputes 434 strikes and 13 lockouts occurred east of the Mississippi and north of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers; 98 strikes and 7 lockouts occurred west of the Mississippi, and the remaining 52 strikes and 4 lockouts south of the Ohio and Potomac Rivers and east of the Mississippi.

As to cities, New York City had the largest number of disturbances—85; followed by Chicago with 20; Philadelphia with 18; Seattle with 13; Boston with 12; and Cleveland with 11.

As to sex, the distribution was as follows: Males, 406 strikes and 19 lockouts; females, 47 strikes and 1 lockout; both sexes, 69 strikes; sex not reported, 62 strikes and 4 lockouts.

The industries in which nine or more strikes and lockouts were reported are shown in the table which follows:

NUMBER OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIES REPORTED AS OCCURRING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1919.

Industry or occupation.	January.		February.		March.		Month not stated.		Total.		Grand total.
	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	
Metal trades.....	45	3	25	2	35	4	5	2	110	11	121
Clothing.....	21	2	27	1	33	3	84	3	87
Building trades.....	16	1	18	2	15	13	1	62	4	66
Textiles.....	4	37	2	13	4	58	2	60
Shipbuilding.....	11	15	3	1	30	30
Miners.....	12	1	3	5	1	21	1	22
Food handlers.....	2	6	6	14	14
Paper makers.....	6	4	3	13	13
Street railways.....	3	8	1	12	12
Railroads.....	2	2	7	11	11
Teamsters.....	5	3	1	1	10	10
Longshoremen.....	5	2	3	10	10
Iron and steel.....	2	3	2	2	1	9	1	10
Printing and publishing.....	4	1	4	9	9
Waiters, cooks, and bartenders.....	2	2	4	1	9	9
Miscellaneous.....	8	8	9	4	29	29
Not reported.....	30	1	27	1	31	5	93	2	95
Total.....	172	8	193	8	176	4	43	4	584	24	608

Included in the above are 13 strikes and 1 lockout of carpenters, 7 strikes and 1 lockout of painters, 8 strikes and 2 lockouts of blacksmiths, 40 strikes and 4 lockouts of machinists, 47 strikes and 3 lockouts of molders, and 14 strikes and 1 lockout of shoemakers.

In 328 strikes and 13 lockouts the employees were reported as connected with unions; in 20 strikes they were not so connected; in 236 strikes and 11 lockouts the question of union affiliation was not reported.

In 383 strikes and 16 lockouts only one employer was concerned in each disturbance; in 15 strikes, 2 employers; in 12 strikes, 3 employers; in 5 strikes, 4 employers; in 3 strikes and 1 lockout, 5 employers; in 102 strikes and 5 lockouts, more than 5; in 64 strikes and 2 lockouts the number was not reported.

In the 313 strikes for which the number of persons on strike was reported there were 809,882 strikers, an average of 2,587 per strike. In 75 strikes, in each of which the number involved was 1,000 or more, the strikers numbered 761,151, thus leaving 48,731 involved in the remaining 238 strikes, or an average of 205 each. By months, the figures are as follows: January, 182,846 strikers in 99 strikes, average 1,847, of whom 13,215 were in 79 strikes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 167; February, 510,498 strikers in 108 strikes, average 4,727, of whom 17,278 were in 74 strikes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 233; March, 111,621 strikers, in 89 strikes, average 1,254, of whom 13,321 were in 69 strikes of less than 1,000 persons each, average 193. In 13 lockouts the number reported to have been involved was 4,429, averaging 341 persons each.

The following table shows the causes of the strikes and lockouts in so far as reported. In about two-thirds of the disturbances the question of wages or hours was prominent and in fully one-fourth the question of union recognition or existence was involved.

PRINCIPAL CAUSES OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS REPORTED AS OCCURRING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1919.

Cause.	January.		February.		March.		Month not reported.		Total		Grand total.
	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Strikes.	Lockouts.	Strikes.	Lockouts.	
For increase in wages.....	41	1	37	2	39	8	1	125	4	129
Because of decrease in wages.....	10	14	12	1	37	37
Nonpayment of wages.....	1	1	2	2
Increase of hours.....	1	1	1
For decrease of hours.....	7	18	1	7	1	1	33	2	35
For increase of wages and decrease of hours.....	20	26	20	2	68	68
Recognition and wages.....	13	4	11	19	1	2	45	5	50
Recognition and hours.....	3	1	1	6	10	1	11
Recognition, wages and hours.....	2	3	5	5
Recognition and conditions.....	4	5	7	16	16
General conditions.....	1	2	2	2
Conditions and wages.....	3	5	9	9
Conditions, wages and hours.....	2	2	2
Employees discharged.....	1	1	1
For discharge of objectionable persons.....	7	9	12	1	29	29
Nonunion men.....	5	7	12	12
Relative to agreement.....	6	6	12	12
For a new agreement.....	1	1	3	3	3
Sympathy.....	8	11	2	4	4
Jurisdiction.....	2	1	21	21
Miscellaneous.....	2	3	3
Not reported.....	9	4	5	1	19	19
Total.....	40	2	36	5	22	2	27	3	125	12	137
Total.....	172	8	193	8	176	4	43	4	584	24	608

It is frequently difficult to state exactly when a strike terminates, since many strikes end without any formal vote on the part of the strikers. The following figures relate to such strikes and lockouts as the bureau has been advised actually terminated during the quarter, 254 in number; 74 strikes and 1 lockout in January, 94 strikes and 3 lockouts in February, 75 strikes and 5 lockouts in March, and 2 strikes in a month not stated. Disputes terminating in favor of the employers numbered 64: 13 strikes in January, 22 strikes in February, and 29 strikes in March. Disputes terminating in favor of the employees numbered 37: 16 strikes in January, 12 strikes in February, and 7 strikes and 2 lockouts in March. Disputes compromised numbered 55: 20 strikes in January, 16 strikes in February, 17 strikes and 1 lockout in March, and 1 strike in a month not stated. In 26 strikes and 2 lockouts, the employees returned to work under promise of the employer to arbitrate the matter in dispute: 14 strikes in January, 7 strikes and 1 lockout in February, 4 strikes and 1 lockout in March, and 1 strike in a month not stated. In the

remaining 66 strikes and 4 lockouts the result was not reported. In 6 strikes the positions of the strikers were filled with practically no interruption in the work. In 7 strikes, union officials repudiated the action of the men in striking.

In the table which follows the duration of 153 strikes and 4 lockouts is given. Besides these there were 45 strikes for which the statement was made that the duration was short, and 47 strikes and 5 lockouts for which the duration was not reported.

DURATION OF STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS REPORTED AS ENDING DURING THE FIRST QUARTER OF 1919.

Period.	January.		February.		March.		Total.		Grand total.
	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	Strikes.	Lock-outs.	
1 day or less.....	7	4	3	14	14
2 days.....	1	2	2	5	5
3 days.....	5	6	2	13	13
4 days.....	3	4	7	7
5 to 7 days.....	1	2	1	4	4
1 to 2 weeks.....	4	11	1	4	19	1	20
2 to 3 weeks.....	5	4	1	10	10
3 to 4 weeks.....	3	1	9	1	13	1	14
1 to 3 months.....	14	16	25	2	55	2	57
Over 3 months.....	6	2	5	13	13
Total.....	49	48	1	56	3	153	4	157

The number of days lost in strikes ending during the quarter was 5,696. The average duration of these strikes was about 37 days. The average duration of strikes lasting less than 90 days was 26 days. By months the record is as follows: January, days lost, 1,889, average 39 days; February, days lost, 1,559, average 32 days; March, days lost, 2,248, average 40 days. In the case of strikes lasting less than 90 days, the average duration was 24 days in January, 23 in February, and 29 in March. In the 4 lockouts 113 days were lost.

IMMIGRATION..

Immigration in May, 1919.

THE following tables, prepared by the Bureau of Immigration of the Department of Labor, show the total number of immigrant aliens admitted into the United States in each month from January, 1913, to May, 1919, and the numbers admitted in each fiscal year, 1915 to 1918, and in May, 1919, by nationality. The total departures of emigrant aliens in May, 1919, numbered 17,800.

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED INTO THE UNITED STATES IN SPECIFIED MONTHS
JANUARY, 1913, TO MAY, 1919.

Month.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	
							Number.	Per cent increase over preceding month.
January.....	46,441	44,708	15,481	17,293	24,745	6,356	9,852	18.3
February.....	59,156	46,873	13,873	24,710	19,238	7,388	10,586	7.5
March.....	96,958	92,621	19,263	27,586	15,512	6,510	14,105	33.2
April.....	136,371	119,885	24,532	30,560	20,523	9,541	16,860	19.5
May.....	137,262	107,796	26,069	31,021	10,487	15,217	15,093	110.5
June.....	176,261	71,728	22,598	30,764	11,095	14,247
July.....	138,244	60,377	21,504	25,035	9,367	7,780
August.....	126,180	37,706	21,949	29,975	10,047	7,862
September.....	136,247	29,143	24,513	36,398	9,228	9,997
October.....	134,440	30,416	25,450	37,056	9,284	11,771
November.....	104,671	26,298	24,545	34,437	6,446	8,499
December.....	95,387	20,944	18,901	30,902	6,987	10,748

¹ Decrease.

Classified by nationality, the number of immigrant aliens admitted into the United States during specified periods and in May, 1919, was as follows:

IMMIGRANT ALIENS ADMITTED INTO THE UNITED STATES DURING SPECIFIED PERIODS AND IN MAY, 1919, BY NATIONALITY.

Nationality.	Year ending June 30—				May, 1919.
	1915	1916	1917	1918	
African (black).....	5,660	4,576	7,971	5,706	587
Armenian.....	932	964	1,221	221	53
Bohemian and Moravian.....	1,651	642	327	74	14
Bulgarian, Serbian, Montenegrin.....	3,506	3,146	1,134	150	14
Chinese.....	2,469	2,239	1,843	1,576	86
Croatian and Slovenian.....	1,912	791	305	33	2
Cuban.....	3,462	3,442	3,428	1,179	154
Dalmatian, Bosnian, Herzegovinian.....	305	114	94	15
Dutch and Flemish.....	6,675	6,433	5,393	2,200	251
East Indian.....	82	80	69	61	4
English.....	38,062	36,168	32,246	12,980	2,927
Finnish.....	3,472	5,649	5,900	1,867	86
French.....	12,636	19,518	24,405	6,840	1,440
German.....	20,729	11,555	9,682	1,992	246
Greek.....	15,187	26,792	25,919	2,002	62
Hebrew.....	26,497	15,108	17,342	3,672	280
Irish.....	23,503	20,636	17,462	4,657	848
Italian (north).....	10,660	4,905	3,796	1,074	145
Italian (south).....	46,557	33,969	35,154	5,234	196
Japanese.....	8,669	8,711	8,925	10,168	1,138
Korean.....	146	154	194	149	7
Lithuanian.....	2,638	599	479	135	14
Magyar.....	3,604	981	434	32	3
Mexican.....	10,993	17,198	16,438	17,602	3,276
Pacific Islander.....	6	5	10	17	1
Polish.....	9,065	4,502	3,109	668	93
Portuguese.....	4,376	12,208	10,194	2,319	71
Roumanian.....	1,200	953	522	155	5
Russian.....	4,459	4,858	3,711	1,513	133
Ruthenian (Russniak).....	2,933	1,365	1,211	49	18
Scandinavian.....	24,263	19,172	19,596	8,741	789
Scotch.....	14,310	13,515	13,350	5,204	1,176
Slovak.....	2,069	577	244	35	5
Spanish.....	5,705	9,259	15,019	7,909	333
Spanish-American.....	1,667	1,881	2,587	2,231	352
Syrian.....	1,767	676	976	210	27
Turkish.....	273	216	454	24	5
Welsh.....	1,390	983	793	778	71
West Indian (except Cuban).....	823	948	1,369	732	158
Other peoples.....	1,877	3,388	2,697	314	23
Total.....	326,700	298,826	295,403	110,618	15,093

Italian Emigration during 1914 and 1915.

DETAILED statistics of Italian emigration have been published by the Italian Central Statistical Office (*Ufficio Centrale di Statistica*) since 1876. The data for these statistics are furnished to the statistical office by the district police authorities, who compile them from the register of passports kept by them. The latest statistics published¹ deal with the emigration movement during 1914 and 1915. A brief digest of the most important data for these two years is given below. The following table shows the general movement of Italian emigration since 1900.

¹ Italy. Ufficio Centrale di Statistica. *Statistica della emigrazione Italiana per l'Estero negli anni 1914 e 1915.* Rome, 1918. XXVIII, 213 pp.

ITALIAN EMIGRATION DURING THE YEARS, 1900, 1905, AND 1910 TO 1915.

Year.	Number of emigrants to—		
	European and Mediterranean countries.	Transatlantic countries.	Total.
1900.....	186,279	166,503	352,782
1905.....	279,248	447,083	726,331
1910.....	248,696	402,779	651,475
1911.....	271,065	282,779	553,844
1912.....	308,140	403,306	711,446
1913.....	313,032	559,566	872,598
1914.....	245,938	233,214	479,152
1915.....	79,502	66,517	146,019

According to the foregoing table Italian emigration reached its highest point in 1913, with a total of 872,598 emigrants. Owing to the outbreak of the war, it fell in 1914 to 479,152 little more than half the total of 1913, and in 1915 it fell to 146,019, the lowest total since 1881 (135,832). As in preceding years, so also in 1914 and 1915, the majority of the emigrants from the northern provinces of Italy went to European and Mediterranean countries, while about 90 per cent of the emigrants from the southern provinces went to transatlantic countries. In 1914 the emigrants going to European and Mediterranean countries formed 0.686 per cent of the total estimated population (35,858,951) of the Italian Kingdom, those going to transatlantic countries formed 0.65 per cent, and the total number of emigrants 1.336 per cent. The corresponding percentages for 1915 were 0.219, 0.183, and 0.402.

As is the case in all other countries, the male emigrants greatly outnumber the female emigrants. In 1914 of every 100 Italian emigrants 80.38 were males and 19.62 females, the corresponding figures for 1915 being 62.71 and 37.29, respectively. The falling off in 1915 of the percentage of male emigrants is, of course, due to the war. Of the total number of emigrants in 1914, 57,781 (12.06 per cent) were children under 15 years of age, while in 1915 the number of child emigrants was 27,956 (19.15 per cent). In the following table the Italian emigrants of 1914 and 1915 are classified according to their occupations:

ITALIAN EMIGRANTS OVER 15 YEARS OF AGE CLASSIFIED BY OCCUPATION, 1914 AND 1915.

Occupation.	Emigrants.			
	Number		Per cent.	
	1914	1915	1914	1915
Agriculturists, woodsmen, herders.....	119,137	22,152	28.27	18.76
Brick and stone masons and helpers, kiln workers, etc.....	61,140	8,952	14.51	7.53
Day laborers on construction and excavation work.....	124,155	18,098	29.46	15.33
Other industrial workers.....	58,489	31,587	13.88	26.76
Workers in restaurants, cafés, hotels, bakers, fruit vendors, etc.....	4,783	1,091	1.14	.92
Commerce and transportation.....	8,119	8,380	1.93	7.10
Physicians, pharmacists, midwives, lawyers, engineers, teachers.....	2,301	1,567	.55	1.33
Painters, sculptors, draftsmen, engravers, photographers.....	1,073	558	.25	.47
Actors, singers, musicians, etc.....	1,607	949	.38	.80
Domestic servants.....	11,856	1,776	2.81	1.50
Housewives.....	19,403	19,322	4.61	16.37
Miscellaneous.....	6,662	1,946	1.58	1.65
Not specified.....	2,646	1,685	.63	1.43
Total.....	421,371	118,063	100.00	100.00

The foregoing table shows that owing to the war there was a very considerable decrease in the proportion of emigrants who by occupation were agriculturists, woodsmen, masons, and building and construction workers, and who once formed the bulk of the emigrants, while other occupations, especially that of housewife, are represented in a greatly increased proportion.

The data relating to the destination of the emigrants show that in 1914 a total of 167,481, or 34.95 per cent of the entire Italian emigration, came to the United States and that in 1915 the corresponding figures were 51,720, or 35.42 per cent.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official—United States.

CALIFORNIA.—*Industrial Accident Commission. Report on special investigations of serious permanent injuries, from January 1, 1914, to June 30, 1918. Sacramento, 1919. 15 pp.*

This report was reviewed on pages 247 to 253 of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for June, 1919.

COLORADO.—*Bureau of Mines. Fifteenth Biennial Report for the years 1917 and 1918. Denver, 1919. 206 pp. Charts.*

The report notes that in 1918 there were 1,384 accidents, 47 of which were fatal, 628 serious (time lost over 14 days), and 709 slight (time lost 1 to 14 days), with a total of 35,708 days lost. In 1917 there occurred a total of 1,780 accidents, 56 of which were fatal, 703 serious (time lost over 14 days), and 1,021 slight (time lost 1 to 14 days), with a total of 37,436 days lost. Considering the great number of inexperienced men employed in 1918 the accident record for that year is said to be a good one. The decrease in the number of slight accidents reported is said to be due to the growing disposition of employers to take advantage of the 10-day period allowed for the reporting of accidents. If the injured man makes a complete recovery during the time allowed the accident is not reported to the industrial commission.

The tables show that the chief hazards in mining are falls of ground and falls of persons. At mills, placers, and quarries falls of persons and falling objects cause most of the accidents. At smelters the haulage system and falls of persons are the causes of the most serious accidents.

CONNECTICUT.—*Commission on Public Welfare. Report. Hartford, 1919. 136 pp.*

This report is noted on pages 224 to 227 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

INDIANA.—*Industrial Board. Report for year ending Sept. 30, 1918. Indianapolis, 1919, 64 pp.*

The report of the Industrial Board includes the report of the Department of Mines and Mining, which shows a coal production for the year ending September 30, 1918, of 28,795,682 short tons. This coal was secured from 239 mines employing 27,932 workmen whose average annual earnings were \$1,424.06. During the year there were 114 fatal accidents, 106 to persons employed in the mines, and 8 to persons employed on the surface; this gives a rate of 4.08 persons killed per 1,000 employed. These figures show a big increase over 1917, when the fatalities numbered 66 and the death rate was 2.75. There was one fatality for each 292,067 tons of coal mined. This high fatality in 1918 is attributed to the increased tonnage and the increased number of days the miners were exposed to dangers in the mines, and also to the inexperience of a large number of the men employed. Besides the fatal accidents there were 391 accidents causing serious, 1,085 causing minor, and 1 causing permanent injuries. The department recommends the enactment of a number of measures that would secure greater safety for the workmen.

The report gives a list of industrial accidents classified as to industry, cause of injury, nature of injury, wage, age, and duration of disability. The number of such accidents shows a decrease of 12.8 per cent from the previous year. Of the accidents reported 373 were fatal. Classified as to industry the largest number of accidents were:

Automobile manufacturing, 2,196; iron and steel industry, 3,446; machinery and machine shops, 2,831; steam railroads, 3,734. The principal causes of injury were: Caught between objects, 3,572; hot substances, 1,382; hit by fall of objects, 6,875; dropping and handling, 3,114; striking against sharp edges, 2,436; flying objects, 3,221.

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Board of Education. Department of University Extension. English for American citizenship. Suggested plans through which industry can assist in promoting good citizenship. Boston, July, 1918. 12 pp. Bulletin. Vol. 3, No. 4. Whole No. 16.*

— — — *The Federal-State program for immigrant education. (Reprint.) Boston, January, 1919. 20 pp. Bulletin. Vol. 4, No. 1. Whole No. 19.*

— *Bureau of Statistics. Statistics of labor organizations in Massachusetts, 1916 and 1917. November 1, 1918. Boston, 1919. 54 pp. Labor Bulletin No. 126. (Being Part 4 of the annual report on the statistics of labor for 1918.)*

Contains data on the number and the membership of labor organizations in Massachusetts at the close of 1916 and 1917, and on the unemployment of organized workmen. According to the report there were 1,460 local unions in the State in 1917, as compared with 1,416 in 1916. Of these, 308 were in Boston, an increase of 15 over 1916. The total membership in the State is given as 277,720, an increase of 20,713, or 8.1 per cent, over 1916. Of the total membership, 238,846 were males and 38,874 females. The male membership shows an increase of 13,151, or 5.8 per cent, and the female membership an increase of 7,562, or 24.2 per cent, over 1916. The membership in Boston is given as 105,779, an increase of 5,257 over 1916.

The report states that the number of unemployed at the close of 1917 was 14,900 or 7.4 per cent of the membership of the unions reporting, as compared with 10,313, or 6 per cent, at the close of 1916. Of this number 7,131 were idle owing to lack of work. The percentages unemployed for all causes in the six leading industries were as follows: Building trades, 18.5; boot and shoe manufacturing, 4.4; textiles, 3.1; transportation, steam and electric, 3.4; iron and steel manufacturing, 3.6; printing and allied trades, 3.0.

— *State Board of Conciliation and Arbitration. Annual report for the year ending December 31, 1918. Boston, 1919. 98 pp. Public document No. 40.*

In 1918 this board made 119 arbitration awards in response to 163 joint applications of employers and employees for its services. Thirty-nine of the cases jointly submitted were settled by the parties through the board's advice; two applications were withdrawn and three remained pending at the end of the year. Fifty-nine applications were made for normality certificates (determining as normal the condition of business concerns having a history of labor trouble); 3 of these were withdrawn, 2 were dismissed, and 54 certificates were issued. The board assisted in bringing about a settlement by mediation in 163 cases not jointly submitted. The total number of cases receiving the attention of the board during the year was 385.

NEVADA.—*Laws, statutes, etc. Statutes, passed at the twenty-ninth session of the legislature, 1919. Carson City, 1919. 637 pp.*

NEW JERSEY.—*Department of Labor. Bureau of Industrial Statistics. The industrial directory of New Jersey. Cities, towns, and villages having a population of 100 and over, with their respective populations, railroads, banking, express and postal facilities; also alphabetically arranged list of articles manufactured in New Jersey, with names of firms and location of factories, cities and towns offering special industrial opportunities. (Revised every third year; next issue, 1921.) Trenton, 1918. 882 pp. Map.*

NEW YORK.—*Reconstruction Commission. Preliminary report on demobilization, War Department regulations, and unemployment in New York City. April 7, 1919. Albany, 1919. 6 pp.*

A preliminary report on the relation of demobilization to unemployment in New York State, the study of which had its origin in the published estimates of employment workers in New York City that 25 to 30 per cent of the soldiers applying for

jobs had never before lived or worked in that city. Figures gathered in February by placement agencies indicate that this is true of less than 2 per cent of all discharged soldiers registered for work. It is suggested, however, that the passage through the city of men resident up-State or in Connecticut or Rhode Island may result in an undue proportion remaining in the metropolis, so current watch will be kept of the situation and requests will be made to the War Department for the establishment of subdemobilization points if the unemployment situation warrants.

NEW YORK.—*Reconstruction Commission. Report on business readjustment and unemployment. April 14, 1919. Albany, 1919. 21 pp.*

A summary of the replies to various questionnaires sent out by the commission in order to substantiate estimates of the trend of business. The report deals principally with the building trades and public improvements, but to some extent with industry in general which would be favorably affected by a stimulation of public works. The rise in the prevailing rates of wages in the several building trades in New York City is indicated in the following table taken from the report:

PREVAILING RATES OF WAGES¹ IN THE BUILDING TRADES, NEW YORK CITY, 1915 TO 1919.

Occupation.	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919
Bricklayer.....	\$6.00	\$6.00	\$6.00	\$7.00	\$7.00
Carpenter.....	5.00	5.00	5.50	² 6.00	² 6.00
Plumber.....	5.50	5.50	6.00	6.00	6.00
Steamfitter.....	5.50	5.50	6.00	6.00	6.00
Plasterer.....	5.50	6.00	6.00	6.00	7.50
Painter.....	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.50	² 7.00
Tinsmith.....	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Filesetter.....	5.50	5.50	6.00	6.25	6.50
Cement mason.....	5.00	5.00	5.60	5.60	5.60
Metallic lather.....	5.30	5.50	5.50	6.00	6.00
Structural iron worker.....	5.30	5.30	5.30	6.40	7.00
Waterproof worker.....	4.50	4.50	4.50	4.50	5.00
Elevator constructor.....	5.20	5.23	5.52	6.80	6.80
Electrician.....	4.80	4.80	5.20	6.00	6.00

¹ This does not take into consideration the high rates, overtime, and piece rates paid on war construction work.

² Independent builders, \$6.50.

— — — *Report on public improvements in progress, not started, and contemplated, county roads and town highways. April 14, 1919, 23 pp. Cities. April 14, 1919, 28 pp. Albany, 1919. 2 pamphlets.*

Tabulations of the figures of city and of road and highway improvements in New York State, in progress or contemplated, by location, character, finances, date, and nature of contract.

— — — *Report on the housing emergency in New York City, May 10, 1919. 4 typewritten pages. Report in re relief for housing shortage. June 2, 1919. 2 typewritten pages.*

The first of these reports gives briefly the results of the commission's investigation of housing conditions in New York City, which consisted of the detailed examination of 34 square blocks in various sections of Manhattan, Bronx, and Brooklyn, covering approximately 35,000 apartments, which house at least 175,000 persons. Rents in a certain block containing over 850 apartments were found to have increased from 15 to 25 per cent. In innumerable cases rents under lessees were higher than under owners.

The rising rents are said to be only a symptom, the disease being actual shortage of houses. The only way to meet the situation, the committee states, is to begin building at once, as the scarcity of houses next winter probably will result in labor

being turned away from the city, to the injury of business, industry, and prestige. Furthermore, the cost of building is not likely to decrease greatly for some years.

The second report recommends immediate Congressional legislation exempting from Federal income tax, mortgage securities upon real property not used in the operation of public utilities and bonds of the State land banks, investments now less attractive than are Government, State, and municipal securities free from taxation.

NEW YORK.—*Reconstruction Commission. Committee on education. Report in the matter of Americanization, May 14, 1919. Albany, 1919. 7 pp.*

Recommends the increase, as far as the financial condition of the State will permit, of the funds of the New York State Department for Americanization; the enactment of a bill establishing continuation schools for boys and girls at work under 18 years of age, whether illiterate or not; and the authorization and development of lectures and stated courses in American institutions and ideals, the use therein of the foreign tongue to be allowed and even encouraged in order to reach the non-English-speaking. The executive committee substituted the following recommendation for one submitted by the committee on education: As for persons over 18 years of age who are unable to read and write the English language, some form of compulsion to acquire the language should be provided.

OHIO.—*Council of National Defense. Constructive program for Americanization in Ohio. Report, prepared at request of the Joint Committee on German Propaganda of the 83d General Assembly. Columbus, 1919. 24 pp.*

Among other things the committee recommends, in order to eliminate the conditions responsible for German propoganda during the war, that all non-English-speaking and illiterate minors be required to attend school, and that instruction in citizenship and American Government be given.

RHODE ISLAND.—*Factory inspector. Twenty-fifth annual report, 1918. Providence, 1919. 78 pp.*

During 1918, 6,782 establishments were inspected, of which 2,705 employed five or more persons. The whole number of employees was 187,259, of whom 8,313, or 4.4 per cent, were children under 16 years of age. The report shows a decrease of 5,143, or 4.2 per cent, in the number of men employed, an increase of 4,171, or 7.2 per cent, in the number of women employed, and an increase of 1,066, or 14.7 per cent, in the number of children employed. Of the 2,933 accidents reported during the year, 38 were fatal. Of these accidents, 922, including 12 which were fatal, were caused by machinery.

UNITED STATES—*Congress. Statutes of the United States of America, passed at the third session of the sixty-fifth Congress, 1918-1919, and concurrent resolutions of the two houses of Congress, recent treaties, and Executive proclamations. Amendment to the Constitution. In two parts. Part I: Public acts and resolutions. Washington, 1919. 1051-1353, lxxix pp.*

— — — *House. Committee on Education. Extending use of special fund for vocational education. Hearing on S. 5038, January 24, 1919. Washington, 1919. 10 pp. 65th Congress, 3d session.*

— — — *To promote the education of native illiterates, of persons unable to understand and use the English language, and of other resident persons of foreign birth. Hearing on H. R. 15402. Two parts, February 14, 15, 1919. Washington, 1919. 72 pp. 65th Congress, 3d session.*

— — — *Senate. Committee on the Judiciary. Bolshevik propoganda. Hearings pursuant to S. Res. 439 and 469, February 11, 1919, to March 10, 1919. Washington, 1919. 1265 pp. 65th Congress, 3d session.*

— *Department of Agriculture. Yearbook, 1918. Washington, 1919. 760 pp.*

A practical article on housing the worker on the farm is found on pages 347-356 of this issue of the agricultural yearbook. There are pictures and plans and two examples of model arrangements of cottage grounds.

UNITED STATES—Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. *Statistical abstract, 1918. Forty-first number. Washington, 1919. 881 pp. Price, 50 cents.*

This section on "Occupations, labor, and wages" contains tables showing the following: Population 10 years of age and upward engaged in gainful occupations, census year 1910, by sex and specified occupations; Strikes in coal mines; Wage earners in manufactures, 1914, by months, industries, and geographical divisions; Wages and hours of labor, relative hours per week, relative rates of wages per hour, and relative rates of wages per week, computed from union scales, 1913 to 1918, by industries; Wages of hired farm labor; and the number of men employed in mining and metallurgical industries, 1915 to 1917, and in anthracite and bituminous coal mines.

— *Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education. The American spirit in education, by C. R. Mann. Washington, 1919. 63 pp. Bulletin No. 30.*

This publication traces briefly from Colonial times through the European war period the gradual adaptation of American education to the needs of American life. The subject is treated under the following chapter headings: Benjamin Franklin, the prophet of American education; The apprentice days; Journeyman's estate; Industrial reorganization; The foundation of technical education; The development of technical education; and The future of American education.

— — — *A half-time mill school, by H. W. Foght, specialist on rural school practice. Washington, 1919. 23 pp. Bulletin, No. 6.*

The report states that "there are now about 1,025 textile mills scattered over 12 Southern States. These mills employ many thousands of operatives, and around them have sprung up villages or city suburbs, as the case may be, where the wives and children and relatives of these operatives dwell. All together this comprises the population of hundreds of thousands of persons." The report considers the southern mill problem in general, and then outlines the work of the Textile Industrial Institute, which was founded in 1911, in the environs of Spartanburg, S. C., the purpose of which is "to find, train, Christianize, and prepare leaders for the 500,000 cotton-mill population in the South." The school is on a half-time basis, one week being devoted entirely to work in the mills and the next to study and recitation. The report finds that "the average mill school at its best can do little more than provide a fair degree of instruction in the rudiments of an elementary school education for the youngest children," and concludes that the mill-town schools require special treatment for the following reasons:

- (1) Because of people's general illiteracy and their want of education traditions;
- (2) because their poverty requires them to get to work in the mills as early as the law will permit; and
- (3) because most of them have recently been transplanted from agricultural to industrial life. These people need an education preparing them specifically for the broadest social efficiency and for the industrial occupations peculiar to southern cotton spinning. To this end it would be well to recommend: (1) Special State legislation in each of the Southern States where this problem is acute, with provisions for the careful organization, administration, and supervision of the mill schools in charge of special State officers working under the several State departments;
- (2) encouragement of the part-time school, which has already been successfully demonstrated in the Textile Industrial Institute at Spartanburg;
- (3) provision for the establishment of such part-time schools as public schools, considered as part of the public-school system;
- (4) organization of these schools to meet the requirements of the Smith-Hughes Act for Federal aid to schools of this type;
- (5) special provision for the establishment of continuation-school classes for the adult operatives under State and Federal cooperation.

— — — *Vocational education, by William T. Bawden. Washington, 1919. 30 pp. Bulletin No. 25. (Advance sheets from the biennial survey of education in the United States, 1916-1918.)*

A review of the progress in vocational education in the United States during the last two years—

UNITED STATES—Department of the Interior. Bureau of Mines. *Bibliography of petroleum and allied substances in 1916*, by E. H. Burroughs. Washington, 1919. 159 pp. Bulletin 165.

— — — *Vitiation of garage air by automobile exhaust gases*. Washington, 1919. 12 pp. Technical paper 216.

Sets forth the harmful effects of the expulsion of carbon monoxide gas from the exhaust of automobile engines in poorly ventilated garages, and explains the method of resuscitating a person who has been overcome by the gas.

— Department of Labor. *Report of the Secretary of Labor and reports of bureaus*, 1918. Washington, 1919. 745 pp.

The report of the Secretary of Labor was noted in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for February, 1919 (pp. 280, 281).

— Children's Bureau. *Maternity care and the welfare of young children in a homesteading county in Montana*, by Viola I. Paradise. Washington, 1919. 93 pp. Bureau publication No. 34. Rural child welfare series No. 3.

The Montana survey, made in 1917, was the fourth of a series of rural surveys. Most of the information was obtained by the agents through personal interviews with the mothers of the county.

— Housing Corporation. Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation. *Selected bibliography of industrial housing in America and Great Britain during and after the war*. Washington, 1919. xix pp. (Reprint from Report of Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation, United States Housing Corporation.)

Represents primarily published material in the reference library of the Housing Corporation, the library of the Department of Labor, the Library of Congress, and the Library School of the University of Wisconsin. About 250 references have been selected from a thousand or more articles which appeared prior to April 15, 1919. Does not include references on rural housing.

— Federal Board for Vocational Education. *Bee keeping*. Washington, April, 1919. 31 pp. Opportunity monograph, vocational rehabilitation series No. 37.

— Farm mechanics, from tank or truck to tractor. Washington, May, 1919. 20 pp. Opportunity monograph, vocational rehabilitation series No. 38.

— The Federal civil service as a career. Washington, April, 1919. 27 pp. Opportunity monograph, vocational rehabilitation series No. 39.

— The garment trades: Tailoring, designing, sample making, cutting, machine operating, hand sewing, examining. Washington, May, 1919. 14 pp. Opportunity monograph, vocational rehabilitation series No. 35.

— Publications. Washington, February, 1919. 23 pp.

An annotated list of the publications of the board since its organization in July, 1917.

— Show card writing. Washington, May, 1919. 11 pp. Opportunity monograph, vocational rehabilitation series No. 38.

— Interstate Commerce Commission. Bureau of Statistics. *Collisions, derailments, and other accidents resulting in injury to persons, equipment or roadbed, arising from the operation of railways used in interstate commerce*. July, August, and September, 1918. Washington, 1919. 32 pp. Accident bulletin No. 69.

— Treasury Department. Public Health Service. *Public Health Reports*, vol. 34, No. 22. Washington, May 30, 1919. Pp. 1171-1241.

Contains an article (pp. 1171-1187) on The dust hazard in the abrasive industry, by C. E. A. Winslow, consultant in industrial hygiene, and Leonard Greenburg and David Greenberg, scientific assistants, United States Public Health Service, which gives the results of careful studies of conditions in two large factories where abrasive materials are manufactured. In the first factory studied, carborundum wheels and aloxite wheels are made and shaved on smooth-on lathes. In the mixing of materials and in shaving and lathing, considerable dust is produced. An examination of the exhaust system in use showed it to be defective in many respects, and the analyses of samples of air taken in various positions near the operators showed that large quantities of dust were being inhaled, little attempt being made to protect the workers. In the second factory, which made and shipped crude abrasive material (alundum),

analyses of samples of air taken from different parts of the factory showed that great quantities of dust were caused by the operations of crushing, grinding, and handling materials. Tables are given showing the effect of dust exposure on the tuberculous death rate, and other tables show in considerable detail the quantity and nature of the dust in the factories studied, as shown by the analyses made. Suggestions are made for protecting the workers from the dust hazard.

UNITED STATES—*Treasury Department. Public Health Service. Studies of the medical and surgical care of industrial workers, by C. D. Selby, consulting hygienist. Washington, 1919. 115 pp. Public Health Bulletin No. 99.*

This report is reviewed on pages 218 to 220 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

— *War Industries Board. History of prices during the war. International price comparisons, by Wesley C. Mitchell. Published by the Department of Commerce in cooperation with the War Industries Board. Washington, 1919. 395 pp. Price Bulletin No. 2. Price, 25 cents.*

This bulletin, which forms part of the history of prices during the war, planned by the War Industries Board, aims to show as fully as permitted by the materials available how the rise of prices from 1913 to 1918 in the United States compares with the rise in other countries. Comparisons are made between the United States and 13 other countries for a total of 491 commodities, as follows: Argentina, 21 commodities; Australia, 66; Austria, 14; Denmark, 17; England, 150; France, 44; Germany 30; India, 24; Italy, 36; Japan, 36; Norway, 18; Russia, 23; and Sweden, 12.

Official—Foreign Countries.

AUSTRIA.—*Arbeitsstatistisches Amt. Arbeitszeitverlängerungen (Überstunden) in fabrikmässigen Betrieben Österreichs im Jahre 1914-15. Vienna, 1916-17. 28 pp. each.*

Two bulletins of the Austrian Bureau of Labor Statistics containing data as to overtime worked in Austrian factories in 1914 and 1915, respectively. The most important of these data are presented in the following table:

STATISTICS OF OVERTIME WORKED IN AUSTRIAN FACTORIES, 1914 AND 1915.

Item.	1914	1915
Number of factories reporting overtime work.....	568	396
Number of workers employed in these factories.....	115,443	90,245
Number of these workers who worked overtime.....	47,293	48,839
Total hours of overtime worked by them.....	4,220,091	7,315,113
Average hours of overtime worked per worker.....	89	150
Total hours of overtime worked in—		
Munitions and ordnance factories.....	1,221,096	3,645,027
Textile factories.....	1,408,266	1,872,846

¹ The legal maximum hours of labor in Austrian factories are 11 per day. Work carried on in excess of 11 hours is considered overtime and must be reported to the industrial authorities. A permit is required if the work extends over a period in excess of three days.

— *Bericht über die Tätigkeit des K. K. Arbeitsstatistischen Amtes im Handelsministerium während des Jahres 1914. Vienna, 1915. 20 pp.*

The annual report of the Austrian Bureau of Labor Statistics for the year 1914. The activities of the bureau during that year included the compilation of household budgets of families of moderate means, unemployment statistics of trade unions, statistics of strikes and lockouts, employment offices, collective agreements, investigations on the shutdown and the reduced operation of industrial establishments, and on the prevention of lead poisoning in smelters and industrial establishments, and the publication of the monthly bulletin "Soziale Rundschau."²

AUSTRIA—*Ministerium des Innern. Die Gebarung und die Ergebnisse der Krankheitsstatistik der Krankenkassen in den Jahren 1912 und 1913. Vienna, 1916. iv, 185 pp.*

This report, published by the Ministry of the Interior of the former Austrian Empire, presents morbidity and financial statistics of the Austrian workmen's sick funds for the years 1912 and 1913. The report states that the data for 1913 are incomplete, because 79 sick funds located in districts occupied or blocked by the enemy did not send in reports. The most important data contained in the report are given in the following table:

FINANCIAL AND MORBIDITY STATISTICS OF AUSTRIAN SICK FUNDS,¹ 1912 AND 1913.

Item.	1912	1913
Number of sick funds	3,386	3,169
Total average membership	3,694,114	3,383,408
Cases of sickness and confinement compensated through sick benefits or hospital treatment	1,905,708	1,803,411
Days of sickness	32,885,695	31,985,809
Cases of death compensated	30,304	27,370
Cases of sickness (exclusive of confinements) per 100 members	50.1	51.8
Cases of confinement per 100 female members	6.42	6.35
Average duration of one case of sickness in days (exclusive of confinements)	16.9	17.4
Average days of sickness (inclusive of confinements) per member	8.90	9.45
Deaths per 100 members82	.81
Total receipts	\$19,977,433	\$18,839,212
Receipts from contributions ²	18,634,385	17,496,976
Total expenditures	18,959,591	18,215,393
Expenditures for insurance benefits	16,229,647	15,787,716
Total assets	16,059,127	15,840,293
Average contribution per member	5.04	5.17
Average contribution of members	\$ 3.30	3.46
Average contribution of employers	\$ 1.67	1.71
Expenditures per member for—		
Sick benefit	2.40	2.57
Medical treatment91	.97
Medicines57	.59
Hospital treatment40	.43
Funeral11	.11
Costs of administration49	.49
Miscellaneous49	\$.43

¹ Includes contributions from both employers and employees.

² This amount, taken from original table, is evidently an error, as the sum of the average contribution of members and the average contribution of employers is but \$4.97. The correct total is \$5.04.

³ The original table gives this amount as 1.12 crowns (23 cents), which is evidently an error. Based on other data in the table it should read 2.12 crowns (43 cents).

According to the foregoing table the average contribution of each member was \$3.30 in 1912 and \$3.46 in 1913, while the average expenditure per member for sick and for death benefits was \$4.39 and \$4.67, respectively. The excess of benefits over contributions of members was met by contributions of the employers.

— *Die Privaten Versicherungsunternehmungen in den im Reichsrat vertretenen Königreichen und Ländern im Jahre 1912–1913. Vienna, 1916–1917. 2 vols. 242 and 121 pp.*

Two bulletins published by the Austrian Ministry of the Interior giving financial and actuarial data of private insurance institutes doing business in Austria in 1912 and 1913.

— *Statistische Zentralkommission. Österreichisches Statistisches Handbuch. Vols. 33, 34, 35. 1914, 1915, 1916–1917. Vienna, 1917, 1918, xiii, 472 pp.; xi, 367 pp.; xiii, 363 pp.*

Three volumes of the Austrian official statistical yearbook covering the years 1914 to 1917, inclusive. The contents of these volumes are essentially the same as of those issued during preceding years.

BELGIUM.—*Ministère de l'Industrie et du Travail. Office du Travail. Annuaire de la Législation du Travail. 17e Année—1913. Brussels, 1919. 853 pp.*

As indicated by the title, this volume is a collection of the texts of laws relative to labor enacted during the year 1913 by various countries.

BRAZIL.—*Laws, statutes, etc. Decreto No. 3724, No. 13493, and No. 13498. Regula as abrigações resultantes dos accidentes no trabalho. Rio de Janeiro, 1919. 24 pp.*

This pamphlet contains the text of the regulations concerning the application of the law of January 15, 1919, on accident compensation in Brazil.

CANADA.—*Bureau of Statistics. Canada yearbook, 1918. Ottawa, 1919. 686 pp. Map. Illustrated.*

The section on labor deals with Labor legislation; Labor organization; Industrial disputes; Proceedings under the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act; Fair wages branch; and Prices. The total trade-union membership reported at the end of 1917 was 204,630, in 1,974 local branches of trade-union organizations of all types. The increase in membership over 1916 was 44,223, or 27.6 per cent, and the increase in the number of local branches was 132, or 7.2 per cent. The number of strikes and lockouts reported during 1917 was 148, as compared with 75 in 1916. The strikes in 1917 involved 714 employers and 48,329 workpeople, with resultant time losses to the latter estimated at 1,134,970 working days. There was an increase in 1917 over 1916 of 443 in the number of employers and 27,172 in the number of employees involved. The increase in time losses was 926,693 working days. The fair wages branch of the department of labor, which is charged with the preparation of schedules of minimum wage rates which are inserted in Dominion Government contracts, and must be adhered to by contractors in the execution of their respective works, reported the number of fair-wage schedules prepared since the adoption of the fair-wages resolution in 1900 up to the end of the year 1917 as 3,602, of which 41 were prepared during the calendar year 1917.

— *Fuel Controller. Final report. Ottawa, March, 1919. 107 pp. Charts. Map.*

— (ALBERTA).—*Minister of Public Works. Mines branch. Annual report, 1918. Edmonton, 1919. 137 pp.*

This report states that during the year 1918 there were 317 coal mines, 2 copper-ore, and 2 shale mines in operation. Of this total 70 were newly opened, 9 reopened, and 71 abandoned. The total output of coal for the year was 6,148,620 tons, exceeding by 1,285,206 tons the output for 1917. The average number of persons employed in mine work during 1918 was 8,774. During December, 1918, 10,209 persons were employed, an increase of 397 over the number employed in December, 1917. Twenty-two lost their lives by accidents, as compared with 24 in 1917. Of the 22 deaths, 3 occurred in accidents above ground and 19 below ground. There was one death for each 279,483 tons of coal mined. There were 16 persons seriously injured above ground and 44 below ground, and 21 slightly injured above ground and 56 below ground. Training in connection with mine-rescue work was carried on throughout the year, there being three mine-rescue cars and six stations in operation at the time of the report.

— (MANITOBA).—*Workmen's Compensation Board. Report for 1918. Winnipeg, 1919. 13 pp.*

This report is summarized on page 223 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

CHILE.—*Central Statistics Bureau. Statistical abstract of the Republic of Chile, 1917. Santiago, 1918. 146 pp.*

— *Ministerio de Hacienda. Proyecto de Ley sobre Creación de la Caja de Retiros de Empleados Públicos. Santiago, 1918. 170 pp.*

This volume contains the reports of various heads of departments and the text of the proposed law relative to the retirement of civil employees; the text of the law as

passed by the Chamber of Deputies; the creation of a civil pension fund introduced in the Senate; law of August 20, 1857, civil employees' pension, amended September 3, 1863, December 28, 1898; law of September 9 and December 22, 1915, retirement of soldiers and marines; law for retirement of employees on State railroads, February 1, 1911, and March 29, 1916, amended May 10, 1918.

CHILE.—*Oficina del Trabajo. Boletín No. 11, Año 8. Santiago, 1918. 317 pp.*

A large part of this volume is devoted to a discussion of the industrial accident compensation law and the regulations for its application.

The text of the following recently enacted laws is also reproduced: Nurseries for children of working women; seats in industrial and commercial establishments; sale of alcoholic liquors; settlement of labor disputes; working regulations in State railroad shops; mine labor; retirement of public employees; retirement of State railroad employees; and Sunday rest. A digest of these laws appears on pages 234 to 237 of this issue of the REVIEW. The final chapter is a study of the cost of living.

— — — *Legislación sobre Accidentes del Trabajo. Santiago, 1917. lxx, 339 pp.*

This volume is a report prepared by the director of the Labor Office of Chile relative to the application of the law on accident compensation. It contains the text of the industrial accident compensation law, and the regulations issued for its execution.

FRANCE.—*Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. Conseil supérieur du travail. Compte rendu. Vingt-Quatrième Session—October, 1917. Paris, 1918. xx, 36 pp.*

This report reproduces the decrees issued between March, 1903, and July, 1913, relative to the composition of the Superior Council of Labor, and gives a list of the members in July, 1917. It contains the minutes of the session held October 8–13, 1917, and also the resolution adopted at this session relative to the resumption of labor contracts, interrupted by the war, of employees and laborers released from military duty.

GERMANY (WURTEMBERG).—*Versicherungsanstalt, Beratungsstelle für Krieginvaliden in Stuttgart. Ein Jahr Kriegsinvaliden-fürsorge unter besonderer Berücksichtigung der Kriegsblinden. Stuttgart, 1916. 70 pp. 6 tables, 67 illustrations.*

A report of the vocational guidance office for war invalids maintained by the State Invalidity Insurance Institute, Würtemberg, on the results of its activities during the first year of its existence. In addition to statistical data it contains detailed information as to the methods used by the office in selecting a vocation for the disabled man and in placing him in employment. A special chapter is devoted to vocational guidance for the blind. In an appendix is described a training shop for armless soldiers in a factory of electrical supplies, and the latest inventions in artificial limbs.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Board of Agriculture and Fisheries. Land Settlement (Facilities) Bill. Estimate of probable expenditure. London, 1919. 4 pp. Cmd. 132. Price, 1d. net.*

— *Board of Trade. Railway working during the war. Statement showing the cost of running the railways in Great Britain during the period of Government control of railways (1914–18). London, 1919. 3 pp. Cmd. 147. Price, 1d. net.*

— — — *Report upon the accidents that have occurred on the railways of the United Kingdom during the year 1918. London, 1919. 23 pp. Cmd. 166.*

This report gives the numbers of persons killed and injured by accidents in connection with the working of railways in the United Kingdom in 1918. In the following table these figures are compared to those for 1917, derived from an earlier report of the same board, noted in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for August, 1918 (pp. 247, 248).

NUMBER OF PERSONS KILLED OR INJURED ON THE RAILWAYS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM IN 1918, COMPARED WITH 1917, SHOWING PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE.

Group.	1917		1918		Per cent of decrease, 1918 from 1917.	
	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.	Killed.	Injured.
Train accidents:						
Passengers.....	12	260	8	463	33.3	178.1
Servants of companies and contractors.....	5	144	5	146	.0	11.4
Other persons.....		2	6	25	(²)	1150.0
Accidents caused by the movement of trains and railway vehicles, exclusive of train accidents:						
Passengers.....	110	850	120	755	19.1	11.2
Servants of companies and contractors.....	331	2,689	293	2,570	11.5	4.4
Other persons.....	368	263	367	225	.3	14.4
Accidents on railway premises not included in the two groups above:						
Passengers.....	3	(³)	5	(³)	166.7
Servants of companies and contractors.....	46	(³)	39	(³)	15.2
Other persons.....	24	(³)	27	(³)	112.5
Total.....	899	4,420⁸	870	4,184	3.2	4.6

¹ Increase.

² No fatalities in 1917; 6 in 1918.

³ Data not given.

⁴ Incomplete; see note 3.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Committee on Production and Special Arbitration Tribunal (Section 1 (2) Munitions of War Act, 1917). Memorandum on proceedings of the committee on production, May, 1918–November, 1918. London, 1919, 8 pp. Cmd. 70. Price, 1d. net.*

— *Department of Scientific and Industrial Research. Food investigation board. Report for the year 1918. London, 1919. 20 pp. Price, 3d. net.*

— *Exchequer and Audit Department. National Insurance Act, 1911 to 1915 (National health insurance). National health insurance fund accounts for the year ended December 31, 1916. Accounts of the national health insurance fund (England), the Welsh national health insurance fund, the Scottish national health insurance fund, and the Irish national health insurance fund established pursuant to Section 54 (1), 82 (2), 80 (2), and 81 (2), respectively, of the National Insurance Act, 1911 (1 and 2 Geo. 5. c. 55), showing the receipts and payments during the year ended December 31st, 1916, together with the report of the comptroller and auditor general thereon. London, 1919. 37 pp. Price, 4d. net.*

— *National Insurance Acts, 1911 to 1916 (Part II.—Unemployment insurance). Unemployment fund account, 1916–17. An account of the unemployment fund established pursuant to Section 92 (1) of the National Insurance Act, 1911 (Pt. II.) 1 and 2 Geo. 5. c. 55, showing the receipts and payments during the period July 16th, 1916, to July 14th, 1917; together with the report of the comptroller and auditor general thereon. London, 1919. 4 pp. Price, 1d. net.*

— *Home Office. Disabled men (facilities for employment) bill: Proposed expenditure. Memorandum on expenditure likely to be incurred under the disabled men (facilities for employment) bill. London, 1919. 2 pp. Cmd. 154. Price, 1d. net.*

— *Laws, statutes, etc. Statutory rules and orders other than those of a local, personal, or temporary character, issued in the year 1917 with a list of statutory orders of a local character arranged in classes, an appendix of certain orders in council, etc., issued under the Royal prerogative, and index. London, 1918. 1249 pp. Price, 20s. net.*

— *Local Government Board. Housing, town planning, etc., bill, 1919. Estimate of probable expenditure. London, 1919. 2 pp. Cmd. 125. Price, 1d. net.*

— *Financial assistance to local authorities. I. Draft regulations; II. Copy of circular issued by the Local Government Board. London, 1919. 14 pp. Cmd. 127. Price, 1d. net.*

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Local Government Board. Housing, town planning, etc., bill, 1919. Statement showing existing procedure (1) under Part I and Part II of the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890; (2) for compulsory acquisition of land for purposes of Part III of the Housing of the Working Classes Act, 1890; (3) in the case of town planning; and the effect of proposed amendments. London, 1919. 8 pp. Cmd. 126. Price, 1d. net.*

— — — *Statutory enactments proposed to be repealed, amended, or extended by the housing, town planning, etc., bill, 1919. London, 1919. 23 pp. Cmd. 124. Price, 3d. net.*

— — — *Intelligence Department. The welfare of the children of women employed in factories in France and Germany. Report. London, 1919. 58 pp. Price, 6d. net.*

This report was prepared for the Welfare Advisory Committee of the Ministry of Munitions, but as the committee has suspended its operations it was decided to issue it for general information. It deals principally with the provision of crèches and similar institutions in France and Germany for the children of women in industrial employment, but contains information respecting other measures for the welfare of women and their children.

— — — *Ministry of Pensions. List of war pensions committees. Revised to 10th May, 1919. List 2. London, 1919. 39 pp.*

— — — *Ministry of Reconstruction. Reconstruction problems 24. Electrical development. London, 1919. 16 pp. Price, 2d.*

— — — *Reconstruction problems 25. Town planning. London, 1919. 20 pp. Price, 2d.*

— — — *Reconstruction problems 26. Natural science in British education. London, 1919. 16 pp. Price, 2d.*

— — — *Reconstruction problems 27. Officers' guide to civil careers. London, 1919. 64 pp. Price, 2d.*

— — — *Reconstruction problems 28. Scientific business management. London, 1919. 16 pp. Price 2d.*

— — — *Acquisition and Valuation of Land Committee. Third report on the acquisition for public purposes of rights and powers in connection with mines and minerals. London, 1919. 37 pp. Cmd. 136. Price, 4d. net.*

— — — *Adult Education Committee. Third interim report. Libraries and museums. London, 1919. 19 pp. Cd. 9237. Price, 3d. net.*

— — — *Committee on Trusts. Report. London, 1919. 43 pp. Cd. 9236. Price, 6d.*

— — — *Women's Advisory Committee. Report of the subcommittee appointed to consider the position after the war of women holding temporary appointments in Government departments. London, 1919. 8 pp. Cmd. 199. Price, 1d. net.*

— — — *National Health Insurance Commission (England). Reports of decisions on appeals and applications under section 67 of the National Insurance Act, 1911, and section 27 of the National Insurance Act, 1913. Part V. London, 1919. Pp. 251-342. Cmd. 134. Price, 6d. net.*

— — — *National Insurance Audit Department. Fifth report, 1918. National Insurance (Health) Acts, 1911 to 1918. London, 1919. 16 pp. Cmd. 63. Price, 1d. net.*

— — — *Office of Umpire (Unemployment Insurance), National Insurance (Unemployment) Acts, 1911 to 1918. Unemployment insurance. Decisions given by the umpire respecting claims to benefit. Vol. 3. Nos. 1001-1500. (Given up to 25th July, 1918, together with index for all decisions 1-1,500.) London, 1919. 364 pp. U. I. 440 A. Price, 3s. net.*

— — — *Parliament. Aliens. Draft of an order in council to regulate the admission of aliens to the United Kingdom and the supervision of aliens in the United Kingdom. London, 1919. 19 pp. Cmd. 172. Price, 2d. net.*

— — — *Select Committee on National Expenditure. First report. London, 1919. 6 pp. Price, 1d. net.*

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Trade Boards Act, 1918.* London [1918]. 14 pp. (8 and 9 Geo. 5. Ch. 32). Price, 2d. net.

Sections deal with the application of the principal act, provisions as to special orders, various amendments, and other matters.

— (IRELAND). *Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction. Agriculture statistics, with detailed report for the year 1916.* Dublin, 1919. 111 pp. Cmd. 112. Price, 9d. net.

Contains, among other data, tables showing the number of holdings, their size in statute acres, the number of holdings owned and tenanted, and the division of land.

— *Local Government Board. Annual report for the year ended 31st March, 1918, being the forty-sixth report under "The Local Government Board (Ireland) Act, 1872,"* 85 and 86 Vic., c. 69. London, 1919. 70 pp. Cmd. 65. Price, 4d. net.

INDIA.—*Commercial Intelligence Department. Variations in Indian price levels from 1861 to 1911, expressed in index numbers.* Calcutta, 1912. 16 pp. 5 charts. Price 1s., or 12 annas.

ITALY.—*Commissione Reale per il personale delle ferrovie dello Stato. Proposte e voti a sua Eccellenza il Ministro dei Trasporti Marittimi e Ferroviari.* Vol. 1, part 1, xxix pp., part 2, 199 pp., part 3, 221 pp.; Vol. 2, part 1, 104 pp., part 2, 85 pp., part 3, 37 pp., part 4, 52 pp.; Vol. 3, part 1, 11 pp., part 2, 81 pp.; Vol. 4, part 1, 132 pp., part 2, 32 pp. Rome, 1916.

The employees of the Italian State railroads having for years petitioned the Government to improve their working, wage, and disciplinary conditions, a commission was appointed by royal decree of May 3, 1914, for the purpose of examining into the conditions of employment of the personnel of the State railroads and of proposing such improvements and reforms as it might consider necessary for the suitable economic systematization of the service. The commission was composed of a number of senators and members of the Lower House of Parliament, high railroad officials, and representatives of various ministries.

These four volumes contain the proposals and resolutions of the commission submitted to the Minister of Maritime and Railroad Transportation. The work of the commission included the working out of general service regulations for the personnel of the State railroads and of regulations for special classes of the personnel and the adoption of resolutions on a number of subjects such as pensions, housing, accidents, hygiene, vocational training, competitive examinations, etc. In volume 4, part 2, the commission publishes dissenting minority reports on various subjects.

— *Ferrovie dello Stato. Disposizioni sulle competenze accessorie annesse al regolamento del personale. Decreto Luogotenenziale 13 agosto 1917, n. 1393.* Rome, 1917. 116 pp.

The text of the regulations relating to special allowances of employees of the Italian State Railroads.

— — *Ferrovie secondarie della Sicilia. Regolamento del personale. Disposizioni sulle competenze accessorie. Decreto Luogotenenziale 28 ottobre 1917, n. 1918.* Rome, 1917. 96 pp.

The text of the service regulations for employees of the secondary railroads of Sicily operated by the Italian State railroads.

— — *Regolamento del Personale. Decreto Luogotenenziale 13 agosto 1917, n. 1393.* Rome, 1917. 311 pp.

The text of the general service regulations for the employees of the Italian State railroads.

— — *Regolamento del personale navigante. Decreto Luogotenenziale 13 agosto 1917, n. 1393.* Rome, 1917. 125 pp.

The text of the service regulations for the personnel of mail and ferryboats operated by the Italian State railroads.

ITALY.—*Ferrovie dello Stato. Regolamento del personale provvisorio ed aggiunto. Decreto Luogotenenziale 13 agosto 1917, n. 1393. Rome, 1917. 12 pp.*

The text of the service regulation for temporary and auxiliary employees of the Italian State railroads.

— *Laws, statutes, etc. Decreto Luogotenenziale No. 1393 del 13 agosto 1917, che approva i regolamenti per i vari personali delle ferrovie dello Stato. Rome, 1917. 10 pp.*

The text of the vice-regal decree of August 13, 1917, approving the service regulations for the various classes of employees of the Italian State railroads.

— *Ministero per l'Industria, il Commercio e il Lavoro. Ufficio Centrale di Statistica. Statistica della emigrazione Italiana per l'estero negli anni 1914 e 1915. Rome, 1918. xxviii, 213 pp.*

This volume published by the Italian Central Statistical Office contains detailed statistics of Italian emigration during 1914 and 1915. A brief digest of the most important of these statistical data is given on pp. 227 to 229 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

NETHERLANDS.—*Departement van Arbeid. Verslag over het haventoezicht uitgeoefend in 1917. [The Hague], 1919. viii, 109 pp. chart.*

Report of the harbor inspection service under the longshoremen's protective law.

— ——. *Arbeidersbudgets gedurende de Crisis (Tweede bundel). Uitgegeven voor rekening van het Departement van Arbeid. Leyden, 1919. vi, 125, [5] pp. Uitgaven No. 22 bis.*

An account of a budgetary study of 36 families for the months of February and March, 1917 and 1918. An earlier study, made in 1917 with comparisons for 1914, was noted in the MONTHLY REVIEW for April, 1918, p. 312. Identical families furnished the data at both periods in 1917 and 1918. Comparison is made with conditions prevailing in 1910-11. During the 8-year period in question, i. e., from 1910 to 1918, the food budget increased 45 per cent; fuel, 140 per cent; clothing, 185 per cent; rent, 10 per cent. The average increase is stated as 45.1 per cent.

— (AMSTERDAM).—*Bureau van Statistiek. Statistisch Jaarboek der Gemeente Amsterdam, 14 de Jaargang 1917. Amsterdam, 1919. xxxii, 332 pp.*

Statistical yearbook for the city of Amsterdam containing matter usually found in such publications. Contains data of interest to labor, such as municipal works, industrial accidents, harbor employment, minimum wages, trade-union membership, strikes and lockouts, prices and the cost of living.

NORWAY (CHRISTIANIA).—*Arbeidskontor, 1918. 21de aarsberetning. Christiania, 1919. 35 pp.*

Report for the year 1918 of the Christiania employment exchange which is also the central exchange for the national employment service. The office placed 33,867 persons in positions in 1918, as compared with 38,965 in 1917. The net expenses of the office in 1918 were practically 2 crowns (53.6 cents) per person placed.

SWEDEN.—*Pensionsstyrelsen år 1917. Stockholm, 1919. 150 pp. Sveriges Officiella Statistik.*

Sweden has had a general pension law in operation since January 1, 1914. This law provides that every citizen of Sweden shall be entitled to a pension on arriving at the age of 67 years, provided he has paid a basic annual premium of 3 crowns (\$0.804), beginning at the age of 15 years. To the basic premium are added supplementary premiums varying with the income of the person. In general the annual amount of the pension is fixed at 30 per cent in the case of males and 24 per cent in the case of females, of the total amount of the premiums fixed.

The number of persons covered by this system of pension insurance was 3,265,000 in 1916. The amount collected in premiums in 1917 was approximately 16,159,000 crowns (\$4,330,612). During 1917, the Pension Bureau paid claims amounting to 2,253,833 crowns (\$604,027) to 34,068 persons.

SWEDEN—*Socialstgrelsen. Sjömansyrket i Sverige. Del. I. Stockholm, 1915. 309 pp. Sveriges Officiella Statistik, Socialstatistik.*

Part one of a comprehensive survey of working conditions, hours and wages of seamen in Swedish shipping. The inquiry describes conditions prevailing in August and September, 1911, with supplementary data to bring it to 1915. The volume carries a summary in French.

Unofficial.

ALDRIDGE, HENRY R. *Housing at the close of the war. London, Christian Social Union, 1918. 15 pp. London Christian Social Union Papers No. 6.*

Points discussed include: Extent of housing shortage; Government terms of financial aid; Elements of a good housing scheme; Public utility societies; Selecting tenants; Economic or profitable rents.

AMERICAN JOURNAL OF CARE FOR CRIPPLES. *Vol. 8, Nos. 1 to 4. Pp. 1-332. New York, 1919. Illustrated. Official organ of the Federation of Associations for Cripples and the Welfare Commission for Cripples. Edited by Douglas C. McMurtrie.*

Contains articles devoted to a consideration of the opportunities for retraining disabled soldiers for new occupations. In the first number are articles on Training disabled soldiers in diamond cutting, by George R. Sims; Chicago's reconstruction laboratory, by Dr. John Dill Robertson; an article on the Bankhead-Smith bill to promote the vocational rehabilitation of disabled civilians; and one of a series of articles by Capt. H. H. C. Baird on The problem of the discharged disabled man. Number 2 contains an article showing the results of industrial surveys of the leather industries with special reference to the employment of the disabled, by Gerald A. Boate. The third number of the volume is an index-catalogue of a library on rehabilitation of the disabled, while the fourth number is devoted to the subject of the blind. In the latter are articles on Governmental provision for the blinded American soldier, by Lieut. Col. Bordley, and Educating the public in the interest of the blinded soldier, by Eugene Brieux.

AMERICAN RED CROSS IN ITALY. *Commission for tuberculosis. General report; supplementary report on nursing; supplementary report on statistics. An attempt to establish a method of international cooperation in public health and welfare work. Rome, 14, Via Sardegna, 1919. 124 pp. Map. Charts.*

The general report considers Active work, including communal organization, public health nursing, school hygiene, and child welfare, and Potential work, covering education, housing, child labor, emigration, laboratories, and associated diseases.

ASSOCIATION OF BRITISH CHAMBERS OF COMMERCE. *Report of proceedings and resolutions adopted at the 59th annual meeting, April 15 and 16, 1919. London, 1919. 166 pp.*

BANCA COMMERCIALE ITALIANA. *Cenni statistici sul movimento economico dell'Italia. Vols. 11 and 12. Milan, 1917 and 1918. 1,083 and 619 pp.*

Two volumes of the economic yearbook published by the Italian Commercial Bank of Milan. In addition to statistical data on the economic movement of Italy, the volumes contain a compilation of all economic war legislation. Among the legislation reproduced is also that relating to Government subsidies to public employment offices.

BÂTTE, NOËL DEJEAN DE LA. *Des modifications apportées par la guerre à la législation des accidents du travail. Paris, Université de Paris, 1918. 174 pp.*

The war has produced entirely new situations in economic problems, especially through its effects upon laborers, not only in the number of deaths but also in the number of crippled and wounded. This volume is devoted to a study of the social and economic history of legislation, administrative measures, orders, and laws, in so far as they relate to industrial accidents, and particularly the law of November 25, 1916, which was enacted for the purpose of relieving the employer of the responsi-

bility for industrial accident compensation in cases in which the employee had already been crippled in military service. This latter law was noted in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for July, 1919, pages 214 to 219.

BEER, M. *A history of British socialism. Vol. I. London, G. Bell and Sons (Ltd.), 1919. 351 pp.*

This book was intended by the author to be the first of two volumes, the second of which would carry the story of British socialism into the opening decade of the present century. The work, however, was interfered with by the war and the first volume is therefore published separately. The subject of this volume is the growth of British socialism as far as the rise of Chartism. It is a study of political thought upon the group of problems created by the rise of capitalist agriculture and capitalist industry, the main theme being the development of political thought under the stress of industrial revolution. The first 91 pages, which are in the nature of an introduction to this theme, contain a description of the communistic elements in English thought from the Middle Ages to the beginning of the Eighteenth Century. The greater part of the book is then devoted to what is called, in an introduction by R. H. Tawney, "a current of thought which offered the working classes what in the twenties and thirties they needed most—a philosophy interpreting the causes of their degradation, and a body of articulate doctrine which could fuse into energy their misery, their passion, and their hope. * * * Its meaning was not collectivism, but cooperation; and cooperation not in the specialized sense which it has since assumed of a particular method of conducting trade, but with the larger significance of a social order based on fraternity, not competition."

BENN, ERNEST J. P. *The industrial awakening. London, Industrial Reconstruction Council, 1919. 11 pp.*

A general discussion of the industrial problem, in which the conclusion is reached that it is not a problem which can be solved by a simple solution. It is held that an effort must be made by every class of society to find out what is fair in industrial life and then, so far as possible, to try to make it so.

BLOOMFIELD, DANIEL, EDITOR. *Employment management. Selected articles, with an introduction by Meyer Bloomfield. New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1919. 507 pp. The Handbook Series.*

Articles on employment management which have appeared in books, pamphlets, periodicals, and reports, covering every phase of the subject, so arranged in divisions as to facilitate the finding by the investigator of what is represented on the particular aspect of the subject in which he is interested. The purpose is to present the best material available on the subject in the form of a handbook for ready reference, which is intended to be of special service to students of employment management courses in the colleges. Features of special value are reprints of the Whitley report on industrial councils, and articles on Motives in economic life, by Carleton H. Parker; Making the boss efficient and Making the job worth while, by John A. Fitch; The new profession of handling men, A new profession in American industry, and Relation of foremen to the working force, by Meyer Bloomfield; Computing labor turnover, by Daniel Bloomfield; The scientific selection of salesmen, by Walter Dill Scott; Appointments and dismissals, by Sidney Webb; A plan for cooperative management, by Charles W. Eliot; Determining the cost of turnover of labor and How to reduce labor turnover, by Boyd Fisher; and an appendix containing a number of forms used by employment departments of firms. Special prominence is given to labor turnover from various points of view, and there is a subject bibliography and a list of employment managers' associations arranged by States.

BLOOMFIELD, MEYER. *Management and men. A record of new steps in industrial relations.* New York, The Century Co., 1919. 591 pp.

The main text of this book is made up of articles written for the Saturday Evening Post, based upon data concerning labor conditions gathered by the author during a visit in the fall of 1918 to the industrial centers of Great Britain, in the belief that American industry faces industrial problems similar to those of Great Britain and that we can profit from "an informed interest in what industrial Britain is thinking and doing." To this text have been added 13 appendixes containing illustrative material in the form of British official documents and extracts from documents which show in detail the new arrangements that are at work in British industrial relations. This material is grouped under the headings of: Labor's statement on the housing problem after the war; Report by Ministry of Reconstruction on housing in England and Wales; Report by Ministry of Reconstruction on raw materials and employment; The employment exchange from within—a day with the manager; Report of a conference between organizers of trade unions, Bristol employers and others concerned with the industrial employment of women, convened by the Bristol Association for Industrial Reconstruction, on the 16th and 17th of March, 1918, on the position of women in industry after the war; Labor's pronouncement on the restoration of trade union customs after the war; The Labor Party's statement on the labor problems after the war; Industrial reports, Nos. 1 and 2—Industrial councils, and Works committees; The predecessor of the Whitley scheme—a memorandum on industrial self-government together with a draft scheme for a builders' national industrial parliament, prepared by Malcolm Sparkes; National council of the pottery industry—report of the industrial reconstruction council; Trade parliaments; Rules for working the Hans Renold shop stewards' committee; Workshop committees—suggested lines of development by C. G. Renold; and Labor Party constitution.

BOHNY, E.—*Der Arbeitsmarkt in der Schweiz Während der Kriegsjahre 1914–1918.* (Reprinted from "Schweizerisches Zentralblatt für Staats-und Gemeindeverwaltung," Vol. 20, No. 5.) Zürich, 1919. 12 pp.

A survey of the Swiss labor market during the war by the director of the Swiss employment offices, showing for each year the state of the labor market in the individual trade and industry groups and giving the reasons for the fluctuations in the supply of, and demand for, labor. Two tables from this survey are reprinted below. They indicate plainly the great stagnation of the labor market, particularly with respect to male labor, during the last half of 1914 and of 1915. The data for 1916 show a gradual increase in the demand for labor and those for 1917 a pronounced undersupply. In 1918 there continued an undersupply of female labor but the male labor market once more became glutted after the conclusion of the armistice.

NUMBER OF APPLICANTS FOR WORK IN SWISS EMPLOYMENT OFFICES PER 100 VACANT POSITIONS, 1914 TO 1918.

	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918
MALE APPLICANTS.					
First quarter.....	152.3	147.1	116.2	83.1	106.6
Second quarter.....	122.8	108.8	89.1	81.4	91.3
Third quarter.....	167.6	112.2	97.9	90.3	105.1
Fourth quarter.....	180.9	122.2	107.5	108.9	126.3
FEMALE APPLICANTS.					
First quarter.....	78.6	125.3	94.8	84.6	66.7
Second quarter.....	70.4	118.0	88.5	74.2	65.4
Third quarter.....	118.8	112.6	92.1	75.0	64.3
Fourth quarter.....	143.6	121.9	104.5	89.1	66.1

EMPLOYMENT STATISTICS OF SWISS PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, 1913 TO 1918.

Year.	Vacant situations.			Applicants.			Situations filled.			Number of applicants per 100 vacant situations.
	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	Male.	Female.	Total.	
1913.....	53,755	30,606	84,361	76,989	22,501	99,490	40,060	14,808	54,868	117.9
1914.....	58,000	29,797	87,797	89,060	28,459	117,519	45,682	17,270	62,952	133.7
1915.....	65,790	23,768	89,558	79,308	28,170	107,478	49,025	15,830	64,855	120.0
1916.....	73,049	29,588	102,637	74,260	27,342	101,602	51,640	16,511	68,151	98.9
1917.....	75,283	30,361	105,644	70,964	26,344	97,308	50,173	16,173	66,346	92.1
1918.....	71,997	31,821	103,818	76,349	20,989	97,338	51,509	15,311	66,820	93.7

BRAND, R. H. *The financial and economic future.* London, National War Savings Committee, Salisbury Square, E. C. 4, 1919. 23 pp. *National economy series No. 2. Reprinted, with revision, from the "Round Table" (Dec., 1918). Price, 2d.*

The first part of this pamphlet aims to bring into prominence certain principles which the author thinks must guide the financial policy of the country after the war, rather than to lay down exact measures to be taken. In the latter part he deals more specifically with the financial problem which confronts the country, and with theories for its solution. He does not, however, believe that the entire solution lies in the adoption of a sound financial policy, but says—

While a bad financial policy may easily ruin the most industrious and thrifty nation, a sound one will not of itself achieve anything without effort and sacrifice on the part of all. * * * The efforts of most reformers, radical and otherwise, are bent at present on the better distribution of wealth, an aim which will have everyone's sympathy. It is essential that we should secure a fair standard of life to everyone who will work. But there is a danger that the movement against capital and enterprise, against interests and profits, which is so widespread among the workers to-day, will lead them into courses fatal to themselves and the whole community. * * * It may be urged with great force that the distribution problem can only be successfully tackled through that of production, and that if labor thinks only of distribution and forgets production we shall have little chance of recovery.

He believes that the corollary of better production is increased saving, and thinks that the Government should continue permanently its machinery for encouraging saving and investment in Government securities.

CARTER, HUNTLY, EDITOR. *The limits of State industrial control. A symposium on the present situation and how to meet it.* London, T. Fisher Unwin (Ltd.), 1919. 292 pp.

This book is the outcome of an attempt to learn the views of a number of representative public persons in England on the problem of State control. The following questions were submitted to these persons, who represent various departments of public activity: (1) "What in your opinion will be the situation immediately after the war as regards State control? (2) What in your view is the limitation of State control to be maintained? (3) What in your view is the best policy of control to be pursued in the highest interests of commerce, trade, and industry?" The answers are grouped in classes which are arranged according to the special interests of the writers. Some of them are merely brief replies to the questions asked, while others take the form of articles on special phases of the problem. The classes are: The State views, including the views of leaders of the Government—Lloyd George, Bonar Law, and Gen. Smuts—and of representative peers, legislators, and administrators; the views of capital, expressed by representatives of shipping, shipbuilding, engineering, mining, cotton industry, alkali industry, publishing and printing trade, banking, finance, and agriculture; Political views; Sociological views; Socialistic view; Labor and industrial views; and Trade-union view.

COGHLAN, T. A. *Labor and industry in Australia. from the first settlement in 1788 to the establishment of the Commonwealth in 1901.* London, 1918. 4 vols. 2449 pp.

A comprehensive historical study of the land system, labor and immigration policies, financial system, industries, and industrial legislation in Australia from 1788 to 1901.

COMITÉ NATIONAL DE L'ÉDUCATION PHYSIQUE ET SPORTIVE ETL'HYGIÈNE SOCIALE. *Congrès Internallié d'Hygiène Sociale pour la Reconstitution des Régions Dévastées par la Guerre, reuni à Paris, à la Sorbonne, du 22 au 26 Avril 1919.* Paris, 1919. *Collection of pamphlets.*

This is a series of special studies prepared for the Interallied Congress on Hygiene applicable to devastated region, held in Paris, April 22-26, 1919. These studies were distributed among 12 sections as follows: 1. Le Sol et l'Eau (The soil and water); 2. L'Habitation Hygiénique (The Hygienic Dwelling); 3. Hygiène Rurale (Rural Hygiene); 4. Hygiène Urbaine (City Hygiene); 5. La Mère et l'Enfant (The mother and the child); 6. Hygiène Scolaire (School Hygiene); 7. Éducation Physique (Physical Training); 8 and 9. Prophylaxie Sanitaire et Assistance (Prophylactic Sanitation and Care); 10. Hygiène Industrielle (Industrial Hygiene); 11. Hygiène Post-scolaire et Prophylaxie Morale (After-school hygiene and Moral Prophylaxy); 12. Hygiène des Voyageurs (Hygiene for Travelers).

COMMONWEALTH CLUB OF CALIFORNIA. *Employer and employee.* San Francisco, June, 1919. Pp. 165-264. *Transactions.* Vol. 14, No. 5.

Contains the preliminary report of the Section on Industrial Relations. The topic was presented and discussed before the club under the subject, "The conflict between employer and employee—can there be a common platform between them?" The statement for the employer was made by Miner Chipman, for the employee by Harry Ryan, and for the public by Frederick Whitton. An appendix contains a report prepared for the Commonwealth Club's section on Industrial Relations by Miner Chipman and James D. Adams, under the heading of "Demands of organized labor." There is a bibliography of material in the club library.

COMPENSATOR SERVICE AID BUREAU. *The Compensator, vol. 1, No. 1, July, 1919.* 4 pp. 206 East 128th St., New York. \$1 a year.

The Compensator for July is the initial number of a monthly publication issued by The Compensator Service Bureau, which has been organized to furnish the necessary legal advice and assistance to claimants and others interested in the subject of workmen's compensation in the State of New York, and to put an end to the business of "runners," that is, persons who induce the claimant ignorant of the compensation law to place his claim in their hands for adjustment, for which doubtful service the victim parts with from one-third to one-half of his award. The new bureau will endeavor to render genuine service for a charge only sufficient to meet its expenses.

The Compensator is designed to disseminate knowledge as to the principles and procedure involved in workmen's compensation. It is to have résumés of various State compensation laws, special articles by experts, an inquiry department, and other features. The present issue summarizes the New York act, while in August and September the laws of New Jersey and Connecticut, respectively, are to be discussed.

COOPER, W. R. *The claims of labor and of capital. With a prefatory note by the Rt. Hon. G. H. Roberts, M. P.* London, Constable and Co. (Ltd.), 1919. 84 pp.

A concise discussion of present labor problems with special attention to the rewards of capital and of labor and the methods of increasing the latter, security of tenure, hours of work, welfare, housing, industrial unrest, and works committees, concluding with the outline of a scheme on which the author thinks "the employer, labor, and the State should embark without delay if industrial difficulties are to be avoided when the present restrictions are removed." This scheme involves certain steps to be taken and a certain policy to be followed by each of the three parties to the

problem, the main points to be emphasized being the following: "A.—By the employer. 1. Effect a closer relationship with labor, so as to avoid misunderstandings and secure a better appreciation of mutual difficulties. An important step in this direction is the formation of joint industrial councils, which deal with the broad questions affecting each particular industry. But at the moment, works committees are of even greater importance, because they would be more numerous. * * * 2. Give labor a say in the conditions of work. This again would be effected through the works committees. 3. Shorter hours. * * * 4. Share in prosperity. * * * 5. Security of tenure. * * * B.—By labor. 1. Cooperation in regard to grievances. * * * 2. Unrestricted output. 3. Security of capital. Loyal adherence to agreements made by the representatives of labor with those of the employer. 4. Avoidance of strikes. The strike to be used only as a last resort, when all other means of settlement have failed. C.—By the State. 1. Security of tenure. The Government should take steps to inquire whether the various industries can provide against unemployment; and, if necessary, should give financial assistance to a scheme for this purpose. 2. Housing. The Government should compel local authorities to exert their powers to provide adequate and suitable housing accommodations for the working classes."

COOPERATIVE LEAGUE OF AMERICA. *Report of the proceedings of the first American cooperative convention held at Springfield, Ill., September 25, 26, and 27, 1918. New York City, 2 West Thirteenth Street, 1919. 264 pp.*

An account of the proceedings of this convention appeared in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1918 (pp. 130-132).

CRAWFORD, ANDREW WRIGHT. *Standards set by the new Federal war suburbs and war cities. Washington, October, 1918. 24 pp. American Civic Association. Series 11, No. 12.*

A brief account of the housing work which had been undertaken by the United States Government up to October 1, 1918.

DESHAYES, LOUIS. *Le contrat de travail des mobilisés. Preface by M. Colliard Ministre du Travail. Paris, 1919. 72 pp. Price, 1 fr.*

This volume is devoted to a discussion of the effects of the war on labor contracts in France, and of the laws enacted in France concerning such contracts, with a short review of the measures taken by the State and employers in the matter of the reemployment of demobilized soldiers in Italy, Austria, Hungary and Germany. The preface says:

All French responded to the decree of mobilization, abandoning their industry, commerce, and employment. The State, on August 5, 1914, passed an act guaranteeing to all its officials, civil employees, agents, subagents, and laborers, the payment of their salaries or wages while absent in the military or naval service of the State. The important private enterprises and commercial establishments followed its example, while others agreed to pay a portion of wages to their employees called to the service.

In a general way it may be said that the agreements between employers and employees were not broken because of such service. The establishments which have not encouraged their mobilized employees during the long years of the war by effective and substantial evidences of their solicitude for them are few. Cases are extremely rare in which the former employer has refused to reemploy invalidated soldiers.

The discussion reproduces the texts of the various proposed laws relative to this subject, and to some extent the debates in the two chambers, and the law as passed on November 24, 1918.

FARIES, JOHN CULBERT. *A study in rehabilitation of the disabled soldier. New York, William Wood and Co., 1919. 7 pp. Reprinted from the Medical Record, May 24, 1919.*

FARQUHAR, HENRY H. *Positive contributions of scientific management. Reprinted from the Quarterly Journal of Economics, Vol. 33, May, 1919. Cambridge, 1919. pp. 466-503.*

The subject is considered in three parts: The elimination of some losses characteristic of present-day manufacture; the mechanical or impersonal aspects; and the human factor. The conclusion is reached that the most important of all the positive products of advanced management are the spirit of cooperation and confidence and a feeling of security, "for without these, although a certain efficiency may be obtained, true scientific management is impossible."

FLINT, ESTHER M. *Health conditions and health service in St. Paul. Written with the cooperation of Carol Aronovici. St. Paul, Amherst H. Wilder Charity, 1919. 103 pp.*

The result of a study undertaken "in consequence of the rather serious conditions of insanitation revealed by the housing survey which pointed to certain defects in sanitary legislation, and a lack of adequate and efficient municipal machinery for the enforcement of existing laws," in the hope that "the suggestions and criticisms offered will be made the subject of free discussion among the people of this city and that prompt and constructive action will result." Sections are devoted to housing; city water supply; sewage, garbage, and refuse disposal; inspection of food; control of tuberculosis; and other matters of interest to labor.

FROIS, MARCEL ET B. CAUBET. *Le rendement de la main-d'œuvre et la fatigue professionnelle (le travail féminin au bottelage des poudres). Paris, 1919. 104 pp. Price, 4 francs.*

This report gives the results of the preliminary studies of the relation of fatigue to output and of the investigations made by the writers. The authors state that this is the first report of its nature ever presented; it is based on investigation made in the packing of powder in the establishment of Ripault. In order to direct reforms already introduced and to suggest new ones, and also as a means of directing the thought of employers and employees toward the conditions under which industrial production and the well being of the laborer may both be improved, other investigations should be conducted.

GENERAL FEDERATION OF TRADE UNIONS. *Twentieth annual report and balance sheet. London, 1919. 52 pp.*

GLASS BOTTLE BLOWERS' ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA. *Wage scale and working rules. Season of 1917-1918. 4 booklets. Covered pot; machine; stopper grinding; tank. Camden, N. J., Magrath Printing House [1918]. 53, 54, 14, 93 pp., respectively.*

HOFFMAN, FREDERICK L. *A plan for a more effective Federal and State health administration. Newark, N. J., 1919. 87 pp.*

This pamphlet is a consolidation of papers read before the Commonwealth Club of San Francisco, October, 1918, and the American Public Health Association, December, 1918. The plan calls for standardized methods of physical examination, well worked out limited State medical service, sanitary and social surveys, adequate compensation of health officers, and national and local health centers.

HOLME, J. B. *British scheme for self-government of industry; and its counterpart in New South Wales. No. 2. Sydney, January 15, 1919. 35 pp.*

This pamphlet continues the account, given under a similar title and in a like form in August, 1918, of the work of the Whitley committee on relations between employers and employed, summarizing the later reports of that committee and the pamphlet on works committees published by the Ministry of Labor. The author is deputy president of the New South Wales Board of Trade and special commissioner for conciliation in that state.

LABOR OPINION. *A monthly digest of contemporary labor and industrial thought.* Vol. 1, Nos. 2, 3, 4, May, June, July, 1919. Portland, Oregon, Smith and Van Dercook, 1919. 28, 28, 31 pp. Illustrated. Price, 20 cents a copy. \$2.00 a year.

The name of this publication aptly describes its character, it being concerned largely with current thought on industrial subjects, in the form of special articles; digests of articles, addresses, and reports; editorial comment; and reviews. Articles of special interest are: United States employers' industrial commission report, with brief editorial comment on special passages; The six-hour day—summary of action taken and contemplated in this country concerning the adoption of it; The Mooney strike—for and against; The growing industrial unrest; Meat prices and profits; and Labor and politics, in the May issue; Inland Steel Company's plan; The world's war debt; and The railroad problem, in the June issue; and Shall national industrial congress be called?, and A new national problem—the street railways, in the July issue.

LABOR PARTY (BRITISH). *Memoranda on international labor legislation. The economic structure of the League of Nations.* London, 33, Eccleston Square, S. W. I., 1919. 46 pp. Price, 1 s.

This pamphlet presents not so much a definite program of proposals as convenient summaries of the facts and the position with regard to the subjects dealt with. The memoranda were prepared with the help of the labor research department by the various advisory committees, which now form part of the organization of the Labor Party, and are reprinted in this form for the information of the labor movement.

LAUCHHEIMER, MALCOLM H. *The labor law of Maryland.* Baltimore, 1919. 166 pp. Johns Hopkins University Studies, series xxvii, no. 2.

An interesting and valuable study of the development of one of the older and more conservative commonwealths of the Union, considered by the author to be an average State as regards the development of the labor law in effect. "The study begins with the law of the labor union, which has been almost entirely left to the common law. Then follows a consideration of the law of workmen's compensation, which marks the only complete abandonment of any principles of the common law referring to labor. The three succeeding chapters deal with the new social legislation, demonstrating how far the laissez-faire theory has been abandoned; and the study ends with chapters on the administrative system and the relation of the State to labor."

LAVELL, CECIL FAIRFIELD. *Reconstruction and national life.* New York, The Mac-Millan Co., 1919. 193 pp.

A study of the reconstruction problems of the French, German, Russian, and British peoples. The author believes that the basis of reconstruction in these countries "is not to be found in documents or institutions, for it is a living and dynamic basis, and the structure will not be one that may be completed in a year; its foundations have been shaping for centuries, and none of us will live to see the work receive its final touch. But in the meantime we may aid in the building by knowledge, sympathy, and good will. And our first step must be the study of the foundations on which the anxious and wearied peoples of Europe are to build, the solid and yet ever changing foundations of human life in its struggle toward a social ideal." Chapters treat The problem: Europe's unsettled questions; Revolution and readjustment in France; The French Revolution and national life: The basis of reconstruction in Germany; Idealism in German politics; The Russians and the dawn of Russian freedom; The Russian problem and the Revolution; British liberty and the Empire; The new idealism in England; and Afterword: Nationalism and internationalism.

LINGLE, MRS. THOMAS W. *A course on Americanization. Studies of the peoples and the movements that are building up the American nation.* Chapel Hill, University of North Carolina, April, 1919. 62 pp. After-the-war information series No. 3. Extension leaflets, Vol. 2, No. 8.

MCMURTRIE, DOUGLAS C. *A graphic exhibit on rehabilitation of the crippled and the blinded.* New York, 311 Fourth Avenue, 1919. 20 pp. Illustrated.

Contains illustrations of 18 sheets designed to cover in an elementary way the work of rehabilitation of disabled men—civilians as well as soldiers—which exhibit is issued jointly by the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men and the Red Cross Institute for the Blind, to be used in libraries, schools, institutions, conferences, county fairs, etc., in a campaign of public education relating to the subject.

METROPOLITAN LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY. *Mortality statistics of insured wage earners and their families. Experience of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company Industrial Department, 1911 to 1916, in the United States and Canada, by Louis I. Dublin, with the collaboration of Edwin W. Kopf and George H. Van Buren.* New York, 1919. 397 pp.

This report is intended to serve as a contribution to the public health and social welfare movements of recent years. The period covered by it is coincident with the period during which a wide program of life conservation has been developed by the company for its policyholders, and during which nearly 54,000 years of life and more than 635,000 deaths are represented. Of special interest is a section devoted to accident fatalities arising out of or in course of employment.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE. *Report for the years 1917 and 1918. Eighth and ninth annual reports: A summary of work and an accounting.* New York, 70 Fifth Avenue, January, 1919. Price, 15 cents.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WAR COUNCIL. *Committee on special war activities. For soldiers and sailors and those dependent upon them.* Washington, 930 Fourteenth Street, NW., 1919. 15 pp. (Reconstruction pamphlets No. 4.)

The purpose of this pamphlet is to set forth such features of the war risk insurance act and its amendments as will enable the returning soldier to understand clearly the rights that have accrued to him as a result of his service to his country. Benefits provided in the form of compensation for death or disability, insurance, allotments and family allowances, and the provision made for the vocational training of disabled soldiers and sailors are briefly explained.

NATIONAL GUILDS LEAGUE. *Towards a miners' guild.* London, Victoria House Printing Co. (Ltd.), 1919. 15 pp. Pamphlet No. 3. Price, 1d.

This pamphlet outlines the defects in the Miners' Federation of Great Britain which prevent its gaining control of the mining industry, suggests remedies therefor, and explains briefly the operation of a miners' guild.

— *Towards a national railway guild.* London, Victoria House Printing Co. (Ltd.), 1919. 16 pp. Pamphlet No. 4. Price, 2d.

The British railway workers hope to substitute a "self-governing community of railwaymen" for the present system of railway control. This pamphlet "defines this ideal and the steps to be taken for its realization."

NATIONAL LABOR DIGEST. Vol. 1, No. 1. San Francisco, Labor Press Association, July, 1919. 48 pp. Illustrated. Price, 15 cents a copy, \$1.50 per year.

An account of the national convention of the American Federation of Labor, held at Atlantic City in June, is the opening article of this first issue. Various subjects concerning labor are presented in the form of press comment grouped under special headings, of which particular interest attaches to those headed "Principles" and "policies"; The League of Nations; The new political labor party; Summing up the Seattle revolt; Cost of living and wages; Bolshevism not for workers; and The world of women.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL. *The principles and practice of safety. A handbook for technical schools and universities.* Chicago, 1919. Bibliography. 72 pp.

NEW SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL RESEARCH. *Announcement of courses of study, October, 1919-May, 1920. New York City, 465 West Twenty-third Street, 1919. 23 pp.*

Prospectus of a new school for social research which purposes "to seek an unbiased understanding of the existing order, its genesis, growth, and present working, as well as of those exigent circumstances which are making for its revision."

PARRY, EDWARD ABBOTT, AND CODRINGTON, SIR ALFRED EDWARD. *War pensions: Past and present. London, 1918. 180 pp.*

Deals with the history, and especially the present system, of war pensions in Great Britain.

PEARSON, SIR ARTHUR. *Victory over blindness. How it was won by the men of St. Dunstan's and how others may win it. New York, George H. Doran Co., 1919. 265 pp.*

A record of the life and work at St. Dunstan's, the British hostel for blinded soldiers and sailors.

POLITICAL SCIENCE QUARTERLY. *Vol. 34, No. 2. June, 1919. New York, 1919. Pp. 193-368. Edited for the Academy of Political Science in the City of New York by the faculty of political science of Columbia University.*

This number contains the second of a series of articles by Lewis H. Haney on Price fixing in the United States during the war. The first article having dealt with the subject with regard to its scope, its agencies, and its methods, the present article is a critical and analytical study of the activities of the principal price-fixing agencies, intended to classify and analyze the various cases of price fixing in such a way as to make clear the nature of the problems that were involved and to suggest principles.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION LIBRARY. *Industrial relations: A selected bibliography. New York, 130 East Twenty-second Street, June, 1919. 4 pp. Bulletin No. 35.*

RYAN, W. P. *The Irish labor movement from the 'twenties to our own day. Dublin, The Talbot Press (Ltd.), 1919. 266 pp.*

A history of the Irish labor movement to 1919, based upon a close study of books, parliamentary reports, pamphlets, trade-union documents, newspapers, etc. The facts concerning Irish trade-unionism revealed before the select committees of 1824, 1825, and 1838 are dealt with rather fully, and chapters of special interest are devoted to the work and teachings of some of the later labor leaders—Davitt, Connolly, and Larkin. The last chapter, entitled "Toward the Commonwealth", sums up the present situation and gives the text of the "objects and methods, the Declaration of Rights and the way to their realization" decided upon by the special congress held in Dublin in November, 1918. Regarding the strength of trade-unionism of all kinds in Ireland, the author says "the estimates have varied, but leaders set the number toward the close of 1918—a year of record and rally and progress—at a quarter of a million. This included unaffiliated unionists as well as those affiliated to the Irish Trade-Union Congress—the latter varied element including purely Irish unions, Irish bodies in 'United Kingdom' federations, and Irish branches of British unions (affiliated of course on the Irish membership). Of the 40,000 unionists in the Belfast area—of whom engineers are necessarily a goodly proportion—some 20,000 are in affiliation with the Irish Trade-Union Congress. The tendency of the newer unions, like those of the clerks, etc., is to be entirely Irish organizations, even as the Irish Transport and General Workers' Union."

SIMONS, A. M. *The vision for which we fought. A study in reconstruction. New York, The MacMillan Co., 1919. 197 pp. The Citizen's Library.*

This book is a study of the application to existing social and industrial conditions of the lessons taught by the war. The special points of such application are considered in chapters dealing with The industrial foundation, Growing power of labor, The new State, The social surplus, Women and the war, The farm in war, What war taught the schools, Saving life in war, The new internationalism, A positive league of nations,

and Conscious continuance of reconstruction. The author thinks that the point to be made is "not any particular program. It is that the entire people in democratic nations should realize the problem before them and the opportunity in sight and should grasp the fact that conscious direction of the destinies of peoples is now possible."

SOUTHERN RAILWAY EMPLOYEES IMMEDIATE RELIEF ASSOCIATION. *Industrial and shippers' directory, containing classified lists of industries, manufacturers, dealers, banks, and commercial clubs located at towns upon the system. Washington, December 30, 1916. 177 pp.*

TODD, ALBERT M. *Public ownership of railroads. Statement of Hon. Albert M. Todd, president of the Public Ownership League of America, in the hearings before the Committee on Interstate Commerce, United States Senate, February 21, 1919. Washington, 1919. 44 pp.*

UNION INDUSTRIAL ARGENTINA. *Boletín. May 15, 1919. Vol. 33, No. 605. Buenos Aires, 1919. 66 pp.*

The official organ of the Industrial Union of Argentina. This number contains: Strikes and industries; The four factors in industry; Industrial development in Argentina (continued); Catalogue of accident prevention devices; and History of labor legislation in Argentina.

The ten companies authorized to contract accident insurance issued 12,544 policies in 1918. These covered 269,861 employees whose wages amounted to 176,923,869 pesos (\$79,173,431). The premium collected amounted to 3,923,102 pesos (\$1,755,588). The following amounts were paid as compensation: For deaths, 221,661 pesos (\$99,193); total incapacity, 8,600 pesos (\$3,849); permanent partial incapacity, 373,961 pesos (\$167,348); and temporary incapacity, 856,936 pesos (\$383,479). The total compensation amounted to 1,461,258 pesos (\$653,913).¹

A recent regulation provides that in all establishments required to provide seats for employees there shall be at least two-thirds as many chairs provided in each establishment as there are female employees, exclusive of those provided for the use of the public.

VAN KLEECK, MARY A. *The new spirit in industry. Address delivered before the Toledo Consumers League, May 3, 1919. Toledo, 1919. 15 pp. Toledo Consumers League, Pamphlet No. 26.*

The author believes that there are certain encouraging signs of a new spirit in industry, and a "realization on the part of the management in industry of the importance of devising new methods of expressing human relations."

VEAL, RONALD TUTTLE, AND OTHERS. *Classified bibliography of boy life and organized work with boys. New York, Association Press, 1919. 198 pp.*

VERBAND SCHWEIZ KONSUMVEREIN. *Rechenschaftsbericht über die Tätigkeit der Verbandsbehörden für das Jahr 1918. Basel, 1919. 136 pp.*

The annual report of the Federation of Swiss Cooperative Stores on its activities during the year 1918. The report shows how greatly the federation has prospered during the war. In 1914 the number of cooperative stores and societies affiliated with the federation was 396 and the total amount of its sales 45,717,077 francs (\$8,823,396). In 1918 the corresponding figures were 461 and 129,719,746 francs (\$25,035,911), the increase in sales being equivalent to 183.7 per cent. During the same four-year period the net profits of the federation increased from 351,279 francs (\$67,797) to 1,053,472 francs (\$203,320). The large increase in sales is of course largely due to the increase of prices during the war, but on the other hand it should be kept in mind that this factor was in part offset by the smaller consumption of foodstuffs and other commodities owing to rationing. The report states that begin-

¹ Figures given as in original. Conversions into United States money are made at 44.75 cents, the prevailing rate of exchange in 1918.

ning with January 1, 1919, the federation will introduce the 48-hour week in all its shops and factories, the 42½-hour week in its general office at Basel, and the 46½-hour week in its printing establishment at Basel.

WETHERED, E. H. C. *The place of conciliation and arbitration in the "Whitley" scheme of industrial self-government.* London, Industrial Reconstruction Council, 1919. 11 pp.

This is a lecture by the chairman of the Bristol Local Munitions Tribunal, delivered before the Industrial Reconstruction Council on November 5, 1918.

WORSFOLD, W. BASIL. *The war and social reform. An endeavor to trace the influence of the war as a reforming agency, with special reference to matters primarily affecting the wage-earning classes.* London, John Murray, 1919. 248 pp.

This book is the outcome of a visit paid in the spring of 1918 to the lines of communication in France. It was written before the conclusion of the war, and was intended to focus attention upon some of the more obvious problems which the author foresaw would be involved in reconstruction, particularly those relating to industry. Chapters consider The revival of agriculture; The extension and improvement of the system of public education; The participation of labor in the profits and administration of industry; Progress in social reform; and The increase in the productive capacity of the nation. An appendix is devoted to the ideas contained in a pamphlet entitled "Cosmos: A scheme for industrial cooperation between capital and labor." This pamphlet was written by an employer of labor and was edited, with an introduction, by Douglas Sladen.

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.
- 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.

Wages and Hours of Labor—Concluded.

- 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.
- Bul. 252. Wages and hours of labor in slaughtering and meat-packing industry. [In press.]
- Bul. 259. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1918. [In press.]
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