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The Cost of Industrial Accidents.

By Royal Meeker, United States Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

THAT the cost of industrial accidents is enormous is recognized by all who have any knowledge of industry and of statistics. Just how enormous the cost is we do not know, and can not even guess. We do not know how many industrial accidents occur in any State in the Union. We know even less of the nature, results, and social cost of these accidents. The most important of all industrial accidents, unemployment, we have not even come to recognize as an accident at all, although it causes vastly more slowing down of production, demoralization, distress, and suffering than all other industrial mishaps.

No doubt most people suppose that very accurate and up-to-date statistics of industrial accidents causing physical injuries exist in the 42 States, 4 Territories, and in the jurisdiction of the United States Government, because of the workmen's compensation laws. Nothing could be farther from the truth. Statistics of accidents, their results and their cost, have been compiled in but few of these compensation jurisdictions, and such statistical compilations as have been made are utterly incomparable because of marked differences in the provisions of the different laws and the lack of standardization of the methods of statistical presentation. There is an astonishing lack of uniformity in these laws as to the industries and occupations covered, the waiting period and the amount of money compensation, and the medical benefits provided. The compensation law of New Jersey includes farm and domestic labor and fishermen besides industrial workers in the narrower sense. Mr. Carl Hookstadt, of the Bureau of Labor Statistics' staff, estimates that perhaps 98 per cent of all workers may be brought under the New Jersey Act. In Alabama, on the other hand, the exclusions are so numerous that the percentage of workers which may possibly be brought under the protection of this so-called compensation law is only 33.6 per cent. Mr. Hookstadt in his estimates has given the benefit of the doubt in every instance to the laws, consequently his estimates err on the side of too great liberality. This is noticeably true of Pennsylvania in which he credits the law with a coverage of 88.8 per cent of all wage earners, although farm, domestic, and casual labor are excluded,

Address delivered at the Pennsylvania Safety Congress, held at Harrisburg, Pa., Mar. 21-25, 1920. 18311

and Pennsylvania is, with all its industries, a great agricultural State. Maine, with an estimated coverage of 72.9 per cent, excludes farm, domestic, and casual labor and logging operations, one of the most important industries and the most hazardous one, of the State. Tennessee, with an estimated coverage of 37.2 per cent, excludes establishments with less than 10 employees, farm, domestic, "casual," and public employees, and coal mines, which employ more men than any other industry of the State in this the most hazardous, perhaps, of all industries.

There is no rhyme or reason to the exclusions of the laws in the different States. Some exclude nonhazardous occupations and industries; others exclude the hazardous occupations. Taking all the States together, Mr. Hookstadt's very liberal estimate credits the compensation laws with a coverage of about 65 per cent of the workers. When we consider the number who are shut out by failure to elect in those States having elective laws and the number who are ignorant of their rights to compensation under the law, I think not more than 40 per cent of the wage earners are actually enjoying the

meager protection of our compensation laws.

The lack of uniformity in coverage is equaled or surpassed by the inexplicable inequalities in money and medical compensation benefits provided in the laws. The length of the waiting period too varies considerably, thus causing the amount of compensation benefits to vary. It is impossible in this paper to indicate the extent of the variations in the amount of compensation provided. It is even more impossible to ascertain the reasons or the vagaries which obsessed the legislators in enacting some of the more peculiar of the compensation laws. But surely, it will be said, the States must know how much is paid out each year for compensation and from these figures a reasonably accurate calculation or estimate of the cost of industrial accidents can be made. Perhaps the States know how much they pay in compensation each year; but if they do they, with few exceptions, keep this valuable information strictly to themselves. Even if this information were available, it would be an impossible task, for reasons pointed out above, to translate it into the money costs of industrial accidents, to say nothing of the other costs.

It does seem incredible that of the 42 jurisdictions which have had workmen's compensation laws long enough to give them accident compensation experience, only 26 have found it possible or worth while to publish anything showing the costs of compensation to the employers covered in their acts. Of course, many compensation commissions may have knowledge of what they are doing which they do not give to the public. Employers, employees, and the undefined public have a right to know all the facts regarding the number and severity of accidents and the amount of compensation paid. This

information is so easy to compile, it would seem possible for all jurisdictions to make it public every year. Even the astonishingly meager information extant is discouragingly vague and impossible of interpretation.

State Compensation Reports.

T IS too soon to expect reports for 1919, but California, Montana, 1 and the United States Employees' Compensation Commission have already reported for that year the money payments for fatal and nonfatal cases and the medical costs. Only five States—California, Maryland, Minnesota, Montana, and New Jersey—report compensation payments separately for fatal and nonfatal cases and for medical treatment and burial for the years 1916 to 1918, inclusive. Michigan reported these costs for the year 1916 and then quit, Nebraska for 1917 and 1918, and the United States Employees' Compensation Commission for 1918. Oklahoma and Wisconsin show for the three years, 1916-1918, the total money compensation and the medical and burial benefits. Hawaii, New York, and Vermont published this information for 1916; Texas for 1916 and 1918; Massachusetts for 1916 and 1917; Iowa for 1917 and 1918; and South Dakota for 1918. Ohio and Nevada have published the total amounts paid for compensation and burial for 1916-1918; Connecticut for 1916 and 1917; Pennsylvania for 1916; Colorado for 1917 and 1918; Indiana for 1917: Kentucky and Wyoming for 1918.

Seventeen jurisdictions have thus far published for the year 1918 the total amounts paid for all compensation, including medical benefits. The years cover quite different months. Some are calendar years, some fiscal years, and some compensation years determined by the date when the compensation laws became operative. The total amount of all compensation as reported by these 17 jurisdictions was \$16,782,610. The total estimated number of workers included therein was nearly 11,600,000 and the total estimated number entitled to come under the acts was 5,360,000. If we assume that five million workers were actually brought under the acts, the compensation payments would amount to a yearly charge of \$3.36 per employee. The utter uselessness of this average of a whole series of averages is shown by bringing it into contrast with the average cost of \$4.85 per employee for Ohio, \$4.39 for California, and \$1.72 for New Jersey. These wildly different costs bear no readily ascertainable relationship to the actual costs of accidents in these different States. The real cost of accidents in Ohio is not of course two and one-half times their cost in New Jersey. The differences are due to differences in industries covered, waiting period, amount of compensation provided, maximum and minimum limits, and other differences in the acts and the administration of them.

It will be readily conceded that the way of the proverbial transgressor is no harder than that of the virtuous statistician bent on compiling statistics of compensation payments in the various compensation jurisdictions within the United States. Why worry about these compensation payments by the States? If we had them they would not mean a thing as to accident frequency, accident severity, or accident cost. Very true, but the employers, employees, legislators, and administrators of each State should know how much is being awarded every year in their State in compensation to injured workers regardless of the fact that these amounts represent only a fraction of the actual social losses due to industrial accidents in each State.

It is a waste of time to try to compute the costs of industrial accidents from the reports of compensation payments made by the States. It is, however, well worth while to show just how far we still are from knowing anything definite about these costs or even about the payments made by employers under the compensation laws. If what I have said will have the effect of spurring some delinquent State to provide for something like adequate statistics of accident occurrence, results and cost, I shall feel that my labors with the not very fascinating or illuminating reports have not been in vain.

Are Accidents Decreasing?

DEFORE leaving this arid statistical desert, I wish to call attention D to the fact that compensation payments are increasing year by year in all the States which have published figures which enable us to make comparisons. The unwary might jump to the conclusion that these increases are due to the growing number of industrial accidents. It may be that accidents are increasing. It is a shameful confession to be obliged to make, but we don't know whether the net result of our efforts to reduce industrial accidents has been more accidents or fewer accidents, a greater or a smaller loss in disability-time. I can not formulate a stronger plea for better and more complete statistics than these poor mute figures shout from the pages of these reports. We do know that certain plants have cut down the frequency of accidents. The analyses made by Mr. L. W. Chaney of the accident records of some steel plants show that they have not only reduced their accident frequency rates, but, what is of real importance, they have cut down their severity rates as well. Fewer man-hours are lost per 1,000 hours worked by some establishments to-day than before the war, and that in spite of most adverse conditions. Whether these encouraging results apply to the whole steel industry or not, we can not say. As to what is happening in other industries, we are as blissfully ignorant as the ostrich with his head buried in the sand.

Some individual plants require very complete reporting of every accident and some of these plants tabulate and analyze these reports for the purpose of reducing accidents and accident costs. I am bound to say, however, that only a few of the largest and most progressive employers know whether their accident experience is improving or growing worse. Some who think they are improving fool themselves into so thinking, because they are able to show a smaller number of accidents or a smaller rate of accident occurrence. If these employers had their accidents tabulated by severity of injury their time losses would show greater than at any time since they began to preach the gospel of safety-first to their workers.

I am ready to believe that the accident severity rate has not grown worse since 1912, when the safety movement became fully organized. I am ready to believe it, because I want to believe it. Individual plants and great corporations comprising many plants have reduced their accident rates, both frequency and severity rates. What has been done by one employer, or perhaps one industry, can surely be done by many or all. I am quite willing to believe that the growing compensation bill, the universal experience in all States. is due to extending the coverage of the laws, liberalizing the compensation provided, cutting down the waiting period, better and more enlightened administration methods and practices, and the growing knowledge of the workers as to their rights under the laws. Let us hope these explanations really explain this phenomenon. But why should we trust to blind faith when the expenditure of a few thousand dollars would give us assured knowledge? Faith is a beautiful trait. In its proper place it is a virtue greatly to be praised; but it is no fit substitute for statistics in determining public policy or the results of a public measure.

Of course, the economic cost of industrial accidents was enormously greater before compensation laws were enacted. It can not be too frequently or too emphatically stated that providing for compensation payments to injured workers does not create a new cost to be borne by industry and the community. It merely readjusts the burdens, thereby making them lighter to carry and incidentally bringing home to employers and the public the fact that industrial accidents are an expensive luxury. The first workmen's compensation laws were advocated and their enactment secured largely under the theory that the vast majority of industrial accidents occur through nobody's fault or negligence and that therefore the theories of employer's liability, employee's carelessness, and contributory negligence were all wrong. If necessity is the mother of invention, experience is its father. A short experience under compensation laws convinced insurance carriers and insurance pavers that industrial accidents are not a divinely ordained and established part of the great plan of creation, and therefore beyond the power of mere man to control or influence in any way. The more enlightened insurance companies and employers had made this important discovery long before compensation legislation had been thought of in this country, but it required the painful experience of paying for industrial injuries and the necessity of reducing these charges on the costs of production to bring forth the idea that industrial accidents are not chance occurrences like thunderstorms, earthquakes, and volcanic eruptions, but are, in most instances, the inevitable results of negligence on the part of either employer or employee. Do not misunderstand me as advocating a return to the old employers' liability system with the common-law defenses. It would be difficult to devise a more unjust system than that. In few cases of industrial accident can negligence of the employer be proven. Negligence on the part of the employee is more obvious, but even that is not easy to prove. The old liability system was thoroughly bad with its expensive litigation, cumbersome and occult court procedure, long delays, unsatisfactory verdicts, and consequent aggravation of class suspicions and hatreds. To-day, however, we who take pride in working for the common welfare advocate the workmen's compensation laws more vigorously than ever, not because industrial accidents are inevitable, but because they are inevitable but avoidable consequences of bad shop and machine construction, or bad shop practice. The best way to improve these bad features is to make it costly to the backward, unenlightened employers to continue them or allow them to be continued. I do not, of course, say that all that has been accomplished in the way of reducing, or preventing the increase of, our accident rates is the result of the enactment of compensation laws. I do say, however, that the compensation laws have done more than any other one thing to stimulate interest in and give an intelligent program to the safety movement. Accident reports are for the first time required by law and some progress has been made toward gathering and compiling standard accident tables. The accident records are being studied for the first time by capable statisticians and safety men for the purpose of ascertaining how, why, and what accidents occur and of preventing as many as can be prevented. Our knowledge of accidents, like our compensation laws, is still very imperfect, but we at least realize that industrial accidents are costly and that they are, to an unbelievable degree, preventable.

The Accident of Unemployment.

A S TO unemployment, the most costly and the only purely industrial and occupational accident, we have no reliable record whatever. A man may break his arm by falling over a cuspidor in his home; he may be killed by any fool driving an automobile.

Everything in the way of a physical injury that can occur to him while working at his regular occupation can happen to him in his home, on the street, at church, any place he may be. But the only way he can become unemployed is to lose his job. Nonindustrial physical injury accidents are probably quite as numerous as and even more destructive than industrial physical injury accidents. There is no such thing as nonindustrial unemployment. It is therefore the only purely industrial hazard. There are two very distinct kinds of unemployment—what we may call out-of-work unemployment and unemployment on the job. Both result in material loss to the individual worker and to society and in the demoralization of the worker. Out-of-work unemployment is a self-explanatory term and needs no elucidation. By "unemployment on the job," I mean the lost time and consequent slowing down of production because of the deliberate expert loafing on the part of the workers, or the lack of a proper system of routing of work, and insufficient reserves of tools, machines, and skilled pivotal men to keep the whole force working smoothly.

The unemployment due to strikes excites most attention, because the newspapers and magazines play up such dramatic manifestations. Newspaper correspondents are in the habit of setting down their guesses as to the cost in money of the more important strikes, while some especially ambitious writers have attempted to estimate the money cost of all strikes for a selected period. I do not wish to try to diminish the seriousness of the menace or the appalling waste occasioned by strikes, when I say that the individual and social losses from strikes are relatively unimportant as compared with the losses from unemployment of the regular, orthodox, undramatic type that doesn't get any newspaper advertising. The cost of strikes is commonly displayed as losses of wages to the strikers, loss of profits to the employers, and loss of interest on capital invested. These estimates are necessarily crude and often misleading. It sometimes happens in a big strike that the curtailment of production results in such a sharp advance in the price of the product that the employer makes not a loss but a net gain. In such a case idle capital earns more for the owners than busy capital. But this fact does not convert the capital loss into a gain. In such a case the buying public and the wage earners bear the whole burden of the material losses incident to the strike. If the wage earners win the strike they may be able to drive such a shrewd Scotch bargain as to shift the entire burden of loss to the ultimate consumers. It would be more accurate to calculate the material losses of a strike in terms of product unproduced and then allocate the losses between the several parties at interest, taking account of changes in prices and wage rates in the industry.

If the material losses were to be computed as indicated above at the expense of great labor and much time, the computer could triumphantly display an appallingly huge sum of money which would be a more or less inaccurate estimate of the material cost of the strike or strikes and which would give no hint of the really important and significant costs of these industrial upheavals. Money can not measure the class suspicion and hatred generated or aggravated, the demoralization of the workers resulting from idleness, especially if the strike is lost, the inconvenience, destitution, suffering, and death to workers and to consumers which so frequently accompany a big strike bitterly contested.

Prevalence and Cost of Unemployment.

CTRIKES and lockouts have contributed their thousands to the ranks of the out-of-workers, but irregularities and failure in supplies of raw materials, transportation, and demand for commodities produced, and lack of proper organization in industry, have contributed their millions. No statistical statement is possible, for no accurate information exists as to the time lost by reason of strikes, to say nothing of our almost 100 per cent of ignorance of the time lost due to other causes. We do know in a general way that unemployment has existed during prosperous conditions of industry to an appalling degree. For years the States of Massachusetts and New York published figures showing percentage of unemployment among tradeunion members in those States. In Massachusetts the unemployment percentage among unionists rises to 17.9 per cent in 1914, while the minimum at any time since 1908 was 3 per cent in 1918. The unemployment percentage is even greater in New York State, the maximum being 40.1 per cent in 1913, and the minimum 5.9 per cent in 1912. Unemployment among trade-union members in Great Britain, as shown by official figures, rarely exceeds 8 per cent and drops as low as three-tenths of 1 per cent of the total membership.

No accurate comparisons between Great Britain and New York and Massachusetts are possible because unemployment in Great Britain is determined by the receipt of trade-union unemployment benefits which are paid for varying periods that differ among the unions—usually only after the member of a union has been out of work for one week, and not more than 26 weeks. Few American unions pay out-of-work benefits and the trade-union secretaries in most instances reported as unemployed all nonstriking members of their unions who were not actually working on a given date or over a period of time. The British figures were, of course, much more complete and accurate than the New York and Massachusetts figures, for they were based upon numbers actually receiving unemployment benefits, whereas the American figures included only those reporting to the union head-quarters or the number estimated (guessed at) by the secretary. The

British figures differentiate those out on strike or lockout from those unemployed through other causes. The American figures are supposed to exclude workers out on strike. How much the American figures would be reduced if we could exclude all unemployment under one week, or how much the British figures would be increased if all unemployed were counted on a selected day, we can only guess. It seems inescapable, however, that if the figures could be corrected and brought to a common basis, unemployment among trade-unionists would be shown to be several times more prevalent in the United States than in Great Britain in the years before the war. How unemployment in the two countries would compare to-day we have no means even of guessing. The Unemployment Insurance Act of Great Britain enables the Government and the people to know very accurately the amount of employment and unemployment at any time. In the United States we know less than ever about unemployment because both New York and Massachusetts have given up their efforts to ascertain the number of trade-union members out of work. The only official figures we now have bearing on employment and unemployment for the whole country are those published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, giving for a limited number of plants in certain industries the number of employees on the pay roll and the amount of the wage bill each month, and the statistics of strikes which are carried from time to time.

The percentage of unemployment among nonunion workers is always higher than among union members. This was especially true of the United States before the war, when it was the deliberate policy of the largest employers of labor, especially unskilled or semiskilled labor, to keep on tap, as it were, a large reserve force of labor upon which to draw in case of strike or any emergency requiring additional men. This practice has almost disappeared because the surplus supply of labor has been succeeded by a dearth of labor in most localities and industries. One inevitable result of the very profound changes in labor supply has been to increase the proportion of the unemployed who are out of work because of strikes. But we must not too hastily jump to the conclusion that all or most unemployment to-day is due to strikes. No definite statistical information exists, but from a study of such cases as have come to my attention I am convinced that strikes to-day, as always, are insignificant in causing stoppage of work in comparison with unemployment due to dearth of raw materials, lack of orders for output, insufficient transportation, lack of a properly balanced organization of industry, lack of an intelligent employment policy for hiring and handling men, failure to gain and keep the good will of employees, failure to make use of the tremendous latent creative force lying dormant in the workers.

I have heretofore been unfavorable to unemployment insurance in this country for the reason that we lack the necessary machinery to carry such a law into effect. The dangers of industrial catastrophe and depression which lie in the not distant future make it absolutely necessary that we adopt now a constructive program to deal with unemployment. For the guidance of legislators and administrators the facts as to employment and unemployment must be known. A proper system of unemployment insurance is, I think, indispensable for ascertaining the amount and kind of unemployment. It is not necessary that the unemployment benefits be so large as to support idlers in idleness. The trained expert loafers who work at their craft all the year round would, of course, be excluded from benefits. The good old law which John Smith created and executed in the colony of Virginia should be revived. "Those who won't work can't eat." Unemployment insurance connotes, as a necessary part of the system, that everybody shall work when suitable work is offered.

The cost of this most costly and destructive of all industrial hazards, unemployment, is appalling. Its money cost, reckoned in terms of product unproduced, services unrendered, and capital goods tost or deteriorated in value, I estimate, or guess, would amount to more than half the value of the yearly product of all our industries. This means that we are operating our industries on a 662 per cent efficiency basis and are losing by not producing something like thirty-five billion dollars a year, just because we have not yet recognized that ignorance, however blissful, is mighty expensive. Of course, unemployment insurance alone will not increase our national income to more than one hundred billion dollars at a single bound. But it will help to call attention to the cost of unemployment, just as workmen's compensation laws have called attention to the costs of the less costly and less demoralizing industrial accidents which result in physical mainings and deaths. The aim of all employers, employees, managers, and engineers should be to prevent all preventable industrial accidents. In order to do this they must be informed as to what, where, and how accidents occur, the results of such accidents, and the means by which they may be reduced or eliminated. The greatest need of the world to-day is for facts—statistical facts. Every dollar spent for real statistics will save two dollars which will otherwise be wasted in needless experimentation.

COMPENSATION PAID FOR ACCIDENTS IN RECENT YEARS IN 25 STATES AND IN THE UNITED STATES.

States reporting amount paid for fatal and for nonfatal accidents, and for medical and burial service.

1916.

State.	Fatal.	Nonfatal.	Compensa- tion total.	Medical and burial.	Grand total.
California Maryland Michigan Minnesota Montana New Jersey	\$203, 286 22, 043 405, 347 42, 029 169, 201 355, 016	\$947, 217 245, 859 1, 318, 270 382, 054 103, 846 552, 575	\$1, 150, 503 267, 902 1, 723, 617 424, 083 273, 047 907, 591	\$852, 202 119, 176 189, 456 255, 542 20, 441 158, 059	\$2,002,705 387,078 1,913,073 679,625 293,488 1,065,650
Nebraska West Virginia United States	578, 400	401,740	980, 140	113, 752	1,093,892
		1917.			
California	\$250,361 30,461	\$1,316,654 415,481	\$1,567,015 445,942	\$1, 109, 073 145, 268	\$2,676,088 591,210
Michigan Minnesota Montana New Jersey Nebraska West Virginia United States	64, 974 250, 801 403, 778 8, 642 667, 800	452, 648 220, 990 727, 561 101, 204 511, 225	517, 622 471, 791 1, 131, 339 109, 846 1, 179, 025 238, 628	257, 014 38, 887 150, 499 53, 326 140, 118 70, 460	774, 636 510, 678 1, 281, 836 163, 177 1, 319, 143 309, 088
		1918.			
California	\$241,884 56,742	\$1,263,562 381,992	\$1,505,446 438,734	\$1,178,357 231,175	\$2,683,803 669,909
Michigan Minnesota Montana New Jersey Nebraska	48,775 344,964 383,756 11,573	647, 472 137, 558 962, 734 90, 967	696, 247 482, 522 1, 346, 490 102, 540	336, 362 39, 502 136, 828 40, 536	1,032,609 522,024 1,483,318 143,076
West Virginia. United States.	79, 159	453, 927	533, 086	173, 170	706,256
		1919.			
California	\$273,831 208,258 226,619	\$1,963,203 220,195 906,595	\$2,237,034 428,453 1,133,214	\$1,228,617 28,556 266,542	\$3,465,65 457,009 1,399,75

States reporting total amount paid for accidents and for medical and burial service.

		1916			1917			1918	
State.	Total compensation.	Medical and burial.	Grand total.	Total compensation.	Medical and burial.	Grand total.	Total compensation.	Medical and burial.	Grand total.
Hawaii Iowa Mass N. Y Okla S. Dak	\$10,135 1,334,020 9,360,000 108,713	\$19,397 636,292 3,443,000 91,546	\$29,532 1,970,312 12,803,000 200,259	\$249,965 1,738,011 318,681	\$75,471 907,175 188,015	\$325, 436 2, 645, 186 506, 696	\$334,970 452,988 43,656	\$60,080 210,775 24,925	\$395,050 663,763 68,581
Tex Vt Wis	389, 324 66, 764 938, 774	103,875 30,357 277,415	493, 199 97, 121 1, 216, 189	1, 184, 371	391,958	1,576,329	686, 958 1, 278, 383	214, 973	901, 931

COMPENSATION PAID FOR ACCIDENTS IN RECENT YEARS IN 25 STATES AND IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

States reporting only total amount paid.

State.	Total amount paid in—				
State.	1916	1917	1918		
Colorado Connecticut Indiana. Kentucky	\$775, 167	\$394, 901 1, 319, 432 751, 297	\$383,766		
Ohio Nevada. Pennsylvania	2,309,721 165,982 1,406,901	3, 966, 708 313, 002	118, 705 4, 893, 122 316, 276		
Wyoming			94, 953		

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WORKERS COVERED BY COMPENSATION ACTS.

State.	Total.	Workers covered by act.		
State.	workers in State.	Number.	Per cent.	
California	1 050 000		100	
Maryland	1, 058, 836	611, 941	76.5	
Minnesota	523, 219	188, 433	45. 9	
FF. 1 .	1,080,812	597, 585	83.	
	788, 533	379, 349	79. (
	159, 345	56, 826	50.9	
	1, 035, 858	861, 963	99.8	
	417, 894	146, 034	70.4	
	425, 654	212, 812	80. 1	
	553, 991	553, 991	100.0	
	98, 052	80, 319	92.6	
owa	786, 220	266, 936	62.	
Massachusetts	1, 497, 654	1, 109, 134	87.5	
New York	3,897,994	2, 503, 020	80. 1	
Oklahoma	582, 419	87, 522	35.	
South Dakota	210, 978	53, 997	58. (
Texas	1,504,719	306, 777	47.	
7ermont	139, 032	50, 942	55. 2	
Visconsin	862, 160	405, 009	75. 4	
Colorado	318, 586	137, 157	63. 1	
Connecticut	479, 598	322, 211	81. 9	
ndiana	993, 066	502, 729	79.	
Kentucky	842,551	253, 281	60.2	
	1, 844, 103	1,008,813	76.3	
Vevada	41, 149			
Pennsylvania	2, 996, 363	24,746	76. 2	
Wyoming	60, 795	2, 149, 867 19, 857	88. 8 46. 3	

The law of Pennsylvania offers an experience of four years, from January 1, 1916, to December 31, 1919. The following is a summary of this experience prepared by the statistician of the compensation board, showing compensation awards and payments, medical costs not included.

Special attention is called to the fact that for fatal accidents the figures represent cases for which awards were made (not the number of cases occurring) in each year, the sum being the full amount of compensation awarded during the year, including \$100 funeral benefits.

For nonfatal accidents covered by the schedule for major dismemberments (loss of eye, arm, hand, leg, or foot) the amount reported is the full award made in cases adjudicated during the year;

while in other cases the report is of the full amount paid on account of disabilities which terminated during the year.

These figures are not comparable with those given above for other jurisdictions, and are presented solely as showing compensation payments and awards in an important industrial State.

COMPENSATION EXPERIENCE IN PENNSYLVANIA FOR FOUR YEARS, 1916 TO 1919. [Medical cost not included.]

	Fatal accidents.		Nonfatal accidents.		Total.	
Year.	Number of cases.	Compensation.2	Number of cases.	Compen- sation. ³	Number of cases.	Compen sation.
1916. 1917. 1918. 1919.	1,727 1,946 2,607 2,496	\$4,116,075 4,189,328 6,859,718 6,431,155	69, 566 48, 122 67, 313 54, 609	\$3,417,655 2,265,884 4,780,197 4,551,681	71, 293 50, 068 69, 920 57, 105	\$7,533,730 6,455,212 11,639,915 10,982,836
4 years	8,776	21, 596, 276	239,610	15, 015, 417	248,386	36, 611, 693

 $^{^2}$ Awards made during year. 3 Awards made during year in schedule cases; total benefits paid in other cases.

Scope and Operation of the Workmen's Compensation Laws of the United States.

By LINDLEY D. CLARK.

QUESTIONNAIRE of the British Government on the subject of compensation to workmen for injuries was submitted to the Department of Labor for information as to conditions and results under the laws of the various States. This questionnaire called for data not to be found in any single publication now in existence. The laws in existence at the end of the year 1916 appear in Bulletin No. 203 of the Bureau of Labor Statistics; new legislation and amendments of 1917 and 1918 appear in Bulletin No. 243. Legislation of 1919 has been collated, but the date of its publication can not yet be announced. A comparison of the laws in force up to December 31, 1917, with detailed analysis covering many of the points of the questionnaire appears in Bulletin No. 240. This bulletin has been revised and brought up to date, but will not be ready for distribution for some time. The published bulletins present the facts largely as they exist, no very considerable modification having taken place by reason of recent legislation, though many minor changes have been made, and some of more importance. New laws have also been enacted in four States-Alabama, Missouri, North Dakota, and Tennessee—not mentioned in any of these bulletins. A very general summary reply to the inquiries under the various heads of the questionnaire was prepared, the facts shown being as of December 31, 1919. The questionnaire follows:

Workmen's compensation. British questionnaire, 1919.

I.—Scope of System.

1. What occupations and industries are included?

2. What classes of workers are included? What special provisions are there, if any, in regard to particular classes, e. g., State employees and seamen?

3. Are any, and, if so, what industrial or occupational diseases covered as well as injuries by accident? What special provisions are there, if any, in regard to such diseases?

II.—Character of System Adopted.

1. Whether (a) State fund.

(b) Mutual associations.

(c) Private insurance companies.

If there is a State fund, whether it has a monopoly, or competes with private insurance companies and mutual associations.

Security for payment of compensation—whether by compulsory insurance, State guaranty, or otherwise.

3. If compulsory insurance, how does the State enforce the obligation on the employer to insure?

14

- 4. If there is a State guaranty—
 - (a) What is its form?
 - (b) If a fund is established, from what source is it maintained, how is it administered, and to what extent is it drawn upon?
 - (c) What risks are covered?
- 5. If no security by compulsory insurance or State guaranty, what evidence is there of workmen's loss of compensation through inability of employers to pay, insolvency of insurance company, and so forth?
- 6. Self-insurance.—If allowed, on what conditions and to what extent resorted to? Is any other form of contracting out permitted?
- 7. Reasons, historical, economical and otherwise, why system actually in force was adopted, and whether, since inception, it has undergone any, and, if so, what modifications, with reasons for the change.
- 8. Criticisms by employers, workers or others of existing system.

III.—Comparison of Different Methods of Insurance.

Where alternative methods of insurance are allowed—

- (1) How do State fund, mutual associations, and private insurance companies compare, in regard to efficiency and services given, with special reference to methods adopted to secure expedition in dealing with claims?
- (2) Comparison, accompanied where possible by detailed statistics, showing-
 - (a) Cost of premiums or assessments.
 - (b) Numbers of employers adopting the alternative methods generally, or according to particular trades.
 - (c) Cost of administration as compared with amount of compensation paid.

IV.—Organization of State Funds.

1. Administrative:

- (a) Constitution, powers, and procedure of authorities administering funds.
- (b) Extent to which representatives of employers and workers respectively have a voice in management.
- (c) Does State employ agents or advertise when State fund is in competition with private companies?
- (d) Machinery for payment of compensation or benefit. Is agency, e. g., of post office, resorted to?

2. FINANCIAL:

- (a) Are sufficient moneys raised in each year to cover?
 - (1) The cost of claims which ardse during the year and were disposed of during the year, e. g., cases of temporary incapacity when the worker has recovered?
 - (2) All liability in respect of claims which arose during the year and were a continuing liability at the end of the year, e. g., cases where incapacity is still continuing and which involve future payments? Is the sum set aside for every case of permanent total or permanent partial incapacity estimated on an annuity basis, and, if not, how is it estimated? Are periodical valuations made to ascertain whether the yearly provision made for liability for outstanding claims has in fact proved sufficient?
- (b) Sources of income.
 - (1) Do workers contribute, and to what extent?
 - (2) Does State contribute, and to what extent—whether by direct payment, or by the provision of services of officials, office accommodation, traveling expenses, etc., the cost of which is charged to general State outlay and not to the State fund?

2. FINANCIAL—Continued.

(c) What are the requirements as to reserves?

(d) Is the solvency of the fund guaranteed by the State? If so, how?

(e) Premiums.

Principles and methods of establishing rates. Risk classification. How far are premiums or contributions varied from year to year according to risks of each particular establishment or class of establishment?

(f) Financial difficulties encountered, their cause, and how surmounted?

(g) When State fund set up and given a monopoly of workmen's compensation insurance, what provision, if any, was made in regard to existing private insurance companies?

(h) When State fund set up to compete with private companies, what has

been the effect on the cost of the premiums of the latter?

V.—Organization of Mutual Associations.

1. Administrative:

(a) Basis on which constituted, e. g., by trades or districts.

(b) Constitution and membership. Whether any minimum requirements as to numbers of employers or size of area.

(c) Extent and methods of cooperation (if any) of State or of local authorities in administration.

(d) Special provisions, if any, for particular employments, e. g., agriculture, navigation.

(e) Extent to which representatives of employers and workers have a voice in management.

(f) Machinery for payment of compensation or benefit. Is agency, e. g., of post office, resorted to?

2. FINANCIAL:

(a) How amount to be raised each year is arrived at.

(b) Are sufficient moneys raised in each year to cover-

(1) The cost of claims which arose during the year and were disposed of during the year, e. g., cases of temporary incapacity where the worker has recovered?

(2) All liability in respect of claims which arose during the year and were a continuing liability at the end of the year, e. g., cases where incapacity is still continuing and which involve future payments.

Is the sum set aside for every case of permanent total or permanent partial incapacity estimated on an annuity basis, and, if not, how is it estimated? Are periodical valuations made to ascertain whether the yearly provision made for liability for outstanding claims has in fact proved sufficient?

(c) Sources of income.

Does State contribute, and to what extent? Do workers contribute, and to what extent?

(d) What are the requirements as to reserves?

(e) Premiums or assessments.

Principles and methods of establishing rates.

Risk classification. How far are premiums or assessments varied from year to year according to risks of each particular establishment or class of establishment?

(f) Financial difficulties encountered, their cause, and how surmounted?

VI.—State Regulation and Supervision.

- 1. Is there State regulation and supervision-
 - (a) Of private insurance companies in regard to-
 - (1) formation and operation;
 - (2) form and provisions of policies;
 - (3) financial soundness;
 - (4) premium rates?
 - (b) Of mutual associations in regard to-
 - (1) formation and operation;
 - (2) financial soundness;
 - (3) premiums or assessments on members?
- 2. Organization and powers of central department or board exercising such regulation and supervision.
 - (a) To what extent does it act through local bodies, branches, or agencies?
 - (b) What periodical statistics and returns does it require from insurance companies and mutual associations?
- 3. Cost of State regulation and supervision.

Whether borne wholly or in part by the funds of-

- (a) private insurance companies;
- (b) mutual associations.

VII.—Cost of Compensation.

- Figures showing cost to industry generally, and to the chief industries in particular.
- 2. Has cost risen in recent years? If so, to what extent, in what class or classes of cases, and what is the cause?

VIII. - Benefits.

1. In case of death-

Amount—to whom paid and how apportioned—whether in form of lump sum or pensions—in case of pension, subject to what conditions—if lump sum, what steps taken to insure profitable use of money.

2. In case of incapacity-

Scale for total incapacity—scale for partial incapacity—date from which compensation begins—is any distinction drawn between permanent and temporary incapacity as regards scale and nature of benefit—provisions for review—if commutation allowed, how calculated, and whether lump-sum payment permitted?

- 3. Does compensation vary according as accident was due to-
 - (a) Fault of workman;
 - (b) General hazard of industry;
 - (c) Fault of employer?
- 4. Is there any scale for compensating injury according to nature of physical injury, occupation, and age of injured person?
- 5. Is disfigurement a ground for compensation and, if so, how is amount determined?
- 6. Is medical and surgical aid included among benefits? If so, in what circumstances and at what stage; and how is it administered?

IX.—Old and Infirm Workers.

Effect of workmen's compensation laws on the employment of the old and infirm. Are there any special provisions in such laws for their protection?

X.—Relation of Accident Insurance with Any Other Forms of Insurance.

Is accident insurance administered in coordination with any other forms of insurance: For example, sickness or invalidity insurance? If so, to what extent are they worked as parts of the same system, and what are the circumstances determining which form of insurance applies?

XI.—Malingering.

- 1. Extent to which it exists and precautions adopted.
- To what extent it varies under different methods of insurance, and reasons for such variation.

XII.—Accident Prevention in Connection with Workmen's Compensation.

- 1. Direct or indirect effects of workmen's compensation laws on number of accidents.
- 2. What provision, if any, is made under workmen's compensation law with this object, and is it supplementary to or in lieu of other laws and regulations for promoting industrial health and safety, and, if supplementary, how is overlapping in administration avoided?

XIII.—The Determination of Claims.

- 1. How far and on what conditions and subject to what supervision are agreements as to compensation allowed between the worker and the employer or compensation authority?
- 2. To whom or to what authority are claims submitted in the first instance?
- 3. Constitution and procedure of tribunals established for adjudicating on claims.
- 4. How far do administrative bodies sit also as judicial tribunals?
- 5. Provisions for appeal.
- 6. How medical aspect of case dealt with.
- 7. Whether expert assistance given in regard to lodgment and pursuit of claims.
- Expense incurred in connection with settlement of disputes and determination of claims—
 - (a) By employers;
 - (b) By workmen.
- 9. How is delay avoided in the payment of benefit in cases where the claim is admitted? What time elapses as a rule between the date of claim and payment of benefit?
- 10. Extent of litigation.

XIV.

Whether any change in existing law is in contemplation or demanded. If so, nature of demand, classes of community making the demand, and causes for the desire for change.

X V.— Voluntary Insurance of Persons not Subject to Compulsory Insurance.

Whether in existence (if so, details) or in contemplation.

The reply follows:

I.—Scope of System.

THE occupations and industries included vary in the laws of the 42 States having legislation on this subject, some being enactments covering practically the whole body of industrial undertakings, while in others there is a limitation to so-called hazardous or extrahazardous employments. Domestic and farm labor is very generally excluded. Some laws provide compensation for such employees only as are exposed to the hazards of the employment, though more generally all employees of an employer covered by the act come

within the provisions of the law. A majority (30) of the States are elective as regards the acceptance of the provisions of their laws, leaving it to the choice of the employer and the employees whether they will adopt this form of accident relief, or will continue under a liability system; however, where the employer declines to accept the provisions of the compensation law, the common-law defenses of fellow service, assumption of risk, and contributory negligence are abrogated; in 12 States and under the Federal statute the compensation system is compulsory, and must be accepted by the classes of employers embraced within the act, while other classes may also avail themselves of the provisions of the law by election.

An exclusion that arises by reason of the relation of the State and Federal Governments is that of railroad employees engaged in interstate commerce. These come under the Federal liability law, to the exclusion of State legislation; and to avoid complications, a number of the States exempt all railroad employees, intrastate as well as interstate, from the provisions of their compensation laws.¹

All classes of workers engaged in the industries covered are, as a rule, embraced within the provisions of the laws. Casual employees, not engaged in the regular work or business of the employer, are

quite generally excluded.1

State employees are compulsorily covered in a number of the laws in which private employment is covered only after election. On the other hand, in a few States, public employments are excluded. The Federal statute relates to public employees only, which is true also of the extension of this law to the District of Columbia.

There is no special treatment accorded seamen, unless it be one of neglect. Being subject to Federal control on account of the jurisdiction of Congress over interstate and foreign commerce, they occupy a position somewhat similar to that held by railroad employees. Their rights in admiralty remain, and they have long had the right of choosing common-law remedies when appropriate. Recent congressional action gives them also the choice of making claim under the compensation law of their State, in lieu of other procedure, if they choose to do so.

All the more important maritime States have compensation laws, so that most injured maritime workers are presumably able to seek redress under compensation laws if they desire; but the situation is

far from clear or satisfactory.

Industrial or occupational diseases are specifically covered by the laws of but three States: California, Connecticut, and Wisconsin. In Massachusetts and North Dakota the term "injury" as used in the law is construed to cover occupational disease. The Federal statute is similarly construed. None of these laws enumerates the diseases

which are to be compensated, the Connecticut law being applicable to the diseases due to "causes peculiar to the occupation, and which are not of a contagious, communicable or mental nature"; while in Wisconsin the act covers not only accidental injuries but also "all other injuries, including occupational diseases growing out of and incidental to the employment."

II.—Character of System Adopted.

A STATE fund exists in 17 States, being exclusive or monopolistic in eight and competitive in nine. Where the fund is not exclusive, insurance may be carried by either private or mutual companies; in three States: Kentucky, Massachusetts and Texas, a mutual company was created by the law as a State agency; however, in but one of these (Kentucky) does the State take any part in the appointment of the directors of the company.

2. Payment of compensation is secured by obligatory insurance in 39 States, while in three no provision of this kind exists. In no case does the State itself guarantee the payment of compensation or the solvency of the State funds; yet, as a matter of fact, the legislature of California appropriated a considerable sum to pay the benefits due workmen insured in a private company that became insolvent.

3. Where insurance is compulsory, the failure of the employer to insure subjects him to a fine, or leaves him liable to a suit for damages

with the common-law defenses abrogated.

4. There is no State guaranty of any fund, strictly speaking. The laws provide methods of recoupment, so as to care for overdrawn accounts, by premium payments from the employers or groups of

employers affected.

- 5. Security by compulsory insurance is so very general that there is little experience on which to base an estimate as to losses due to the lack of it. The question was recently asked of a number of compensation boards and commissions as to losses due to insolvency, etc., and the number of losses reported is very small, though there is known to be some.
- 6. Self-insurance is allowed in 31 States in which insurance is obligatory. Employers wishing to avail themselves of this method must give satisfactory proof of their ability to make payments that may become due, and they also may be required to furnish security or make a deposit to cover their prospective liabilities. No form of contract is permitted which limits the responsibility of the employer or reduces the amount payable under the law.
- 7. No general statement can be made of the reasons why systems vary as they do in the 42 different States having compensation laws.

The expression has been frequently used that the law of a given State should meet the peculiar industrial condition or stage of industrial development of that State. The relative influence of organized labor and organized employers has doubtless been effective in determining the stringency of the provisions adopted. The State fund, especially as an exclusive system, is naturally vigorously opposed by the stock companies, but in no case has it been abolished after original enactment, while in one State at least (Ohio) it has been advanced by amendment from a competitive to an exclusive system. The change is said to be due to the common opinion of employers and workers that the exclusion of private companies tended to economy and efficiency. A similar end is being sought in other States, but none of these has yet made the change.

8. Criticisms addressed to the existing system would probably in no case go to the principle involved, but only to some detail of administration, or to the amount of benefits. The tendency has been continuously to increase the amount of the awards and to reduce the waiting time, amendments along these lines being enacted practically each year. No form of industrial legislation has made the rapid progress achieved by compensation since the initial enactment of laws of this class, the present situation being the result of growth

during a single decade.

III.—Comparison of Different Methods of Insurance.

THIS is one of the most difficult, because one of the most contro-L verted, subjects included in any discussion of compensation legislation. Reports of State commissions in which State funds are discussed give some data, but more by way of a statement of the operations of the funds than any comparison with private insurance systems. The Monthly Labor Review for April, 1919 (pp. 210-216), gives a summary of the replies of a number of State officials to a series of questions on this subject. The address by Mr. Carl Hookstadt on "Tests of efficiency in workmen's compensation administration," published in the December, 1919, Monthly Labor Review, also gives matter of interest in this connection. The subject is also developed briefly in an address by Dr. Royal Meeker, Commissioner of Labor Statistics, on "Minimum requirements in compensation legislation." This appeared in the Monthly Labor Review for November, 1919. A most interesting and authoritative contribution to this discussion is an article, "An adventure in State insurance," in the December, 1919, issue of the American Economic Review, Princeton, N. J. This gives an account of the successful growth of the competitive State fund of California, written by Mr. A. J. Pillsbury, then chairman of the State Industrial Accident Commission.

A Massachusetts report for the year 1917 gives the general average loss cost per \$100 of pay roll as 62 cents for stock companies; and for mutuals, 50 cents.

In Montana, three forms of insurance are in practice: First, self-insurance; second, private insurance companies; third, State insurance. Reports for 62 employers with 24,649 employees show a loss cost, under the first plan, of approximately 75 cents for each \$100 of pay roll during the three years ending June 30, 1918; the system of self-insurance practically eliminates administrative expense. Under the second plan, for 915 employers with 11,000 employees the actual accident cost is quoted at \$1.04 per \$100 of pay roll, the total premium cost being practically \$3; while under the State fund system 1,017 employers with 14,060 employees paid 65 cents on each \$100 of pay roll as the actual accident cost, with a total premium cost of \$1.02. This report emphasizes the comparatively low cost of the State plan, considering the administration as well as other costs.

Administrative costs are again brought out in the report of the same State for the year ending July 1, 1919, which shows, for self-insurers a rate of accident cost of 75 cents per \$100 of pay roll, the total cost to the employer being of course the same. For company insurance the accident cost was 67 cents and the employers' cost \$2.25—considerable reduction from the 3 years previous; while in the State fund, the accident cost was 80 cents, and the total cost to the employer, \$1.

Montana is of course a State of relatively small population and of correspondingly limited industrial importance. The significance of the data given lies chiefly in their exact showing of relative costs. Of greater significance is the summary showing of experience under the law of New York, the most populous and the leading industrial State of the Union. An investigation of the systems of insurance in use in this State, which are the same as in Montana, shows the following results, self-insurers being left out of consideration in this comparison. State fund premiums are shown at the same rates as insurance companies, for comparative purposes.

LOSS AND EXPENSE EXPERIENCE, COMPENSATION INSURANCE IN NEW YORK, 1918.

		Per cent of earned premiums.				
Carrier.	Earned premiums.	Losses.	Expenses.	Losses and expenses.	Savings.	
Stock insurance companies, nonparticipating Stock insurance companies, participating	\$22,534,589 1,198,072 4,580,722 3,982,678	51 44 44 41	36 17 20 6	87 61 64 47	13 39 36 58	
Total	32, 296, 061	48	29	77	23	

The investigator (Mr. Miles M. Dawson, F. A. S., F. I. A., consulting actuary) says of this:

Here the superior showing of the State fund is unobscured; its much lower expense makes the total net cost materially lower than in other insurance carriers.

Savings of nonparticipating companies (13 per cent) are profits and in nowise benefit the employers insured therein. In participating companies some portion of the 39 per cent of savings returns to insured employers as dividends, while in the case of mutuals 5 per cent goes to a catastrophe surplus and 31 per cent to dividends. Of the 53 per cent savings in the State fund, 141 per cent are represented by reduced premium rates as compared with regular company rates, 5 per cent of the actual State fund rates go to a catastrophe surplus, while the remainder goes for the payment of dividends, thus saving to employers insured in the State fund 483 per cent of the earned premiums for the year, as compared with the full rates of insurance companies.

Taking the five years of operation of the fund, the saving to insurers is found to aggregate \$4,004,623, or 29 per cent of the total premiums computed at company rates. On this same basis, insurers in stock companies paid an unnecessary cost in excess of \$18,000,000 during the four and one-half years for which data are available; while at the same time beneficiaries would have received not less than \$5,700,000 more than they did, because of underpayments by insurance com-

panies and self-insurers.

This authority regards "the grave undesirability of permitting self-insurance" as being fully demonstrated, and also "the wastefulness of insurance in insurance companies of the payment of compensation."

Another industrial State of the first rank, Ohio, has a State fund which is exclusive in its operation, insurance in stock companies or otherwise not being permitted. Of this it is said by a special investigator from outside the State:

The Ohio State fund, measured by the actual volume of benefits insured, has now become the largest carrier of compensation insurance in the United States. One or two private insurance companies, it is true, had a larger total of premium income in 1918, but 40 cents out of every dollar collected by these companies is absorbed by overhead expenses, whereas the whole income of the Ohio fund is devoted exclusively to the payment of compensation claims.

This fund is found by its investigators to be "highly solvent." It is, "and has at all times been, strong and solvent," while the report on the New York fund quoted from above speaks of that fund as "solvent and possessed of unimpaired reserves, at least equal in value to all liabilities, accrued or to accrue," with surplus for dividends, catastrophes, and fluctuations in experience.

The Pennsylvania State fund, like that of New York, is competitive. In the second annual report of this fund (1918) it is said that in the years 1916 and 1917 the State fund saved to its policyholders more than \$483,000 as against the costs that would have been incurred by insuring through the ordinary agencies. The saving for 1918 is estimated at more than \$450,000, while if all employers in the State carrying insurance at the time were insured in the State fund the savings effected would exceed \$2,500,000. "Absolute compensation protection with the best claim and inspection service" are offered

by the State fund at a saving of from 15 to 25 per cent.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics is engaged in a rather extensive study of State funds, both exclusive and competitive, but no report is yet available. However, existing data show that in economy, fairness, promptness of payments, and general efficiency State funds are superior to any other form of insurance. This is indicated not only in the address by Commissioner Meeker above referred to, but also in his earlier address, "Lacks in workmen's compensation" (Monthly Labor Review, February, 1919). The various experts of the Bureau of Labor Statistics who have studied the question for the last 15 years have unanimously arrived at the same conclusion. It is impossible, however, to give at the present time as full an answer as is desirable.

IV.—Organization of State Funds.

THE administrative methods of each State fund are prescribed by the statute creating the fund. In the majority of cases a board or commission of three persons has charge of the fund as well as of the making of awards and the settlement of disputes. Notice of injury is received from the employer, and of claims from the employee. Investigations and reports, with special hearing where required, lead to the tentative determination of the amounts payable, subject to revision at such times and within such limits as the various laws provide.

The administrative board is purely a State agency, neither employer nor worker having any part as such in the management of the funds or the determination of its policies. Medical assistance is rendered in one State (Washington) under the supervision of local agencies in

which there is representation of workmen and employers.

State funds do not employ agents or do advertising in the commercial sense. Of course, the reports of the commission are widely distributed, and the adjusters and inspectors of the office come in contact with employers generally, but there is no provision made for pushing business, such as is necessarily used by a commercial company.

Payments are made without the intervention of any other agency than the administration of the fund itself and the insured employers.

Therefore, the post office is used only as for any other matter deposited in the mails.

2. Practices as to methods of handling funds differ somewhat in the different States. However, a reserve is to be created and maintained adequate to care for any continuing liability, while in most of the States provision is also made for a catastrophe reserve. Annual reports as to the status of the funds are required; actuarial examinations are made from time to time, and the administrative board or commission is given authority to adjust premium rates or to regulate the number of calls for premiums so as to maintain an adequate reserve without the accumulation of excessive surpluses. Dividends may also be declared to avoid unnecessary accumulation of funds.

In three cases it was provided in the earlier acts that the employee should make some contribution to the State fund. These provisions have been gradually eliminated so that now a single State (Oregon) requires the workmen to make a contribution to the benefit funds, the amount being 1 cent for each day worked. In a few States the employee may be called upon to contribute to the medical aid fund but not to the fund for compensation.²

In a few States administrative expenses are borne in whole or in part by the State, but the tendency appears to be to make the system self-supporting. Reserves are required for continuing payments as well as for emergencies. Some laws establish rates on the basis of estimates submitted previously to their enactment, industries being classified in groups of approximately the same hazard. In other States the work of fixing rates is placed in the hands of the commission. The commission may also be charged with the duty of establishing risk classes, and the principle of merit rating is made use of to some extent.

Financial difficulties incident to the establishment of a new fund have been met in a number of cases by the advancement of a sum sufficient to enable the fund to begin work. Where a catastrophe has caused an overdraft on specific funds there has been gradual recoupment by the collection of premiums. This has occurred in but two instances, one in Washington, due to an explosion in a powder mill, and the other in West Virginia, where serious mine disasters led to heavy losses. Both these occurred early in the history of the funds involved, and in both States present solvency has been established.

No provision has been made for the relief of existing private insurance companies when an exclusive State fund has been established. In most cases the occasion for compensation insurance arose only contemporaneously with the creation of an exclusive State fund, so that no existing business, strictly speaking, was destroyed. Of

² Idaho, Montana, Nevada, Utah, and Washington.

course, accident insurance and employers' liability insurance were largely superseded by the establishment of the exclusive funds, but no compensatory or gradual reduction system has ever been adopted.

The establishment of a vigorous competitive State fund has, undoubtedly, resulted in the lowering of rates, though the number of such funds is as yet quite limited; strong mutual companies have had a similar effect in a few States.

It is of interest to notice that when the Canadian Provinces found it desirable to modify their existing compensation laws or to enact new ones, they investigated, through commissions, the workings and methods in use in some of the States of the Union. The result has been a strong commendation of the compulsory insurance system with an exclusive State fund as the insurance carrier. This has not been adopted in every Province, but the preponderance is strongly in favor of this method.

V.—Organization of Mutual Associations.

MUTUAL associations are found in various forms. As already referred to, the States of Kentucky, Massachusetts, and Texas maintain what might be called State mutual companies, officially recognized. As a rule, however, mutual companies are organized under general laws providing for the organization of such companies. A few States have specific provisions for mutual companies to carry compensation insurance. There are no separate provisions for particular employments, and so far as is known no provision is made for employee representation in the management of the associations. It is a common provision that business can be written only after a specified number of employers and employees are ready to be organized into a mutual association. The laws do not restrict their operation to single trades or districts. A summary of the provisions covering mutual insurance companies may be found in the Bureau's Bulletin No. 203, pages 290–296.

The laws contain a variety of provisions as to premiums, dividends, and reserves, and no single statement can be made covering these points. Reference to the summary noted above will indicate some of the methods in use. The States assume no responsibilities for the maintenance of funds of mutual associations other than is involved in official inspection, nor are employees privileged to contribute or to relieve the employer of his responsibility under the law.

VI.—State Regulation and Supervision.

PRIVATE insurance companies are formed only in accordance with statutory provisions of the State of domicile. They must also conform to the requirements of the laws of the various States in which they wish to transact business. Premium rates must, as a

rule, receive the approval either of the compensation board or of the insurance authorities of the various States.

Corresponding provisions relate to the organization of mutual associations, which are likewise subject to the scrutiny of the State superintendents of insurance.

- 2. Insurance departments exist in most States with power over companies transacting insurance business of whatever kind. They maintain a single State office, usually at the capital, and require reports at least annually, covering all financial transactions of all companies. They have also power of visitation and of requiring disclosures of all pertinent facts.
- 3. As to the cost of State supervision, insurance commissioners are salaried officials, but companies doing business in the various States are required to pay a license fee or tax, and also fees for audits and examinations of books and accounts. The practices of the States vary considerably, the fee going into the State treasury in some cases, and in others it goes to the inspector as payment for his services. Mutual and stock companies are on the same footing in this regard.

VII.—Cost of Compensation.

THE data on this point can be regarded only as tentative, the laws being of such recent enactment and the changes therein so frequent that no real basis of costs can be said to be yet determined.

The Pennsylvania Insurance Commission reported, in 1918, the pure premium costs of policies issued in 1916. This showed that for all industries the average was 63 cents per \$100 of pay roll; for all except coal mining, 48 cents; for anthracite mining, \$2.77; for bituminous mining, \$1.62; for building construction the rate was \$1.17; for iron and steel manufacturing, 86 cents; manufactured products of clay, 73 cents; chemicals, 78 cents; textiles, 17 cents; wood products, 57 cents, etc. These figures, of course, do not include the cost of administration, which varies with the type of insurance, being least with the self-insurer and greatest with stock companies.

The combined policy years 1916 and 1917 show an audited pay roll of \$2,715,747,000; earned premiums amounted to \$30,842,928, while the losses incurred were \$15,634,248. The average premium rate was \$1.14; the pure premium, 58 cents; and the loss ratio 51 per cent.

An illustration of the relation of costs to pay rolls and premiums may be taken from the report of the State fund of Montana. In 1918 private employers in the State fund had a pay roll of \$10,747,628, on which premiums amounting to \$157,639 were paid; \$52,512 were paid as total compensation benefits during the year. For the fiscal year ending June 30, 1919, there was a premium income of \$181,709. Of this 16 per cent went for temporary total disability, 8 per cent

for permanent partial disabilities, 8 per cent for fatal injuries, 3 per cent for medical and hospital benefits, and 0.8 per cent to undertakers. During the same time compensation payments amounted to \$68,708. Of this 44 per cent was for temporary total disability, 22 per cent for permanent partial disability, an equal amount for fatal injuries, 8 per cent to physicians and hospitals, and 2 per cent for burial.

The State fund of West Virginia was contributed to in 1917 by 2,644 employers, with a wage roll of \$125,220,220. The premium income was \$1,762,238, or at an average premium rate of \$1.41 per \$100 of wages. The losses during the year amounted to \$1,319,144, or \$1.05 per \$100 of wages and 75 cents per dollar of premium income. The administrative expense was \$80,732, or \$4.58 per \$100 of premium income. Summarizing the experience of four years' operations, the average premium rate was \$1.25 per \$100 of wages, and the average losses, \$1.17; losses amounted to 94 per cent of the premium income. Administrative expense averaged \$5.05 on each \$100 of premium income.

The benefit provisions of the various acts differ considerably so that to make a comparison between them requires a comparison of a number of factors. The Massachusetts report for the year ending June 30, 1917, shows the loss experience of that State for a period of five years on the basis of the average cost per benefit case for the different kinds of payments. This information is presented in tabular form as follows:

AVERAGE COST PER BENEFIT CASE IN MASSACHUSETTS, YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, 1917.

Type of payment.	First year.	Second year.	Third year.	Fourth year.	Fifth year.
Medical	\$11.04 1,368.65 58.65	\$9.79 1,780.63 87.27	\$9.36 2,970.21 91.65	\$9.32 2,603.06 85.44	\$10.09 2,630.74 69.60
Total	40.53	43.58	43.38	43.56	38.98

It is evident that no uniformity has been reached in the five years' experience above set forth. The report offers but one explanation for some of the rather marked variations, which is that "it may possibly be that industrial conditions are in part responsible."

Various lines of approach to the problem of costs are suggested by the different kinds of data above reproduced. Reference may also be had to data given under III (page 21), for some suggestive figures, but the subject has not yet received the attention that its importance warrants. This is excused in the minds of some by saying that the cost of compensation is really but the cost of industrial injuries, and the community has borne this in the most burdensome and uneconomical and unjust way hitherto; so that the question is only one of incidence, newly adjusted by the new legislation; but the actual amounts will doubtless be brought into fuller consideration with the growth of an intelligent appreciation of the value of data showing the importance of accident prevention as well as of relief.

It is difficult to say whether or not costs have risen in recent years, in view of the comparatively brief experience already noted. The pressure for production and the influx of unskilled workers into industry had a tendency to increase the accident rate in 1917 and 1918, but the actual influence of this fact on insurance costs is not yet known.

VIII.—Benefits.

IT WILL be necessary to advert to the laws themselves or the Bureau's analytic Bulletin No. 240 for an answer to the question as to the amount of benefits paid. It is in most cases a percentage of the wages earned at the time, ranging from 50 to 66\(^2_3\). Only actual dependents receive compensation, and, as a rule, in periodical payments rather than lump sums. Supervision of the expenditures of lump sums is very slightly practiced and that in a rather unofficial way.

2. Disability benefits begin at the expiration of a waiting time which varies from three to fourteen days under different laws. Usually the same percentage of wages is paid regardless of the period of the disability.

3. A few laws reduce the benefits where there is marked fault on the part of the workman and increase them where the employer is guilty of negligence in a marked degree. However, it is the common rule that the fixed schedule is paid in all cases.

4. A majority of the laws contain fixed schedules for specified injuries, chiefly dismemberments. In California and Nevada the laws take cognizance of the age and occupation of the injured person; while in a number of other States, if the employee is a minor or a learner, the fact that an increase in the earning capacity is normally to be expected is to be considered.

5. Relatively few of the laws make disfigurement apart from disabling injuries a basis of awards. Where the provision exists, there is usually a maximum limit fixed by the law, the actual amount being subject to determination by the administrative commission.

6. Medical and surgical aid are included at the present time in practically all laws, though omitted from some in their first enactment. Where it is required, it is to be given in all circumstances immediately on the happening of the injury, but may be limited to brief periods as in some laws, or continued until recovery or a final determination of the status of the injured person. The laws vary as to the methods of administration, the more common provision being

that the employer shall furnish the physician. In some States the right of the employee to make the selection is reserved; while in Washington, local medical aid boards are charged with the administration of this form of relief.

IX.—Old and Infirm Workers.

NO CONCLUSIVE figures are available on this subject. Proposals to permit workers of these classes to contract out of the law are generally disapproved. In most States special provision is made to limit the liability of the employers taking on partially disabled workers, as by the loss of one hand or one eye, so that a second injury will not entail upon the current employer a liability as for total disability.

X.—Relation of Accident Insurance with Any Other Forms of Insurance.

A CCIDENT insurance stands alone so far as being correlated with sickness or invalidity insurance is concerned. Some laws authorize the formation of relief associations to which employees may contribute, added benefits in excess of those required by the compensation laws being payable. No State of the Union has thus far enacted legislation providing for sickness or invalidity insurance.

XI.—Malingering.

SO FAR as reports indicate, malingering can not be regarded as at all prevalent. Cases are, of course, known, and it is a part of the work of the administrative boards to keep in touch with injured workmen, chiefly through medical channels, so as to prevent the practice. This point is discussed on page 289 of the Monthly Labor Review for November, 1919, where the opinion of Commissioner Meeker is expressed after a very general consideration of the subject.

XII.—Accident Prevention in Connection with Workmen's Compensation.

I ACK of thorough statistical reporting makes it impossible to decide what effect workmen's compensation laws have had on the number of accidents. It is the general impression that the tendency is to lead to a reduction of accidents, especially where mutual companies insure or where there is merit rating.

A number of the laws contain special provisions with regard to safety regulations, either actually prescribing such regulations or penalizing persons who disregard existing regulations. In some States the administration of compensation laws is in the hands of the same department or commission that has charge of inspection and safety;

in others there are various degrees of correlation between such administrative board and the labor commissioner or inspection department of the State.

XIII.—The Determination of Claims.

THERE is a wide variety in the modes and degrees of supervision I of direct settlements by administrative authorities. In the States having the better practice, and they constitute a considerable number of the total, settlements are open to review by the commission, and are not to be considered as binding or final until approved. Most States have special administrative commissions; in a very few the power of awards and adjustment is vested in the courts. usually in summary proceedings. In a few cases, special arbitration boards or tribunals are to be selected for the individual case, a single State official constituting the permanent factor of administration. In many cases the board or tribunal has the power to hold hearings and procure evidence; its findings are usually binding so far as facts are concerned, though appeals may be taken on matters of law. The status of administrative boards has been considerably discussed and reference may be made to "Exercise of judicial power" in Bulletin No. 203 (pp. 180-182).

The medical aspect of the case is dealt with by the same tribunal and at the same time as other aspects. Some of the State boards have permanent medical advisers, while others depend on designated physicians and the report of the practitioner in the case.

Little organized work is done in the way of furnishing expert assistance to claimants. The view has been expressed that it is a proper function of the State to enable inexpert or illiterate claimants to secure their rights under the laws, but so far as is known, there has been no general adoption of this view. The expense incurred in the settlement of disputes is borne by the parties litigant. Some laws limit the amount that an attorney may charge, but no State provides for any additional sum to meet costs. Some require filing or recording to be done by court officials, free of charge. Delay in the payment of awards subjects the delinquent party to a penalty in a number of States; others allow interest on payments withheld during an appeal if the award on the appeal is approved. It is impossible to give any average time elapsing between the date of claim and the payment of benefits. Few offices are allowed adequate administrative force such as would be necessary for prompt and accurate adjustments.

The extent of litigation is difficult to discuss. While the number of appeals and court trials prove positively that the laws have not

¹ See chart at end of this article.

succeeded in entirely doing away with action at law, the number of cases settled without litigation is greatly in excess of those in which it is resorted to. For instance, the Montana commission reports deciding 6,000 disputes, out of a much larger number of claims referred to it for determination, without a single appeal being taken to a law tribunal.

XIV.—Revision of Existing Law.

ONSTANT changes are being made by way of amendments in the laws of the various States. These relate not to the principle involved, but to administrative details and to degrees of liberality. For instance, it was true only quite recently that a majority of the laws provided as benefits 50 per cent of the wages. Now more than half pay 60, 65, or 66² per cent. A waiting period of two weeks or more was embodied in a majority of the earlier laws, but now this has been reduced, in a majority of the States, to periods of less than two weeks: 21 States fix seven days as the waiting period. The fear that compensation laws would levy an intolerable burden on industry has practically disappeared. It has become more generally recognized that the burden of the individual injured is a reality, and that the mere transference of it from the unassisted worker with no capacity to shift the burden, to the responsible industry as represented by the employer, with means of distribution of costs in his hands, was not in any sense an increasing of the burden but rather the placing of it where it properly belonged. This fact is not yet recognized in all jurisdictions, or by all parties in interest; and the limitations on persons covered, on medical benefits, and on periods of payment in case of death or total disability, yet call for persistent and intelligent action to secure adequate compensation laws. Organized labor is naturally most able to express itself in behalf of liberality, and many of the more enlightened employers are ready to give frank consideration to demands for more liberal provisions.

XV.—Voluntary Insurance.

THE laws of a number of States absolutely exclude certain classes of labor, those notably being domestic and farm labor. In a number of States in which hazardous employments are designated as covered by the laws, permission is given for voluntary choice by employers and employees in other industries to accept the terms of the law. Some consideration is being given to the inclusion also of independent workers, while employers in small industries are already given permission to come under the provisions of the laws in a few States.

7	T	1		PRINCI	T	MEDICAL	L SERVICE.	(Chart	Recised January 1, 1920.)		COMPENSATION.						77 17	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	1
STATE.	DATE ACT BECAME EFFECTIVE.	EMPLOYS	MENTS NOT COVERED.	COMPENSATION COMPELSORY OF ELECTIVE.	INSURANCE,	Masicinus period.	Maximum amount	WAITING PERIOD	Per ceut of wages.	Weekly maximum.	Weekly minimum.	Dee Weeks,	-		sent total.	Partial.	Amount	ADSERVISION,	Per ceut employes subject act.
Alabama.	1920 (Jan. 1).	Less than 16 employees. Farm labor. Domestic service.	Municipal employees.* Casual labor.	Elective.	Not required.	60 days.	\$100.	2 weeks. None if disabled 4 weeks.	25 to 60 (death). 50 to 60 (disability).	\$12 to \$15.	\$5.3	300.	\$5,000.	550.	\$5,000.	300.		Courts.	33.6
Alaska.	1915 . (July 28).	All except mining operations having 5 or more employees.	Public employees,	Elective.	Not required.	No provision.	No provision.	2 weeks. None if disabled 8 weeks.	50 (temporary total).	No provision.	No provision.		\$6,000.		\$6,000.		\$4,800. C	Courts.	31.2
Arizona.	1912 (Sept. 1).	Nonhazardous.	Public employees.	Compulsory.	Not required.	No provision.	No provision.	2 weeks. None if disabled over 2 weeks.	50.	No provision.	No provision.	400.	\$4,000.	Life.	\$4,000.	During disability.	\$4,000. C	Courts.	52.4
California.	1911 (Sept. 1).	Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.	Compulsory.	State fund. Private companies. Scli-insurance.	Unlimited.	Unlimited.	1 week.	65.	\$20.83.	\$4.17.	240.	\$5,000.	Life.		240.	3 years' In	ndustrial accident commission.	76.2
Colorado.	1915 . (Aug. 1).	Less than 4 employees.	Domestic service. Casual labor.¹	Elective.	State fund. Private companies. Self-insurance.	60 days.	\$200.	10 days.	50.	\$10.	\$5.2	312.	\$3,125.	Life.		During disability.	\$2,600. In	ndustrial commission.	63.1
Connecticut.	1914 (Jan. 1).	Less than 5 employees. Casual labor.	Outworkers.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	Unlimited.	Unlimited.	1 week. None if disabled over 4 weeks.	50.	\$18 (death and partial disability). \$14 (total disability).	\$5.	312.		520.		520.	В	loard of five compensation commissioners.	81.9
Delaware,	1918 (Jan. 1).	Less than 5 employees. Farm labor. Domestic service.	Public employees. Outworkers. Casual labor.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	2 weeks.	\$75.	2 weeks. None if disabled 4 weeks.	15 to 60 (death). 50 (disability).	\$18 (death). \$15 (disability).	\$1.50 to \$6 (death). \$5° (disability).	285.		475.	\$4,000.	285.	I	ndustrial accident board.	62.9
Iawaii.	1915 (July 1).	Nonindustrial. Casual labor.	Employees receiving over \$36 a week.	Compulsory.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	Unlimited.	\$150.	1 week. None if partially disabled.	25 to 60 (death). 60 (total disability). 50 (partial disability).	\$21.50 (death). \$18 (total disability). \$12 (partial disability).	\$1.25 to \$3 (death). \$3 ² (total disability).	312,	\$5,000.	312.	\$5,000.	312.	\$5,000. I	ndustrial accident board for each county.	92.0
idaho;	1918 (Jan. 1).	Farm labor. Domestic service. Employees receiving over \$2,400 a	Casual labor. Outworkers. Charitable institutions.	Compulsory.	State fund. Private companies. Self-insurance.	Unlimited.	Unlimited.	1 week.	20 to 55 (death), 55 (disability).	\$12.	\$6.2	400.		Life.		150.	I	ndustrial accident board;	68.
llinois.	1912 (May 1).	Year. Nonhazardous. Farm labor.	Casual labor.	Compulsory.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	8 weeks. ³	\$200.3	I week. None if disabled 4 weeks.	50 to 65.	\$12 to \$15.	\$7 to \$10.	416.	\$4,000.	Life.		416.	ī	adustrial commission.	55.4
ndiana.	1915 (Sept. 1).	Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.¹ Railroad employees in train service.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	30 days.3	Unlimited.	1 week.	55.	\$13.20.	\$5.50.	300.	\$5,000.	500.	\$5,000.	300.	I	ndustrial board.	79.
owa.		Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.' Nonhazardous elerical occupations.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	4 weeks.	\$100.3	2 weeks.	60.	\$15.	\$6.3	300.		400.		225.	I	industrial commissioner.	. 62.
ansas.	1912 (Jan. 1).	Nonhazardous. Hazardous employments having less than 5 employees.	Casual labor.¹ State employees and municipal em-	Elective:	Not required:	50 days.	\$150.	1 week.	60.	\$15 (disability).	\$5 (disability).	260.	\$3,800.	416.		416.		Courts	63.
Centucky.	. 1916	Farm labor. Less than 3 employees.	ployees, except workmen. Domestic service.	Elective.	Private companies.	90 days.	\$100.	1 week.	65	\$12.	25			410	AV 000				1 2
ouisiana.	(Aug. 1). 1915 (Jan. 1).	Farm labor. Nonhazardous.	Casual labor.	Elective.	Self-insurance. Not required.	Unlimited.	\$150.	1 week. None if disabled 6 weeks.	25 to 55 (death). 55 (disability).	\$18.	\$3.2	335.	\$4,000.	416.	\$5,000.	335.		Workmen's compensation board.	35.
Iaine.	1916	Less than 6 employees, Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.¹ Logging operations.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	30 days.3	\$100.3	10 days.	60.	\$15.	\$6.	300.	\$3,500.	500.	\$4,200.	300.		industrial accident commissions	72
faryland.		Nonhazardous. Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor. Country blacksmiths. Employees receiving over \$2,000 a	Compulsory.	State fund. Private companies. Self-insurance	Unlimited.	\$150.	2 weeks. I week if totally and permanently disabled.	50.	\$12.	\$5.	416.	\$4,250.	Life.	\$5,000.		\$3,500.	industrial accident commission.	45
lassachusetts.	(Tuly 1)	Nonhazardous public employments. Farm labor. Domestic service.	year. State employees, except work-	Elective.	Private companies.	2 weeks.3	Unlimited.	10 days.	.66%.	\$10 (death and specified injuries).	\$4 (death and specified injuries).	500.	\$4,000.	500.	\$4,000.	During disability.	84.000. I	Industrial accident board.	87
ichigan.	1912	Casual labor. Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.	Elective.	State fund. Private companies,	90 days.	Unlimited.	1 week. None if disabled 6 weeks.	66.	\$16 (others).	\$7 (others).	300.				500.		Industrial accident board.	83
innesota.	1913: (Oct. 1)	Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.' Steam railroads.	Elective.	Not required.	90.days.3	\$100.3	1 reek.	30 to 66% (death). 66% (disability).	\$15.	\$6.50.2	300.		550.	73,000	300.		Courts. Limited supervision by commissioner of labor	-
ssouri	Annroyad	State employees. Less than 5 employees. Farm labor.	Outworkers, . Employees receiving over \$3,000 a	Elective.	Private companies.	8 weeks.	\$200.	1 week	66%.	\$15.	\$6.2	300.		Life.		490.		Workmen's compensation commission.	01.
ontana.	(Apr. 28)	Domestic service. Casual labor, Nonhazardous.	year. Domestic service.	Elective.	State fund. Private companies.	2 wante	\$50.	None if disabled over 6 weeks.	30 to 50 (death).	\$12.50.	H.			STIF		(m)		E4P - 1/4 - 100 **	6
		Farm labor.	Casual labor. Casual labor.	Elective.	Self-insurance. Private companies.	Unlimited.	\$200.	i week.	50 (disability).	\$15.	\$6.2	400.		Life.		150.		Industrial accident board.	8
ebraska.	1911	Domestic service	Outworkers. Casual labor.	Electivé.	Self-insurance.	90 days.3	Unlimited.	None if disabled 6 weeks. 1 week.	15 to 66% (death), 60 (total disability).	\$18.46 (death).	\$6.92 (disability).	350.	remarriage.	Life.		300.		Compensation commissioner. Industrial commission.	7
ew Hampshire.	1912	Domestic service. Nonhazardous. Factories having less than 5 work-		Elective.	Self-insurance.	No provision.		None if disabled 2 weeks,	50 (permanent partial).	\$9.23 to \$16.62 (disability).	No provision.	300.	\$3,000.	Life.		433.		Courts.	7
ew Jersey.	1911	men. Casual labor.		Elective.	Private companies.	4 weeks.3	\$50.3	10 days.	35 to 60 (death).	\$12	\$6.1	300.	Vojucia	300.		300,		Workmen's compensation bureau.	-
ew Mexico.	(July 4).	Nonhazardous. Hazardous employments having	Public employees.	Elective.	Self-insurance. Private companies.	2 weeks.	\$50.	2 weeks.	66% (disability). 15 to 60 (death).	\$18 (death).	\$6° (disability).	300.	-	400.		300.		Courts.	1
ew York.	(June 8).	less than 4 employees. Nonhazardous employments hav-	Farm labor.	Compulsory.	State fund. Private companies.	60 days.3	Unlimited.	2. weeks.	50 (disability). 15 to 66% (death).	\$12 (disability). \$15.38 (death).	\$5 (disability).		1	520.		Diming disability		Industrial commission.	-
	(July 1).	ing less than 4 workmen. Farm labor.	Domestic service. Casual labor.		Self-insurance.	-		None if disabled over 7 weeks.	66% (disability).	\$15 to \$20 (disability).	\$3.60 to \$12 (death).		remarriage.	Life.	-			, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	-
hio.	(Mar. 5).	Domestic service. Less than 5 employees.	Steam railroads.	Compulsory.	State fund.	Unlimited.	Unlimited.	None if disabled over 1 week.	66% (disability).	\$20. \$15 (death and temporary total).	\$6° (disability). \$5° (total disability).	Death or	remarriage.	Life.	-	During disability During disability	-	Workmen's compensation bureau. Industrial commission.	
	(sam 1)*	Nonhazardous. Hazardous employments having less	Clarical occupations		Self-insurance. Private companies.		\$100.3	1 week.		\$12 (others).			.]	-				Industrial commission.	
lahoma.	(Sept. 1).	. than 3 employees. Farm labor.	ments.	Compulsory.	Self-insurance.	60 days.s	\$100,*	None if disabled 3 weeks.	50.	\$18.	\$3,1	Not cove	red.	500.		300.		industrial commission.	-
egon.	1913 (July 1).	Nonhazardous.	Farm labor.	Elective.	State fund.	Unlimited.	\$250.3	None.	Monthly pension.	\$50° (monthly pension).	\$15 (death) (monthly pension). \$30 (total disability) (monthly pension	n). Death or	remarriage.	Life.	1	104.		Industrial accident commission.	
nnsylvania.	(Jan. 1).	Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.¹ Outworkers.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance,	30 days.	\$100.2	10 days.	15 to 60 (death). 60 (disability).	\$12.	\$1.50 to \$6 (death). \$6° (disability).	300.		500.	\$5,000.	300.	-	Workmen's compensation board.	
rto Rico.	-1916 (July 1).	Less than 3 employees. Farm labor. Domestic service. Nonhazardous clerical occupations.	Public employees not engaged on public works. Employees receiving over \$1,500 a year.	Plastina	State fund.	Unlimited.	Unlimited.	None.	50 (temporary total),	\$7 (temporary total).	\$3 (temporary total),		\$4,000.		\$4,000.		\$2,500.	Workmen's relief commission.	
ode Island.	(Oet 1)	Less than 6 employees. Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor. Employees receiving over \$1,800 a year.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	d weeks.	Unlimited.	2 weeks, None if disabled over 4 weeks.	50.	\$14 (total disability). \$10 (others).	\$7 (total disability). \$4 (others).	300.		500.	\$5,000.	300.		Courts.	
nth Dakota.	1917	Farm labot. Domestic service.	Casual labor.	Elective,	Private companies. Self-insurance.	12 weeks.	\$150.	10 days. None if disabled 6 weeks.	55.	\$12 (disability).	\$6.50° (disability).	378.	\$3,000.	Life.	\$3,000.	312.		Industrial commissioner.	
nnessee.	1919 (Isla 1)	Less than 10 employees. Farm labor.	Public employees. Coal mines.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	30 days.	\$100.	2 weeks. None if disabled 6 weeks.	29 to 50 (death). 50 (disability).	\$11.	\$5.2	400.		550.	\$5,000.	300.		Courts.	
tas.	1913	Domestic service. Less than 3 employees: Farm labor.	Casual labor.¹ Public employees. Railways.	Elective.	Private companies.	2 weeks.2	Unlimited.	1 week.	60.	\$15.	\$5.	360.		401.		300.		Industrial accident board.	-
	(Sept. 1).	Domestic service. Less than 3 employees.	Casual labor. Domestic service.		State fund.							-		+	-		-		
di.	(July 1).	Farm labor. Less than 11 employees.	Casual labor.¹	Compulsory.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	Unlimited.	\$500.	3 days.	60.	\$16.	\$7 (Casability).	312.	\$5,000.	Life		312.	\$5,000.	Industrial commission.	
mont.	(July 1).	Domestic service. State employees.	Employees receiving over \$2,000 a year.	Elective.	Private companies. Self-insurance.	2 weeks.	\$100.	1 week.	15 to 45 (death). 50 (disability).	\$12.50 (total disability). \$10 (partial disability).	\$0.75 to \$2.25 (death). \$3 ³ (total disability).	260.	\$3,500.	260.	. \$4,000.	260.		Commissioner of industries.	
ginia.	(Inn 1)	Less than 11 employees. Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor.¹ Steam railroads:	Elective.	Private companies Self-insurance.	30 days.	Unlimited.	2 weeks.	50.	\$10.	\$5.	300.	\$4,000.	500.	\$4,000	300.		Industrial commission	
ashington.	1911 (Oct. 1).	Nonhazardous.	Nonhazardous public employ- ments.	Compulsory.	State fund.	Unlimited,5	Unlimited.	1 week. None if disabled over 30 days.	Monthly pension.	\$504 (monthly pension).	\$10 (death) (monthly pension). \$30 (total disability) (monthly pensi	on). Death	or remarriag	e. Life	2-		\$2,000.	Industrial insurance department.	
est Virginia.	(Oct. 1).	Farm labor. Domestic service.	Casual labor. Traveling salesmen.	Elective.	State fund. Self-insurance.	Unlimited.	\$600.	1 week.	50 (disability). Monthly pension (death).	\$12 (disability).	\$5 (disability).	Death	or remarriag	e. Life	2.	340.		Compensation commissioner.	
isconsin.		Less than 3 employees. Farm labor.	Casual labor.1	Elective.	Private companies Self-insurance.	90 days.*	Unlimited.	1 week. None if disabled over 4 weeks.	65.	\$14.63.	.\$6.83.	320.	\$4,500	780		During disabil	s4,500.	Industrial commission.	and the same of th
roming.	1915 (Apr. 1).	Nonhazardous public employ- ments.	Casual labor. ¹ Nonhazardous clerical occupations.	Compulsory	State fund.	Unlimited.	\$100.	10 days. None if disabled over 30 days.	Monthly pension (temporary to Fixed amounts (others).	tal). \$60 (temporary total) (month pension).	\$35 (temporary total) (monthly pensi	on).	\$3,000		\$5,500		\$1,500.	. Courts.	
	1908			1					10 to 66% (death).		\$1.15 to \$7.69 (death).							U. S. Employees' Compensation Commission	OP.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS.

Report of the President's Industrial Conference.

HE Industrial Conference called by the President, which was convened on December 1, 1919, made public a preliminary report on December 29, setting forth a tentative plan of machinery to adjust disputes by conference, conciliation, inquiry, and arbitration. The purpose in publishing this preliminary report, which was reprinted in the Monthly Labor Review for January, 1920 (pp. 60–68), was to obtain, as early as possible, constructive criticism of the proposed plan while the conference was engaged in its further development.

On March 6, 1920, the conference issued its final report, setting forth a program to combat industrial unrest. This report (1) modifies the tentative plan for the adjustment of disputes, (2) suggests the development of employee representation as a method of preventing disputes, and (3) makes recommendations as to methods of dealing with certain problems affecting the employment relationship.

The conference declares itself in favor of the policy of collective bargaining and provides for the unrestricted selection of representatives by employees, but leaves the question of an open or closed shop to be settled in each factory or plant as local conditions determine.

The guiding thought of the conference has been that the right relationship between employer and employee can be best promoted by the deliberate organization of that relationship. That organization should begin with the plant itself. Its object should be to organize unity of interest and thus to diminish the area of conflict, and supply by organized cooperation between employers and employees the advantages of that human relationship that existed between them when industries were smaller. Such organization should provide for the joint action of managers and employees in dealing with their common interests. It should emphasize the responsibility of managers to know men at least as intimately as they know materials, and the right and duty of employees to have a knowledge of the industry, its processes and policies. Employees need to understand their relation to the joint endeavor so that they may once more have a creative interest in their work.

Plan for the Settlement of Disputes.

THE modified plan for the settlement of disputes limits the field of arbitration and, by making machinery available for collective bargaining, enlarges the field of voluntary settlement by agreement. The plan has been extended to include the service of public employees and to cover disputes affecting public utilities other than steam railroads.

The plan involves no penalties other than those imposed by public opinion. It does not impose compulsory arbitration. It does not deny the right to strike. It does not submit to arbitration the policy of the "closed" or "open" shop.

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The plan for adjustment consists of a system, nation-wide in scope, with a national industrial board, local regional conferences, and boards of inquiry whose functions are defined by geographical rather than industrial limits. In brief, the plan is as follows:

The Regional Adjustment Conference.

The parties to the dispute may voluntarily submit their differences for settlement to a board, known as a Regional Adjustment Con-This board is to consist of four representatives selected by the parties in accordance with rules laid down by the National Industrial Board for the purpose of insuring prompt and unrestricted choice of such representatives; and four others from the industry involved in the dispute, two of whom are to be chosen from a panel of 12 representatives of employers and two from a panel of 12 representatives of employees. These panels of employers and employees for each region shall be prepared by the Secretary of Commerce and the Secretary of Labor, respectively, after conference with the employers and employees, respectively, of the regions. These panels are to be approved by the President. In case either side objects to the representatives of the other on the ground that they are not in fact representative, the chairman may pass upon such objection, or he may call in some competent person to do so. If the chairman is in doubt as to whether the representatives objected to are in fact representative, he may require that formal action be taken by the employer to select, and properly to certify to the selection of his representatives; and likewise, unless otherwise provided by the National Industrial Board, he may require the employees to elect their representatives by secret ballot, under the direction of some impartial person, designated by the chairman. The board is to be presided over by a regional chairman, representing the public interest, and appointed by the President, who is to act as conciliator. If a unanimous agreement is reached, it results in a collective bargain having the same force as a trade agreement. If the conference fails to agree unanimously, the matter goes, with certain restrictions, under the agreement of submission, to the National Industrial Board, unless the parties prefer the decision of an umpire selected by them. The decision of the umpire is to have the same effect as the unanimous agreement of the Regional Adjustment Conference. The voluntary submission to a Regional Adjustment Conference carries with it an agreement by both parties that there shall be no interference with production pending the processes of adjustment. The Regional conference is to obtain its facts through the voluntary action of parties to the dispute.

The Regional Board of Inquiry.

If the parties, or either of them, refuse voluntarily to submit the dispute to the agencies provided by the plan of adjustment, a Regional Board of Inquiry is to be formed by the regional chairman, consisting of two employers chosen from the top of the employers' panel for the industry concerned and two employees from the top of the employees' panel for the craft concerned, none of whom are parties to the dispute. This board has the right, under proper safeguards, to subpoena witnesses and records and the duty to publish its findings as a guide to public opinion. Either of the parties at conflict may join the board of inquiry on giving an undertaking that, so far as its side is concerned, it will agree to submit its contention to a Regional Adjustment Conference, and, if both join, a Regional Adjustment Conference is automatically created.

The National Industrial Board.

The National Industrial Board, with headquarters at Washington, is to have supervisory power over the working of the plan. The board is to be composed of nine members appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate. Three of the members are to be chosen from representatives of industrial employers, three from representatives of industrial employees, and three are to represent the general public. One of the latter is to be selected by the President as chairman. All are to be selected without regard to political affiliations.

Public Utilities and Public Employees.

The plan is applicable also to public utilities, but in such cases the Government agency, having power to regulate the service, has two representatives in the Adjustment Conference. Provision is made for prompt report of its findings to the rate regulating body.

The conference makes no recommendations for a plan to cover steam railroads and other carriers, for which legislation has recently

been enacted by Congress.1

The plan with substantial modifications is also applicable to public employees. In this case the Regional Adjustment Conference is to consist of two representatives from the legislative branch of the Government authorized by law to make appropriations, two representatives from that branch or department of the Government which is in the position of employer, two representatives from the employees in the class of public service in which the question arises, and two members to be selected by the representatives of the employees from the first 12 names on the general panel.

¹ The labor provisions of the new transportation act are printed on pages 53 to 57 in this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

A Regional Adjustment Conference is to be convened by the chairman on the request of the administrative head of any department of the Government standing in the relation of employer or on the request of such a substantial number of the employees as to satisfy the chairman that the question is of sufficient importance to justify the convening of a Regional Adjustment Conference.

If the Regional Adjustment Conference reaches an agreement, its report is to take the form of a recommendation to the appropriate legislative body as a basis for appropriations. If the conference does not reach an agreement, no report is to be made unless the legisla-

lative body requests such report.

In the case of public employees there is to be no board of inquiry, but all material facts and information are to be made available to the Regional Adjustment Conference. There is to be no appeal to the National Industrial Board and no reference to an umpire.

Findings of any adjustment machinery in the case of public employees must necessarily have the force merely of recommendations to the Government agency having power to fix wages, hours, and working conditions of the employees concerned. As a matter of principle, the Government is not in a position to permit its relations with its employees to be fixed by arbitration. The plan as modified for public employees therefore avoids arbitration.

Prevention of Disputes.

THE definitely formulated industrial disputes adjustment plan proposed by the Conference is a method for settling industrial quarrels after they arise. It is not intended to prevent the germination of disputes. Prevention of the quarrel, in the opinion of the Conference, is, however, worth more than cure. The Conference suggests, as a suitable means of prevention, the further application and development of the principle of employee representation.

The shop committee idea is recommended as being admirably calculated to minimize the serious results of that loss of personal contact between employer and employee which is an inevitable result of modern industrial organization. Employee representation will provide, the Conference believes, "an established channel of expression and an opportunity for responsible consultation on matters which affect them [the employees] in their relations with their employers and their work." It will not only better enable the employee to advance his own interests but will make him more definitely conscious of his own responsibility. It provides the machinery which is necessary (whether the establishment is unionized or not) for adequate discussion and settlement of purely local, establishment problems.

Employee representation, in the opinion of the Conference, "must not be considered solely as a device for settling grievances. It can find success only if it also embodies cooperation in the problem of production. Whatever subjects the representatives come to feel as having a relation to their work, and their effectiveness as members of the plan, may come within the field of committee consideration." The Conference remarks upon the necessity for absolute freedom in the selection of representatives and for frequent and regular meetings of employee and management representatives. "All employees," in the judgment of the Conference, "must feel absolutely convinced that the management will not discriminate against them in any way because of any activities in connection with shop committees."

The Conference believes that the opposition to the employee representation idea which has manifested itself among large employers "who still adhere to the theory that labor is a commodity" is "steadily disappearing" and hopes that it will entirely vanish. The other source of opposition is seen in those trade-union leaders who "regard shop representation as a subtle weapon directed against the union." The Conference suggests that this idea "is apparently based on the fear that it may be used by some employers to undermine the unions." This attitude the Conference believes to be "based on a misconception of the possible and desirable relations between the union and the shop committee. This relation is a complementary and not a mutually exclusive one. In many plants the trade-union and the shop committee are functioning harmoniously. In some establishments the men are unionized, and the shop committees are composed of union men. In others, some men belong to the trade-union, while all belong to the shop organization."

Employee representation is by no means suggested as a panacea. The Conference realizes that it "offers no royal road to industrial peace. It is only a means whereby sincerity of purpose, frank dealing, and the establishment of common interests may bring mutual advantage."

Problems Affecting Employment Relationship.

Collective Bargaining.

THE Conference balances the "right to bargain collectively" against "the right to refuse to bargain collectively," and asserts that "as abstract rights both undoubtedly exist." As a group of public men, however, they favor the acceptance by the employer of the policy of bargaining collectively, having reliance upon good faith for the enforcement of the bargain. The declaration of the Conference in favor of the policy of collective bargaining is as follows:

The Conference is in favor of the policy of collective bargaining. It sees in a frank acceptance of this principle the most helpful approach to industrial peace. It believes

that the great body of the employers of the country accept this principle. The difference of opinion appears in regard to the method of representation. In the plan proposed by the Conference for the adjustment of disputes provision is made for the unrestricted selection of representatives by employees, and at the same time provision is also made to insure that the representatives of employees in fact represent the majority of the employees, in order that they may be able to bind them in good faith.

Hours of Labor.

The Conference recommends neither the 8-hour day nor the 48-hour week, but it does state "that a schedule of hours substantially less than the 48-hour standard is not at this time desirable except in industries where a scientific study of the problem indicates that such a reduction is necessary for the protection of the health and

safety of the workers and is in the public interest."

Three recommendations are made: (1) That hours of work should be considered from the point of view of the welfare of the workers and of the efficient utilization of the country's resources over a long period of time; (2) that study should be made in each industry, preferably by the industry but in its default by the appropriate government agency, of the problem of industrial fatigue in relation to production and to the health of the workers; and (3) that hours of labor schedules should be arranged on a weekly basis and overtime be permitted only in case of temporary necessity.

Women and Children in Industry.

The Conference recommends that women doing work equal in quantity and in quality to that of men working under similar conditions should receive equal pay. In respect to child labor it urges all States not having adequate legislation with reference to child labor and compulsory education to "give these topics prompt and sympathetic consideration."

Housing.

Housing is declared by the Conference to be primarily a community problem. Home ownership by the workers is urged, "with protection against the dangers of real estate speculation and exploitation." The function of the State and Federal Governments is to be largely one of study and investigation of housing problems, the State further concerning itself with the enactment of proper building and housing codes.

Wages, Profit Sharing, and Thrift.

The Conference recommends the establishment of wages "on a basis of justice to employees" and asserts its belief that profit sharing "properly adapted to the character of the individual business and carried out in a spirit of genuine mutuality may often better industrial relations."

The Conference believes that the alternative to insurance against sickness and old age lies in a wage adequate to cover these items, and suggests that the Federal Government should conduct a careful, authoritative investigation of the whole subject. "It feels that such investigation could well include such items as the possibility of converting the great multitude of small Liberty loan investments in the country (with all the attendant difficulty of collecting small amounts of interest) into some form of old-age annuities."

Agriculture and the Cost of Living.

The Conference asserts its belief that agricultural production is profoundly influenced by the competitive conditions between the factory and the farm, as to wages, hours, and conditions of work, and feels that "it would be a disaster to exaggerate industrial development at the cost of agriculture."

Cooperation among consumers in the purchase of their supplies and among producers in the marketing of their products is suggested, which in the opinion of the Conference will tend to stabilize both demand and supply and offer legitimate opportunity for reduction in the price margin between producer and consumer.

Since changes in the cost of living, and the readjustments they make necessary, must continue to be significant, it is vitally important that the Government maintain and even extend its machinery for investigating and reporting upon this phase of the industrial situation. * * * The Conference hopes that adequate appropriations for the continuance of effective investigation work and the publication of results may not be lacking.

Public Employees.

The Conference states its belief that, although utmost liberty of action should be accorded public employees in the matter of their association for the advancement of their common interests, policemen, firemen, and others whose duties relate to the administration of justice and the preservation of life and property should not be allowed to affiliate with organizations which authorize the strike. The Conference was unable to agree upon any recommendation as to the propriety of the affiliation of other classes of public employees with such organizations.

Employment and Unemployment.

The Conference urges "an immediate and thorough study of the problem [of unemployment] by individual industries so that analysis of the conditions in each may suggest appropriate measures of amelioration. Otherwise the country will be confronted with the demand for legislation still on trial in those countries which have adopted it, and will be without the information necessary to a wise choice of remedies."

The Conference recommends establishing a "system of employment exchanges, municipal, State, and Federal, which shall in effect create a national employment service."

Conclusion.

IN CONCLUSION the report states:

In presenting these recommendations the Conference desires to emphasize that they are not merely designed to tide over a troublesome period of economic readjustment. Many of the evils which we have pointed out were in existence before the war, and will remain in existence, if steps are not taken to remedy them. The machinery of cooperation and adjustment which we recommend we believe to have permanent value as an agency of industrial progress. At the same time, it should be borne in mind that to-day, when the sense of the magnitude and danger of social unrest is still acutely upon us, when we have not yet reverted to settled habits of thought and action, when our economic life is still in a state of readjustment, it may be possible to establish ideals and set up machinery which the inertia of a later day may defeat. Not with any feeling of panic, not with any hysterical haste, but sanely and sensibly we urge that these reforms be put into effect. And we do so with the belief that they will not only contribute largely toward the elimination of the causes of industrial strife, but that they will make for the introduction, in American industry, of those democratic principles which constitute the most precious heritage of the American citizen.

The report is signed as follows:

William B. Wilson, Chairman. Herbert Hoover, Vice Chairman. Martin H. Glynn. Thomas W. Gregory. Richard Hooker. Stanley King. Samuel W. McCall. Henry M. Robinson. Julius Rosenwald. George T. Slade.
Oscar S. Straus.
Henry C. Stuart.
William O. Thompson.
Frank W. Taussig.
Henry J. Waters.
George W. Wickersham.
Owen D. Young.

Willard E. Hotchkiss, Henry R. Seager, Executive Secretaries.

Report of the United States Bituminous Coal Commission.

November, 1919 (see Monthly Labor Review for December, 1919, pp. 61-78), was brought to an end when the miners agreed to accept the President's proposal that they accept the 14 per cent wage increase fixed by the fuel administrator and his offer to appoint a tribunal to consider the whole matter and review the reasonableness both of the wages at which miners start work and of the Government prices for coal. This commission was appointed on

December 19, 1919, and was composed of Henry M. Robinson, representing the public, afterward elected chairman; Rembrandt Peale, representing the operators; and John P. White, the miners. The majority report, dated March 10, 1920, and signed by the chairman and Mr. Peale, has recently been accepted by the President as the report of the commission. A minority report by Mr. White is made a part of the general report.

The Majority Report of the Commission.

A THE first hearing, January 12, 1920, an agreement proposing to submit the controversial matters to the commission and to abide by its awards was reached between Mr. John L. Lewis, president of the United Mine Workers of America, and the operators in all the districts except the Southern Appalachian Coal Operators' Association; Alabama Coal Operators' Association; Colorado Fuel and Iron Co.; Operators' Association of Western Kentucky; New River Field of West Virginia; Georges Creek Coal Operators Association of Maryland. Statements from these operators' submitted to the commission showed that existing conditions peculiar to their particular industries prevented their taking part in the deliberations. All the operators, however, emphasized their legal inability to agree to fixed prices, and this matter was therefore not considered in the majority report.

Procedure.

Since the wages of the central competitive field consisting of the States of Illinois, Indiana, Ohio, and western Pennsylvania, have for many years been used as the basis for wages and agreements in outlying districts, the commission adopted the following method of securing necessary information regarding the industry. First, it heard the statements and demands of the miners and the operators of this field, respectively; then those of the miners and operators from other districts, and finally, in order to ascertain actual conditions in regard to the stability and distribution of the coal supply throughout the country, the statements of consumers generally.

Demands of Miners and Counterclaims of Operators.

The position of the miners as presented by President John L. Lewis, of the United Mine Workers of America, was as follows:

1. That there be a 60 per cent increase upon all classifications by day labor, tonnage, yardage, and day work in the central competitive field. That, of course, carries with it that the basis of understanding reached in the central competitive field on the part of the mine workers would be satisfactory in all outlying coal-producing districts.

2. That a six-hour day, five days per week, be established.

- 3. That the day labor be paid time and a half for overtime and double time for Sundays and holidays.
 - 4. That pay days shall be upon a weekly basis.
 - 5. That the double shift of work on coal for commercial tonnage be abolished.
 - 6. That the automatic penalty clause be abolished.
- 7. That the internal differences not covered by interstate joint agreement shall be referred back to the respective districts for adjustment.
- 8. That any contract negotiated be effective from and after November 1, 1919, to run for a period of two years from that date.

Presenting their counterclaims, the operators asked:

- 1. That the present system of collecting dues and initiation fees for the mine workers and enforcing the payments thereof by deductions from their earnings through the officers of the operators be abolished.
- 2. That the commission fix an equitable method for dealing with house rent charged mine workers and the price charged the miners for domestic coal.
- 3. That the commission recommend to the Congress of the United States the enactment of legislation requiring associations of employees, which make contracts of employment with employers, to take such action as will make them legally responsible for the fulfillment of the contracts so entered into.
- 4. That the national officers of the United Mine Workers of America and the national organization being parties to the making of the contract be required to assume responsibility for enforcing the terms of such contracts in the various districts, notwithstanding the present limitations in the constitution of the United Mine Workers of America.
- 5. That the contract shall provide that time clocks or time devices may be installed at mines and that the miners and inside day men be required to register when they enter or leave the mines and that the outside day force be required to register when they arrive at or leave the mines. All men refusing to comply with such requirements to be subject to discharge.
- 6. That the commission in its award provide for the introduction of devices or machinery which may serve to reduce the cost of coal and consequently the cost to the public for which there is no scale of wages in the then existing contract.
- 7. That whatever contract the commission works out or recommends should expire on the 31st of March, 1922; that contracts should expire in the spring and should stand for a two-year period.

The Award.

The provisions of the award may be summarized as follows:

- 1. Unless otherwise ordered the terms and conditions of the Washington agreement of October 6, 1917, shall continue.
- 2. The 14 per cent increase in wages fixed by the Fuel Administration is eliminated on March 31, and replaced by this award (which is on a 27 per cent basis).
- 3. The agreements drafted under this award are to take effect April 1, 1920, and continue until March 31, 1922.
- 4. The mining prices for mining mine-run coal, pick and machine, are advanced 24 cents.
- 5. All day labor and monthly men are advanced a dollar a day, except trappers and other boys, who are advanced 53 cents a day.
- 6. All rates for yardage, dead work, and room turning are advanced 20 per cent.

- 7. The fulfillment of all joint and district agreements are to be guaranteed by the officers of the international organization.
 - 8. The eight-hour day is retained.
- 9. The practice of car pushing stands, but with recommendations for careful consideration of ways and means for the introduction of ameliorating practices.
- 10. Rules are set up under which new machinery can be introduced in the mines and thoroughly tested.
- 11. A commission is set up for the central competitive field to handle questions of differentials in rate and certain other matters.
- 12. If the recommendations of the President's Industrial Conference are adopted in regard to industrial tribunals and boards of inquiry, this machinery is to be put into use in the coal industry. Otherwise a special board is to be set up.
 - 13. Explosives are to be furnished miners at cost, cost to include
- handling, transportation, and insurance.
- 14. House coal is to be furnished to the miners at the tipple at the price they were paying on October 31, 1919, plus the average percentage allowed as an increase on the wage scale, i. e., 27 per cent—the miners to pay for delivery at cost.
- 15. Charges for blacksmithing are not to exceed three-quarters of 1 per cent of the miners' gross earnings.
- 16. Special boards are to be set up for the Kanawha, Paint Creek, and Cabin Creek fields; for District No. 12, Illinois, including Assumption and Decatur, Ill.; also for the State of Washington; each commission to handle specific local conditions.

Summary of Recommendations.

The report recommends:

- 1. That an Executive order be issued instructing departments and Federal agencies to buy and store the winter's supply of coal before July 1 of each year.
- 2. That the Council of National Defense assume the duty of obtaining the support of the general public for coal storage.
- 3. That an Executive memorandum be issued to the Interstate Commerce Commission, to the end that the commission may aid in the solution of the transportation problems outlined, with particular attention to the question of seasonal freight rates, car supply, and car distribution, as well as the problem of railway coal purchase for storage.
- 4. That the governors of the various States be asked to issue executive orders to State institutions and departments for the purchase and storage of winter coal during the summer months.
- 5. That State railway and public utility corporations use their influence with the various utility commissions to induce the pur-

chase and storage of coal by those corporations, reflecting, if necessary, the cost of such storage in the rates.

6. That a copy of this report go to the railroads to the end that they may cooperate in regard to coal storage, car construction and distribution, and the reduction to a minimum of the practice of commandeering coal.

7. That a copy of this report be transmitted to the Federal Reserve Board, to the end that Federal reserve banks may favor, as eligible

for rediscount, paper drawn against coal in storage.

8. That the Interstate Commerce Commission, State railway and public utility commissions within their jurisdictions issue, where lawful, rules controlling car distribution among mines, to the end that no particular mine or mines may be permitted to obtain, through a practice of car assignment and car guaranties, preferential car service.

9. That the practice whereby purchasing agents of carriers can use company control over car supply to force down the price of railway fuel be abolished.

10. That operators avoid the use for railroads of coal whose proper-

ties make it more valuable for other purposes.

11. That camp and housing conditions be improved.

12. That the good offices of the miners' international organization be exercised to maintain their expressed position favoring the introduction of labor-saving devices and machinery.

13. That the making of advances on miners' pay be discouraged in every way, but if made, that they be made without discount,

either directly or indirectly.

Wages.

Among the questions bearing upon numerous phases of the industry dealt with in the report those of wages and irregularity of employ-

ment assume the largest proportions.

In deciding to substitute a 27 per cent increase in wages for the 14 per cent fixed by Mr. Garfield, the former fuel administrator, the commission states that it was guided by the principle that "every industry must support its workers in accordance with the American standard of living"; moreover, that in a consideration of this principle it took into account the increased cost of living as shown by estimates submitted by the operators and by those shown in late official reports of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, increases paid workers in other industries, and various other factors.

This percentage of increase was based upon percentages reached for the different classes of work and of workers in the industry estimated

on a tonnage basis.

The increase was apportioned among the different bodies of workers and classes of workers as indicated in the award, and applied to the

rates paid on October 31, 1919. The report estimates that on this basis the average increase to tonnage workers will be 31 per cent over that in 1919, and for day men it will amount to an average increase of 20 per cent. While there seems to be an apparent inequality in such an apportionment, the commission considers it a fair one, since under the award of October 6, 1919, the day men received a rate considerably in excess of the advance given to the tonnage workers.

It is estimated that the 27 per cent increase will amount to an increase in wages of approximately \$200,000,000 above what they were October 31, 1919, and the question of vital interest to the consumer is whether or not this added expense will ultimately be passed on to the public. In the opinion of the commission this depends upon competitive conditions, but it offers this hope: "We estimate that the carrying out of other provisions of our findings will save the general public more than the cost of the additional wages. It is to be expected that when all Government regulations are withdrawn and a competitive market for coal is reestablished, the overexpansion of the industry will not permit the operators to add to the price of coal all the increased compensation granted to the miners."

The contention was made by the operators who submitted figures to illustrate their case that often the miners do not avail themselves of all opportunity for work and that miners who work three-fourths of the available time earn sufficient wages. These figures, the report states, were found defective in two respects: (1) No allowance is made for turnover; (2) conditions in the mines resulting from the nature of the industry may limit the possibility of employment even though the mine is open. The commission found, however, even after all allowances had been made, a margin of unemployment directly attributable to the miners themselves.

In view of the generally accepted opinion regarding the relation which the increased wages paid for labor bears to a rise in the price of coal, the commission finds that—

We have evidence that the share of labor in the total price paid by the public for coal was greater in 1916 and in 1917 than in 1918 for most of the important producing districts. Hence the advance granted to labor by this commission will tend to reestablish the prewar distribution of each dollar paid for coal as between capital and labor.

The increase will thus in no way be a further step in the circular ladder of more wages—higher prices—increase in the cost of living—still more wages.

Irregularity of Mining Operations.

The irregularity of mining operations resulting as it does in an intermittency of working-days is a primary cause of much of the unrest prevailing in the industry and of the high prices of coal.

This irregularity the commission attributes to two principal causes:
(1) The seasonal character of the market; (2) the inadequacy and

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irregularity of car supply. Statistics submitted in support of these statements show that in 1918 when the demand for coal was at its maximum the principal cause of loss of time was car shortage which amounted to 49 per cent, while in 1919, after the war demand was past, "no market" was responsible for 50 per cent of the idle time. Labor shortage and strikes accounted for about one-fourth of the lost time in each year and mine disability for 14 per cent in 1918 and 6 per cent in 1919.

The seasonal character of the demand which forces the operators to keep a reserve force large enough to meet the peak of the demand operates to produce unemployment in seasons of "no market."

For these reasons the commission strongly urges the consuming public on the one hand and the carriers on the other to aid in stabilizing the industry and in regulating the irregularity of the market, the public by purchasing and storing its coal in the spring and summer; the carriers by arranging to furnish all possible equipment when necessary and without discrimination.

The fact is brought out that for many years the railroads, which consume about 30 per cent of the total coal production, have, when necessary, been in the habit of commandeering coal consigned to other consumers, and that public utilities have also followed this practice to some extent.

The commission has therefore requested the executives of the larger systems to move coal in excess of their needs during months of low movement to consumption terminals, so as to accumulate a three months' supply by winter and to have 20 or 30 days' supply on hand in the spring. The economy thus practiced will, it is thought, offset to a large extent the increased cost of storage. Public utilities and the steel industry, the next largest consumers, are urged to increase their storage of coal and movement of the same during the summer months, as are also Government institutions, Federal, State, and local.

These and other recommendations which, if carried out, the commission believes, will do much to stabilize the coal industry, afford a considerable measure of relief to the carrier, and effect a saving for the public, are found in the summary of recommendations on pages 43 and 44 of this number of the Review.

The overdeveloped condition of the industry is another cause of unemployment among the miners. According to the report, America, at the present time, requires less than 500,000,000 tons of bituminous coal per annum, while the mines are capable of producing 700,000,000 tons. Overdevelopment naturally increased during the war, with the result that more capital and more labor are now employed in the industry than present demands require.

Hours.

The miners' demand for a six-hour day and a five-day week, which would have reduced the actual working time from 48 hours to 30, was not granted for the following reasons:

1. It would restrict output.

2. Shorter hours would attract more men to an industry that in seasons of low movement is already overmanned, and this in turn would probably result in further demands for the shortening of hours.

3. Shorter hours would not reduce the risks run by miners by reducing the time during which they are exposed to this risk, because the miners wish to adopt the shorter day or week not to limit the number of hours per year, but merely to distribute them more evenly.

The Minority Report.

MR. JOHN P. WHITE, the member of the commission representing the miners, while in accord with some of the findings of the majority report, could not subscribe to its solution of several of the major problems, and therefore submitted a minority report offering amendments.

Wages.

As regards wages, he agrees that the Washington agreement of October 6, 1919, shall continue, but subject to changes which he mentions.

He accepts the 24 per cent increase on pick and machine mining and the 20 per cent increase for all yardage, dead work, and room turning, not because these increases will result in the standard of living mentioned in the majority report, but because they will materially improve the living conditions of the men affected. He holds that day and monthly men should receive \$1.35 per day; trappers and boys, 75 cents a day, instead of \$1, and 53 cents a day awarded these classes of workers, respectively.

Objection is made to the method of wage determination used in the majority report, and Mr. White emphazizes two errors into which, in his opinion, the joint report has fallen in calculating and apportioning the wage increase. "In the first place," he points out, "the weighting chosen is upon the tonnage basis instead of upon the man basis; and in the second place the day workers, who have received the larger increase heretofore, are utilized to depress the average increase due to pick and machine miners, and then are not themselves awarded the increase as thus depressed."

He agrees with the joint report in its estimate of average increases received by the machine miner, the pick miner, and the day worker, respectively; but in view of the fact that a coal-mining machine can produce on the average 17,000 tons of coal per year,

while the production per employee is considerably less than 1,000 tons, and in view of the further fact that the ultimate compensation is intended to be such as will enable human beings to live in a creditable manner, he asserts that, "when it is sought to combine the increases of the machine and the pick miner, obviously the weighting chosen should be on the basis of the number of men actually employed at the two occupations and not upon the number of tons produced by the two methods."

Estimating the increase in wages on the man basis alone the minority report claims that the increase should be 31 per cent instead of 27 per cent, and that the increase in tonnage rates should be 27 cents

per ton and not 24 cents.

Irregularity of Employment and the Shorter Working Day.

The minority and majority reports are in full accord as to the unsatisfactory effect of the irregularity of employment in mining operations and of the overexpansion of the industry upon working conditions and prices. It is pointed out in the minority report, however, that the majority report fails to make constructive suggestions to meet the problem of overdevelopment. Instead it implies that a regularization of the market will solve the problem of irregularity of employment, or to put it in another way, that "unemployment can

be eliminated by being distributed."

This Mr. White believes would be impossible even though all the suggestions to this effect in the majority report were realized. Basing his statements upon figures given in weekly reports of the United States Geological Survey, he shows that the coal necessary for the normal market can be mined on an average of 30 hours of operation a week, that during the war the average operation was between 30 and 40 hours per week, the highest figure being under 42 hours, and that since the armistice the actual average has been under 30 hours per week. He concludes that since at present there appears to be no way of preventing overproduction, regulating the market as suggested by the majority report "would simply regularize the short working period required to satisfy the needs of the country," and that herein lies the fallacy of the continued eight-hour day.

The amount of unemployment due to labor shortage and strikes as given in the majority report is also questioned in the minority report. Official statistics are submitted to show that between 1910 and 1918 only 10.6 per cent of days lost in this industry resulted from strikes.

Figures are furthermore given to indicate the American miner's great liability to death by accident, which is ascribed to his greater productivity.

In regard to the whole question of the eight-hour day, Mr. White feels that the miners should be assured of two things:

"(1) That it shall be a real eight-hour day; that is, eight hours from the time the miner leaves the surface to the time he returns to the surface; (2) that punitive overtime shall be established as a means to its enforcement, and he recommends 'that the present working hours of mine employees continue in effect until March 31, 1921, and that, beginning April 1, 1921, the maximum hours for employees shall not exceed eight hours underground per day, and six days per week.'

Miscellaneous Recommendations of the Minority Report.

The recommendation of the minority report as regards a tribunal to consider the important question of differentials in the central competitive field differs from that of the majority report in the number of members composing it and in the manner of their selection. The majority report recommends a body of eight men, one mine worker and one operator from each district in this field, while the minority report recommends a body of five men, two representatives of the miners' international officials, two of the officials of the Coal Operators' Association of the central competitive field, and a disinterested member to be chosen by the United States Secretary of Labor.

It is furthermore suggested by the minority report that since the hearings showed and the majority report admits that the public paid about 80 per cent of the 14 per cent increase granted by Mr. Garfield, in increased prices, the operators should be able to absorb the remainder of the present 27 per cent increase, or 13 per cent.

The relation of labor costs to total costs, profits, and prices in the bituminous coal-mining industry as well as the profits of bituminous coal companies were treated in too great detail in the minority report

to be adequately discussed in this review.

Briefly, the minority report, like the majority report, finds the general belief that wage increases have been and will be necessarily a primary cause of advancing coal prices a mistaken one. The truth of this statement is substantiated by statistics from a recent report on the coal industry published by the Federal Trade Commission and by other official data. A study of the conditions in the Pennsylvania, the southwestern, and various other coal fields established the facts that:

1. Increased coal prices were not due to increased labor costs, but, on the contrary, were due largely to increased profits exacted by the operators; and

2. Increased wages to labor were more than offset and rendered less than negligible by the increased efficiency and increased productivity of labor.

Conclusion.1

Upon the acceptance by the President of the majority report the scale committee of the bituminous operators and of mine workers was called in joint conference in New York City, March 29, 1920, to consider the terms of the award as regards increases in wages.

On motion of the mine workers' representatives the commission's award of 27 per cent increase was accepted, effective April 1, 1920. Locals in the competitive field were immediately notified of the decision and thus any cessation of mining operations was avoided.

A subcommittee based on the coal commission's report and composed of the international officers of the mine workers and two operators and two miners from each of the four States in the central competitive field was appointed to negotiate a new wage contract in line with the recommendations of the majority report.

Analysis of Labor Provisions of the New Transportation Act.

THE new railroad control act passed by Congress and signed by the President February 28, 1920, differs from previous railroad legislation principally in its inclusion of significant and extended provisions for the adjustment of industrial relations in the railroad service. Previous railroad legislation had proceeded along two distinct lines. There was first a separate body of legislation affecting the finances and operations of the carriers; and a second series of laws regulating the relations of employer and employee. In the first group of laws belong, for instance, the first interstate commerce act of 1887, the Elkins Act of 1903, the Hepburn amendment of 1906, the Carmack amendment of the same year, the Mann-Elkins amendment of 1910, the Panama Canal act of 1912, and the two general laws on combinations and trusts—the Sherman act of 1890, and the Clayton act of 1914. The second group of laws has comprised the employers' liability act, 1908, the safety appliance act of 1893 and subsequent years, the mediation laws-Erdman, 1898, and Newlands, 1913—and finally the Adamson 8-hour law, September 3-5, 1916.

Following this came the war legislation, the chief feature of which has been the recognition extended to labor in the determination of labor conditions and regulations and in the adjustment of industrial relations.

¹ Data taken from Washington (D. C.) Post, Mar. 30, 1920, p. 1.

Under the act of August 29, 1917, the President was authorized to take possession and assume control of the transportation systems of the country and to use them for such purposes as were connected with the prosecution of the war. The proclamation for the assumption of control was issued December 26, 1917. Subsequently, through the Federal control act, March 21, 1918, control by Executive order was replaced by control defined and limited under provisions of law. This Federal control act provided for Government operation of the railroads during the period of the war and not exceeding 21 months after the exchange of ratification of the treaty of peace.

As respects the control of industrial relations the new act incorporates some of the corresponding provisions of the Federal control act of March 21, 1918. Two kinds of boards are created to handle disputes between the carriers and their employees and subordinate officials: (a) Railroad boards of labor adjustment; (b) a railroad labor board. The railroad administration act provided for three labor adjustment boards. No statement is contained in the new law as to the number of such boards. This class of boards, whatever the number set up, is to take jurisdiction of any dispute upon application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or upon the written petition of not less than 100 unorganized employees, or upon motion of the adjustment board itself on the request of the labor board.

No rules are laid down defining the precise composition of these adjustment boards and their methods of procedure. These matters

are left to the decision of the carriers and their employees.

The labor adjustment boards receive for hearing and decide disputes involving only grievances, rules of employment, and working conditions which have not been settled in conference between the carrier and its employees. The transportation act, it will be observed, makes no change in the methods of collective dealing now in practice among the carriers and their employees for the making of the labor contract and determining general conditions of employment. The act, however, does attempt to give voice to the unorganized employees of the railroad. Whether or not this method of approach in dealing with the employees proves effective remains to be seen in the course of administration of the act.

The principal agency created by the law for the final adjustment of disputes between the railroads and their employees is the Railroad Labor Board. This board is composed of nine members—three representing the employees and subordinate officials, three representing the carriers, and three representing the public. All three groups of members are appointed by the President with the consent of the Senate, the first two groups from not less than six nominees offered by the employees and the carriers, respectively. Failure of

either group to propose nominees gives the President power to appoint members directly to represent the group. The third group is appointed directly by the President.

The members of the board may not hold active membership in any organization of employees or be pecuniarily interested in any carrier. Honorary membership in any organization or rights to insurance or pension benefits in such organization are not required to be relinquished. The term of office is five years, and the salary \$10,000 per annum. Removal for cause rests with the President.

The labor board is authorized to hear and decide on appeal from the adjustment boards matters which those boards are empowered to consider. Wage or salary disputes which are not within the jurisdiction of the adjustment boards are also decided by the labor board if not settled by conference between the carriers and their employees. The labor board obtains jurisdiction of all disputes in the same manner as the adjustment boards, namely, upon its own motion or upon petition of the carrier or of the employees, whether organized or unorganized.

The board may suspend the operation of any decision between a carrier and its employees if there is involved an increase in wages or salaries such as to necessitate a substantial readjustment of rates.

Decisions of the labor board require the assent of at least five of the nine members, and in cases of decisions affecting wages or salaries at least one of the representatives of the public must concur in the decision.

The board has wide powers in compelling the attendance of witnesses, production of books, documents, and other information. While no penalty is provided for the violation of a decision of the labor board, yet the board is authorized to examine into the observance of its decisions and to make public the facts in any case.

In making its decisions affecting salaries and wages the board is directed to take into consideration as far as applicable certain relevant circumstances. These relevant factors are: (1) The scale of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries; (2) the relation between wages and the cost of living; (3) the hazards of the employment; (4) the training and skill required; (5) the degree of responsibility; (6) the character and regularity of the employment; and (7) inequalities of increases in wages or of treatment, the result of previous wage orders or adjustments.

The labor board becomes a continuing investigational agency respecting the relation between the carriers and their employees, particularly as to questions of wages, hours of work, conditions of employment, and the privileges, rights, and duties of carriers and employees. It is authorized to gather, classify, and publish from time to time information relating to such questions. It is required to publish annually its administrative decisions and regulations as well

as those of the Interstate Commerce Commission in so far as the latter affect industrial relations.

The act requires each carrier to continue until September 1, 1920, the scale of compensation to its employees and subordinate officials which have been fixed under the Federal railroad control act. After that period wages will become subject to new adjustments between the carriers and their employees.

The Interstate Commerce Commission plays no essential part, exercises no control, within the field of industrial relations under the act. Its sole function in this respect is that of drafting the rules for

the selection of the members of the Railroad Labor Board.

The prohibition of strikes, contained in the Senate bill, was not incorporated in the law. Apparently the law contains no provision for compulsory delay in striking pending investigation of a dispute. The act merely cites it as "the duty of all carriers and their officers, employees, and agents to exert every reasonable effort and adopt every available means to avoid any interruption to the operation of any carrier growing out of any dispute between the carrier and the employees or subordinate officials thereof." It is a duty without penalty that is here stated. Whether or not the method of the injunction could be invoked to enforce that duty will be one for future determination by the courts.

Labor Provisions of the Transportation Act, 1920.

THE following are the labor provisions of the act:

Title III.—Disputes Between Carriers and Their Employees and Subordinate Officials.

SECTION 300. When used in this title-

- (1) The term "carrier" includes any express company, sleeping car company, and any carrier by railroad, subject to the Interstate Commerce Act, except a street, interurban, or suburban electric railway not operating as a part of a general steam railroad system of transportation;
- (2) The term "adjustment board" means any railroad board of labor adjustment established under section 302;

(3) 'The term "labor board" means the Railroad Labor Board;

- (4) The term "commerce" means commerce among the several States or between any State, Territory, or the District of Columbia and any foreign nation, or between any Territory or the District of Columbia and any State, or between any Territory and any other Territory, or between any Territory and the District of Columbia, or within any Territory or the District of Columbia, or between points in the same State but through any other State or any Territory or the District of Columbia or any foreign nation; and
- (5) The term "subordinate official" includes officials of carriers of such class or rank as the commission shall designate by regulation formulated and issued after such notice and hearing as the commission may prescribe, to the carriers, and employees and subordinate officials of carriers, and organizations thereof, directly to be affected by such regulations.

Sec. 301. It shall be the duty of all carriers and their officers, employees, and agents to exert every reasonable effort and adopt every available means to avoid any

interruption to the operation of any carrier growing out of any dispute between the carrier and the employees or subordinate officials thereof. All such disputes shall be considered and, if possible, decided in conference between representatives designated and authorized so to confer by the carriers, or the employees or subordinate officials thereof, directly interested in the dispute. If any dispute is not decided in such conference, it shall be referred by the parties thereto to the board which under the provisions of this title is authorized to hear and decide such dispute.

Sec. 302. Railroad boards of labor adjustment may be established by agreement between any carrier, group of carriers, or the carriers as a whole, and any employees or subordinate officials of carriers, or organization or group of organizations thereof.

Sec. 303. Each such adjustment board shall, (1) upon the application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or subordinate officials whose members are directly interested in the dispute, (2) upon the written petition signed by not less than 100 unorganized employees or subordinate officials directly interested in the dispute, (3) upon the adjustment board's own motion, or (4) upon the request of the labor board whenever such board is of the opinion that the dispute is likely substantially to interrupt commerce, receive for hearing, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, any dispute involving only grievances, rules, or working conditions, not decided as provided in section 301, between the carrier and its employees or subordinate officials, who are, or any organization thereof which is, in accordance with the provisions of section 302, represented upon any such adjustment board.

Sec. 304. There is hereby established a board to be known as the "Railroad Labor Board" and to be composed of nine members as follows:

(1) Three members constituting the labor group, representing the employees and subordinate officials of the carriers, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, from not less than six nominees whose nominations shall be made and offered by such employees in such manner as the commission shall by regulation prescribe;

(2) Three members, constituting the management group, representing the carriers, to be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, from not less than six nominees whose nominations shall be made and offered by the carriers in such manner as the commission shall by regulation prescribe; and

(3) Three members, constituting the public group, representing the public, to be appointed directly by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Any vacancy on the labor board shall be filled in the same manner as the original appointment.

SEC. 305. If either the employees or the carriers fail to make nominations, and offer nominees in accordance with the regulations of the commission, as provided in paragraphs (1) and (2) of section 304 within thirty days after the passage of this act in case of any original appointment to the office of member of the labor board, or in case of a vacancy in any such office within fifteen days after such vacancy occurs, the President shall thereupon directly make the appointment, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. In making any such appointment the President shall, as far as he deems it practicable, select an individual associated in interest with the carriers or employees thereof, whichever he is to represent.

SEC. 306. (a) Any member of the labor board, one from each group shall be appointed for a term of three years, one for two years, and one for one year. Their successors shall hold office for terms of five years, except that any member appointed to fill a vacancy shall be appointed only for the unexpired term of the member whom he succeeds. Each member shall receive from the United States an annual salary of \$10,000. A member may be removed by the President for neglect of duty or malfeasance in office, but for no other cause

SEC. 307. (a) The labor board shall hear, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, any dispute involving grievances, rules, or working conditions, in respect to which any adjustment board certifies to the labor board that in its opinion the adjustment board has failed or will fail to reach a decision within a reasonable time, or in respect to which the labor board determines that any adjustment board has so failed or is not using due diligence in its consideration thereof. In case the appropriate adjustment board is not organized under the provisions of section 302. the labor board, (1) upon the application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or subordinate officials whose members are directly interested in the dispute, (2) upon a written petition signed by not less than 100 unorganized employees or subordinate officials directly interested in the dispute, or (3) upon the labor board's own motion if it is of the opinion that the dispute is likely substantially to interrupt commerce, shall receive for hearing, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, any dispute involving grievances, rules, or working conditions which is not decided as provided in section 301 and which such adjustment board would be required to receive for hearing and decision under the provisions of section

(b) The labor board, (1) upon the application of the chief executive of any carrier or organization of employees or subordinate officials whose members are directly interested in the dispute, (2) upon a written petition signed by not less than 100 unorganized employees or subordinate officials directly interested in the dispute, or (3) upon the labor board's own motion if it is of the opinion that the dispute is likely substantially to interrupt commerce, shall receive for hearing, and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide, all disputes with respect to the wages or salaries of employees or subordinate officials of carriers, not decided as provided in section 301. The labor board may upon its own motion within ten days after the decision, in accordance with the provisions of section 301, of any dispute with respect to wages or salaries of employees or subordinate officials of carriers, suspend the operation of such decision if the labor board is of the opinion that the decision involves such an increase in wages or salaries as will be likely to necessitate a substantial readjustment of the rates of any carrier. The labor board shall hear any decision so suspended and as soon as practicable and with due diligence decide to affirm or modify such suspended decision.

(c) A decision by the labor board under the provisions of paragraphs (a) or (b) of this section shall require the concurrence therein of at least 5 of the 9 members of the labor board: Provided, That in case of any decision under paragraph (b) at least one of the representatives of the public shall concur in such decision. All decisions of the labor board shall be entered upon the records of the board, and copies thereof, together with such statement of facts bearing thereon as the board may deem proper, shall be immediately communicated to the parties to the dispute, the President, each adjustment board, and the commission, and shall be given further publicity

in such manner as the labor board may determine.

(d) All the decisions of the labor board in respect to wages or salaries and of the labor board or an adjustment board in respect to working conditions of employees or subordinate officials of carriers shall establish rates of wages and salaries and standards of working conditions which in the opinion of the board are just and reasonable. In determining the justness and reasonableness of such wages and salaries or working conditions the board shall, so far as applicable, take into consideration among other relevant circumstances:

- (1) The scales of wages paid for similar kinds of work in other industries;
- (2) The relation between wages and the cost of living;
- (3) The hazards of the employment;
- (4) The training and skill required;
- (5) The degree of responsibility;

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(6) The character and regularity of the employment; and

(7) Inequalities of increases in wages or of treatment, the result of previous wage orders or adjustments.

Sec. 308. The labor board-

(1) Shall elect a chairman by majority vote of its members;

(2) Shall maintain central offices in Chicago, Illinois, but the labor board may,

whenever it deems it necessary, meet at such other place as it may determine;

(3) Shall investigate and study the relations between carriers and their employees, particularly questions relating to wages, hours of labor, and other conditions of employment and the respective privileges, rights, and duties of carriers and employees, and shall gather, compile, classify, digest, and publish from time to time data and information relating to such questions, to the end that the labor board may be properly equipped to perform its duties under this title and that the members of the adjustment boards and the public may be properly informed;

(4) May make regulations necessary for the efficient execution of the functions

vested in it by this title; and

(5) Shall at least annually collect and publish the decisions and regulations of the labor board and the adjustment boards and all court and administrative decisions and regulations of the commission in respect to this title, together with a cumulative index-digest thereof.

Sec. 309. Any party to any dispute to be considered by an adjustment board or by the labor board shall be entitled to a hearing either in person or by counsel.

Sec. 310. (a) For the efficient administration of the functions vested in the labor board by this title any member thereof may require by subpoena issued and signed by himself the attendance of any witness and the production of any book, paper, document, or other evidence from any place in the United States at any designated place of hearing, and the taking of a deposition before any designated person having power to administer oaths. In the case of a deposition the testimony shall be reduced to writing by the person taking the deposition or under his direction and shall then be subscribed to by the deponent. Any member of the labor board may administer oaths and examine any witness. Any witness summoned before the board and any witness whose deposition is taken shall be paid the same fees and mileage as are paid witnesses in the courts of the United States.

(b) In case of failure to comply with any subpoena or in case of the contumacy of any witness appearing before the labor board the board may invoke the aid of any United States district court. Such court may thereupon order the witness to comply with the requirements of such subpoena, or to give evidence touching the matter in question, as the case may be. Any failure to obey such order may be punished by

such court as a contempt thereof.

(c) No person shall be excused from so attending and testifying or deposing, nor from so producing any book, paper, document, or other evidence on the ground that the testimony or evidence, documentary or otherwise, required of him may tend to incriminate him or subject him to a penalty or forfeiture; but no natural person shall be prosecuted or subjected to any penalty or forfeiture for or on account of any transaction, matter, or thing as to which, in obedience to a subpensa and under oath, he may so testify or produce evidence, documentary or otherwise. But no person shall be exempt from prosecution and punishment for perjury committed in so testifying.

SEC. 311. (a) When necessary to the efficient administration of the functions vested in the labor board by this title, any member, officer, employee, or agent thereof, duly authorized in writing by the board, shall at all reasonable times, for the purpose of examination, have access to and the right to copy any book, account, record, paper, or correspondence relating to any matter which the board is authorized to consider or investigate. Any person who upon demand refuses any duly authorized member,

officer, employee, or agent of the labor board such right of access or copying, or hinders, obstructs, or resists him in the exercise of such right shall, upon conviction thereof, be liable to a penalty of \$500 for each such offense. Each day during any part of which such offense continues shall constitute a separate offense. Such penalty shall be recoverable in a civil suit brought in the name of the United States and shall be covered into the Treasury of the United States as miscellaneous receipts.

(b) Every officer or employee of the United States, whenever requested by any member of the labor board or an adjustment board duly authorized by the board for the purpose, shall supply to such board any data or information pertaining to the administration of the functions vested in it by this title which may be contained in the records of his office.

(c) The President is authorized to transfer to the labor board any books, papers, or documents pertaining to the administration of the functions vested in the board by this title which are in the possession of any agency or railway board of adjustment in connection therewith established for executing the powers granted the President under the Federal control act and which are no longer necessary to the administration of the affairs of such agency.

SEC. 312. Prior to September 1, 1920, each carrier shall pay to each employee or subordinate official thereof wages or salary at a rate not less than that fixed by the decision of any agency, or railway board of adjustment in connection therewith, established for executing the powers granted the President under the Federal control act, in effect in respect to such employee or subordinate official immediately preceding 12.01 a. m., March 1, 1920. Any carrier acting in violation of any provision of this section shall, upon conviction thereof, be liable to a penalty of \$100 for each such offense. Each such action with respect to any such employee or subordinate official and each day or portion thereof during which the offense continues shall constitute a separate offense. Such penalty shall be recoverable in a civil suit brought in the name of the United States, and shall be covered into the Treasury of the United States as miscellaneous receipts.

SEC. 313. The labor board, in case it has reason to believe that any decision of the labor board, or of an adjustment board, is violated by any carrier, or employee or subordinate official, or organization thereof, may upon its own motion after due notice and hearing to all persons directly interested in such violation, determine whether in its opinion such violation has occurred and make public its decision in such manner as it may determine.

SEC. 314. The labor board may (1) appoint a secretary, who shall receive from the United States an annual salary of \$5,000; and (2) subject to the provisions of the civil-service laws, appoint and remove such officers, employees, and agents; and make such expenditures for rent, printing, telegrams, telephone, law books, books of reference, periodicals, furniture, stationery, office equipment, and other supplies and expenses, including salaries, traveling expenses of its members, secretary, officers, employees, and agents, and witness fees as are necessary for the efficient execution of the functions vested in the board by this title and as may be provided for by Congress from time to time. All of the expenditures of the labor board shall be allowed and paid upon the presentation of itemized vouchers therefor approved by the chairman of the labor board.

SEC. 315. There is hereby appropriated for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated, the sum of \$50,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to be expended by the labor board, for defraying the expenses of the maintenance and establishment of the board, including the payment of salaries as provided in this title.

SEC. 316. The powers and duties of the board of mediation and conciliation created by the act approved July 15, 1913, shall not extend to any dispute which may be received for hearing and decision by any adjustment board or the labor board.

Annual Report of Division of Labor, United States Railroad Administration, for 1919.

RECOMMENDATION for the continuance, even after the end of Government operation of railroads, of the boards of adjustment 1 set up by the Railroad Administration to render decisions on controversies arising out of the application of wage orders and on other disputes between railroad officials and employees, is contained in the annual report for the year 1919 of the director of the Division of Labor of the Railroad Administration.

The report calls attention to the fact that railway boards of adjustment have no jurisdiction over the recommendation, issuance, and interpretation of wage orders, their duties being confined to decisions on controversies arising out of the application of wage orders and to decisions on all other disputes between the officials and employees working under agreements. The director of the Division of Labor regards the work of these boards as having demonstrated not only the advisability of the creation of such boards, but the necessity of their continuance either under Federal control of railroads or otherwise. The fact that the boards are "bipartisan," without "umpire" or "neutral member," and that all of the members are experts on railroad agreement matters, it is believed has led both officials and employees to have confidence not only in the fairness of decisions reached, but as to the technical ability of the members of the boards to pass intelligently upon all controversies submitted for decision.

The report outlines labor conditions on railroads prior to Government control and the railroad labor situation when Government control began, as follows:

One of the principal purposes of the creation of the Division of Labor was to provide means whereby the controversies that constantly arise between railroad officials and employees would be promptly and equitably adjusted. An inability to adjust these controversies under past practices resulted in strikes, threatened strikes, or a constant unrest among employees to the extent that the efficiency of the service had greatly diminished at the time that the roads were taken over under Federal control.

It is but fair to say that neither the operating officials nor the employees were entirely to blame for so undesirable a situation. While on some roads there had never been a liberal policy toward employees of certain classes, a study of past relations will reveal the fact that not so many years ago the labor policy of a railroad was developed entirely by the operating officers. At that time committees of employees, with the knowledge that their immediate operating officers had the authority to grant wage increases, revise wage agreements, and adjust personal grievances, entered into negotiations with their respective officials with an open mind, and with the belief that if evidence and argument could be presented that would prove their contentions, the operating officials of the road would at least grant some relief from the conditions of employment against which complaint was made.

¹ Accounts of the creation of these boards of adjustment were published in the Monthly Labor Review for May, 1918 (pp. 180-182), July, 1918 (p. 132), and March, 1919 (p. 162).

In those days wage increases were granted from time to time, wage agreements were revised so as to include rules more favorable to employees, and personal grievances arising out of the administration of discipline were disposed of usually without a strike or a threat of a strike.

It is alleged by employees that with a concentration of financial control of the railroads, either by groups or districts, operating officials lost all authority over the labor policies upon the respective railroads with the result that it was alleged that the operating officials of a railroad were no longer permitted to exercise their own judgment in disposing of these matters.

With the creation of "general managers' associations," covering a comparatively large territory, came "district movements" by employees for the adjustment of wage matters.

During the two or three years antedating Federal control of the railroads an alarming situation was created in that the employees' organizations, as a whole and through federations, found themselves confronted with similar federations on the part of the railroads, the roads being represented by conference committees and the conference committees being subordinate to "advisory committees." It was alleged by employees that these conference committees of all of the principal railroads in a district were not permitted to grant the demands of employees, or even to make favorable compromises, without the consent of the advisory committee. The advisory committee it is alleged was the agent of the great banking institutions that controlled the financial policy of all the railroads.

Arbitrations have been resorted to in the later years in these district movements, with the result that employees reached the conclusion that an arbitration award depended entirely upon the frame of mind of the neutral arbitrator. Persons selected to perform this function were liberal in their awards, in accordance with the liberality

of their minds when appointed upon such arbitration boards.

There seems to have been a public opinion that any man, even indirectly connected with labor, would be unqualified to act as a neutral arbitrator, with the result that most estimable gentlemen who had never had any connection with, and who had little knowledge of, labor conditions, were called upon to act as umpires in these great contests. It was alleged by the employees that usually these arbitrators, having no technical knowledge of wage schedules, often made awards that were difficult of interpretation, if they did not, in fact, bring about conditions the very opposite to that intended by the neutral arbitrator. It also became apparent that in the application of the arbitration award the officials of a railroad were the sole administrators thereof, with the result that after employees had been led to believe that an arbitration award brought them much relief it was applied in a manner that "took away from them more than had been given them."

Later, provisions were made for submitting controversies over the application of an arbitration award back to the arbitration board or to some other umpire, but this resulted in the continuation of controversies over a period of two or three years.

It may be truthfully said that at the time the railroads passed under Federal control, because of these vexatious contentions, the morale of railway employees had sunk to a low degree. In many instances there was an entire absence of esprit de corps, so necessary for efficient operation.

It was with the knowledge of this alarming situation, and with a determination to restore harmonious relations between employees and the railroads and thereby increase the efficiency of the railroads, that the Division of Labor of the Railroad Administration was created.

Unauthorized Strikes in 1919.

DISCUSSING the unauthorized strikes which occurred on railroads during 1919, the report states:

During the year 1919 a considerable number of minor strikes occurred, practically all of which were not authorized by the organization of which the employees were members. A major proportion of these strikes was adjusted through the initiative of the Division of Labor. In some instances the representatives of this division used their good offices to bring about a final adjustment, but in other instances activities of the representatives of the division ceased when the strikers returned to work and the original controversy was referred by mutual consent back to the officials and employees of the railroads to adjust. * * *

It is believed that a vast majority of these unauthorized strikes arose out of the fact that the employees at these local points did not fully understand that a proper tribunal had been created by the Railroad Administration to which all controversies should be referred and that equitable decisions would be reached by such tribunal.

An interesting point in the report of Board of Adjustment No. 1, included in the report under review, is the statement that the average cost per decision during the last six months of 1919 was \$10.74, representing a reduction in cost per decision of \$10.03, or 48.29 per cent, as compared with the cost per decision during 1918. Board of Adjustment No. 2 reported that an average of four and one-half controversies had been passed upon at each meeting of the board. As of December 31, 1919, Board of Adjustment No. 1 reported that it had 160 cases not disposed of, 33 of them having been held waiting for further data; Board of Adjustment No. 2 reported that on the same day it had 86 cases not disposed of; and Board of Adjustment No. 3 reported that it had 31 cases not disposed of.

Conference of Australian Employers' Federations on Industrial Relationships.

A CONFERENCE of Australian employers' federations held in Melbourne during the latter part of 1919 resulted in the publication of a report setting forth the opinions of employers regarding the best methods of improving the relations between them and their workers. After commenting on the large number of strikes which took place during the years 1913 to 1918, the report proceeds to discuss the causes of industrial unrest, in the following words:

Limitation of output has undoubtedly had a considerable influence on the cost of living, but the main cause of industrial unrest would seem to be based on the assiduous promulgation of the belief that the workers should receive a larger share of the profits of the industry, and thus add to the amount received in the way of wages. Broadly speaking, it is the opinion of this conference that no mere changes of system can bring any substantial benefit to the employees. Nationalization, profit sharing, copart-

¹ Data taken from New Zealand Employers' Federation Industrial Bulletin, Jan. 6, 1920, pp. 4–6. Welington.

nership, a voice in the management—all these things are mere variations in detail. The workers as a body would gain no substantial monetary advantages from the indiscriminate adoption of any or all of them. On the contrary, they might conceivably be worse off by an elimination of private enterprise, and the consequent lack of incentive to efficient and economical production.

The conference went on record definitely in favor of the promotion of harmony in the industrial life of the community by the adoption of the following recommendations:

- 1. The continuance of the present system of arbitration tribunals for fixing the living wage, and for settling the standard wage and working conditions in each industry.
 - 2. Parliament to decide the number of hours to constitute a week's work.
 - 3. The adoption of the Whitley scheme in a modified form.
 - 4. The introduction of profit-sharing where practicable.
 - 5. The adoption of the system of payment by results.
 - 6. [Provision against] unemployment by general commonwealth taxation.
- 7. Encouragement and assistance to employees in the building or purchasing of their homes by State or Federal Government.
- 8. Commonwealth legal endowment for children under 14 years of age, where wages do not exceed a stipulated amount.

Whitley Scheme, Profit Sharing, Payment by Results.

CONCERNING the Whitley scheme the report makes the following general observation:

It is obvious that the adoption of the Whitley scheme in its entirety would render unnecessary the continuance of our present industrial tribunals established under State and Federal industrial laws, except as possible courts of appeal. This, we believe, would not be acceptable to the majority of trades-unionists and employers as a desirable or satisfactory change. That portion of the Whitley scheme which recommends the establishment of works committees and trade councils is, in our opinion, worthy of the most favorable consideration. Many questions arise in workshops and factories from day to day which could be satisfactorily dealt with and adjusted by such committees acting in conjunction and consultation with the management. It needs no stretch of imagination to discern enormous possibilities of benefit and advantage to employees and employers as a result of closer acquaintance and knowledge by both parties of what is possible and what is practicable in the conduct of business enterprises.

The following general statements in regard to profit sharing were made by the conference:

- 1. In most businesses after providing for a moderate return on capital and allowing reasonably for development there would be little left for division among employees.
- 2. Many businesses (especially manufacturing concerns) are carried on and developed so largely on borrowed capital, that if the book profits were paid away each year, liabilities could never be reduced and extensions would be impossible.
- 3. Profits shown in balance sheets are book profits, and are seldom represented by cash balances. In many instances the payment of a dividend representing mere interest on shareholders' capital is only possible by the confidence of the firm's bankers in the soundness and stability of the business.
- 4. In bad years the employees could not be expected to help make up the deficiency, but the absence of any profit or bonus would lead to discontent and dissatisfaction.
- 5. Any system adopted with the object of rewarding workers for increased output must provide payment for extra work done in bad years as well as in good years.

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6. In industries where employment varies, change or irregularity of employment would deprive many workers of any participation in a division of profits.

7. The undue restriction of the profits and rewards of industrial undertakings would tend to destroy enterprise and react prejudiciously upon the employees.

8. Profit sharing would not secure to the employees generally any substantial financial benefit.

9. Nevertheless, in any business or industry in which a system of profit sharing can be applied, which would be acceptable to employees, and insure substantial benefit, this conference recommends that it should be tried.

The principle of payment by results is recommended, with the following as the basis of remuneration:

1. The standard minimum wage in all industries shall be fixed by independent tribunals. The standard wage to be regarded as a fixed minimum and not to be affected by any agreement entered into on the basis of extra pay for extra output.

2. A representative of the employees (or a shop committee) to agree with the management as to the amount of work which shall be taken to represent the value of the standard wage.

3. Any individual employee who exceeds the minimum output shall be paid the full labor or time value of the work so performed.

4. Where desirable, or necessary, the output of a group of employees may be treated in a similar manner, the excess of hours or units of production to be computed and paid for weekly or monthly as may be arranged.

5. For the purpose of computing the time value of varied work, the employer to provide skilled accountancy assistance where necessary, and to pay the employees' appointed representative in each department for the time occupied in conferring with the management as to computation of time values.

6. Piecework to be introduced in industries or industrial sections, where the character of the work performed allows of fixed piecework rates being established.

The conference is of opinion that it would be possible to apply this system to a great many manufacturing establishments and other classes of business, with benefit to employees and employers, and with the very desirably additional result that the workers would receive substantial increased remuneration without any increase in the cost of production and without increasing the consequent selling price to the consumer.

In conclusion, the report states:

The conference recognizes that the assistance and good will of the trades-unions would be necessary for the successful adoption in any industry of the suggestions or recommendations contained in the report. It would involve the recognition by the unions of the introduction of piecework, or payment by results, with no limitation of output. It would also be necessary that employees in an industrial establishment shall be allowed to enter into agreements with the management in settling many local conditions, provided there was no infringement of an industrial award governing the industry in regard to wages, hours, and working conditions. The conference feels that it is necessary that concerted effort should be made to impress the lesson that the further development of industrial relations, based upon the idea of class war, can not but bring serious disaster to the whole community. Industry is a living organism and is undergoing a process of continuous development and growth. Change must, however, be gradual and on tested lines. Theories must be proved before they can be adopted, and the risk of personal loss is one of the great stabilizing influences. It must be apparent, however, that if a genuine effort is to be made toward a solution of an amelioration of the present disturbed industrial position it can be brought to a successful issue only by free and full discussion and a generous recognition by employers and employees that justice and fair dealing is the only foundation on which industrial peace can be established.

Labor Conditions on French Railways and Tramways.

F ALL the problems confronting the Government in France that of transportation is apparently the most pressing. The demands of devastated areas call for extraordinary service. The physical condition of the roads both as to "ways" and equipment is far below normal. Facilities for repair and maintenance are insufficient. The personnel has been depleted. Skilled machinists and engineers are needed in construction and operating departments. The Minister of Public Works in circulars and reports recognizes the fidelity and loyalty shown by the employees during the difficult period of the war, and strongly recommends measures for their relief and compensation for extraordinary and continued sacrifices.

Recent orders issued by him also embody the principle of employees' representation. In connection with the management of the system consisting of the six State-owned roads, a committee on operation has been created consisting of an official appointed by the roads as president, the general manager of each of the six roads, three representatives of commerce, industry, and agriculture, appointed by the permanent bureau of the consultative committee on railroads from the members of the committee, and three employee representatives chosen by the Minister of Public Works. A similar committee has also been provided for, to take charge of all matters relative to materials and motive power.

These committees are authorized to summon the superintendents of the various departments of the service to attend their sessions in an advisory capacity. They are required to meet periodically, and the president or competent Government official may call them in special session. The committee on operation must meet at least once a week.

The instructions of the minister further state that for the purpose of restoring former efficiency all officials of the various roads, employees, and laborers, committees, etc., are to be consulted and requested to make suggestions looking to the improved physical condition of the roads, the advisability of lowering the standard required for certain employment in skilled occupations without impairing safety in operation, the granting of bonuses, the increasing of wages as an incentive to increased production and recruitment, and adoption of measures to maintain the stability of shop employees. Other recommendations relate to reemployment of service men; adoption of an increased wage scale and a schedule of better working regulations; introduction of the shift system in the operating depart-

¹ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Sept. 19, Oct. 21, Oct. 25, Nov. 4, and Nov. 9, 1919. Paris.

ment, and a modification of the retirement law. Maximum effort is demanded in all branches of railroad service and in the devastated districts working hours and conditions must to some extent be disregarded. Steps must be taken to restore the zeal and confidence of employees, and to recruit and instruct skilled mechanics.

The following provisions appear in these recent orders of the Min-

ister of Public Works:

Rest periods.—Eight hours of actual work daily are to be the standard. The number of hours worked between rest days shall not exceed the number of days intervening multiplied by 8. Not more than 9 hours of actual work in 24 may be required except for special reasons. Under no conditions shall the hours exceed 10, limited to 6 days a month. The spread of the daily hours shall not exceed 12 per day, except that it may be twice increased to 14 between two consecutive rest days. It shall not average more than 10 hours per day between two consecutive rest periods. Employees working overtime must be granted a 30-minute lunch period after 6 hours of actual labor. There must be one rest period of 38 hours at home after 6 days of consecutive work. This period shall include 2 consecutive nights beginning not later than 10 p. m. on the first, and ending not earlier than 6 a. m. on the second night.

Shift systems.—In case work is done by a three-shift system of 8 hours each daily, rests shall be arranged to alternate with the various shifts, as follows: Each shift shall work 8 morning shifts followed by 32 hours off duty, then 8 night shifts followed by 56 hours off duty, and finally, 5 evening shifts, followed by a 32-hour rest interval.

When two shifts, A and B, only work, each employee shall work in shift A 8 hours daily for 8 consecutive days, followed by a rest, then in shift B 6 consecutive days, followed by a rest. The average duration of these off-duty periods shall be equal to the full day's rest plus 24 hours. An additional rest period of 24 hours every second month is arranged for by turns for the two shifts. During the off-duty periods the employee is subject to no call for service, and may be away from home.

Hours of work defined.—Actual working time is defined as including the entire time an employee is required to be on his locomotive or to remain near it, or is called upon to do any work in stations, depots, or shops.

Special regulations for the two classes of reserve employees include the provision that the spread of hours of reserve duty shall not exceed 18 hours daily, or 16 hours if actual work is included in this period.

Exception to the regular hours of work is permissible under certain conditions—danger, for national defense, urgent work, etc.

Overtime work.—Extra pay is provided for overtime work not com-

pensated for in the next following rest period.

Employees' representation.—An order becoming effective December 10, 1919, provides for employees' representation on each of several of the State-owned roads, by the creation of central and local committees composed of engineers and firemen, and of central and local committees made up of trainmen. The personnel of the management of the railway systems and that of the employees is equally represented on these committees and the local committees elect the members of the central committees. Each committee is an advisory body on all questions relative to regulations adopted for the work of the personnel which it represents. The local committees are elected directly by the employees concerned.

Proposed changes in working regulations of engineers and firemen, and trainmen, respectively, are subject to the approval of the central committee and the administration. They are valid for three months unless exceptional circumstances seem to justify modifications, when either the road or the committee may demand an earlier revision.

Deviations from regular schedule.—When it becomes necessary to deviate from regular schedules, such deviations shall be reported to the competent officials not later than the tenth of the month following. More than five important deviations in any month call for a modification of schedules.

Tramways.2

General conditions.—During the last two years the Minister of Public Works has issued numerous decrees authorizing increased passenger and freight rates on tramways and local steam roads. In most, if not all, cases they were granted in consequence of agreements previously made between individual roads and municipal authorities, providing for increased wages, bonuses, improved working conditions, and other changes favorable to the employees. The increases in wages vary from 700 to 1,080 francs (\$135.10 to \$208.44, par) per year for the higher paid employees and proportional increases for all other classes. Bonuses for cost of living and family allowances for married employees are frequent items. These also vary, but the usual allowance for family charge is from 50 to 150 francs (\$9.65 to \$28.95, par) per year where there is but one child under 16 years of age, and from 100 to 300 francs (\$19.30 to \$57.90, par) for each additional child under that age. Not infrequently these increases are retroactive for some months.

Character of increases.—Illustrative of the character of increases is the agreement entered into August 18, 1919, between the Department of the Nord and the tramway companies of Douai. The pro-

² Journal Officiel de la République Française, Sept. 1 to Dec. 31, 1919.

posed increases in wage scales and allowances, and the period during which they will be paid, are made obligatory by the decree. The following table indicates their character and extent.³

PRESENT YEARLY WAGES AND AMOUNT OF INCREASE GRANTED ADULT MALE AND MINOR EMPLOYEES OF FRENCH TRAMWAYS.

[One franc at par=19.3 cents.]

Adult males.		Minors of both sexes, full-time workers.					
Present yearly wages.	Increase.	Present yearly wages.	Increase				
Not more than 3,600 francs From 4,800 to 6,000 francs From 6,001 to 7,000 francs From 7,001 to 8,000 francs From 8,001 to 9,000 francs	1,080 francs 1	From 1,200 to 1,800 francs From 1,800 to 3,600 francs	50 per cent. 25 per cent. 15 per cent.				

¹ Reduced by 15 francs for each 100 francs increase in wages up to 4,800 francs.

Unless the husband or father of an adult female worker is in receipt of an increase or a pension paid by the company her yearly wages will be increased 1,080 francs (\$208.44 par). If the father or husband is in receipt of either, the increase will be 720 francs (\$138.96, par). For woman part-time workers, an increase of 540 francs (\$104.22, par) will be granted in case no pension or increase as above mentioned is paid, or 240 francs (\$46.32. par) if such pension or increase is paid.

Minors of both sexes who are part-time employees will receive an increase equal to that paid minors who are full-time workers, but no minimum wage has been established.

Yearly allowances for family charges are 150 francs (\$28.95, par) for each of the first two children, and 300 francs (\$57.90, par) for each additional child under 16 years of age. These allowances are reduced by 150 francs (\$28.95, par) in case of employees whose wages range from 8,100 francs to 9,000 francs (\$1,563.30 to \$1,737, par) and by 300 francs (\$57.90, par) for those receiving between 9,000 and 10,000 francs (\$1,737 and \$1,930, par) with corresponding decreases as wages exceed 10,000 francs.

An increase in transportation rates equal to 50 per cent was authorized for the period in which this agreement is in force.

Guaranteed income.—In some instances, as for example, the agreement of the city of Nancy and the General French Tramway Company, of October 6, 1919, the municipal authorities "recognize that it is imparative for the city to assist the company in supporting the new charges" imposed by new social laws, and provide that a special account be kept of all wage increases, allowances, etc., as stipulated in the agreement, and paid by the company from August 1, 1919, as well as the additional expense incurred in the em-

³ Journal Officiel de la République Française, Sept. 19, 1919.

⁴ Idem, Nov. 4, 1919.

ployment of new employees made necessary by the eight-hour law, including the amount paid by the company into the retirement fund. If expenses exceed receipts the city must cover the deficiency, not in excess of the amount of the special account. Quarterly statements are required. The total advances made in consequence of these expenses for the year shall in no case be greater than the difference between expenses and receipts. At the end of the year the company reimburses the city for any sums that may have been advanced in previous quarters in excess of the difference.

The average hours of daily labor for the year shall not exceed eight. Permanent employees in the operating department are entitled to 10 days' annual leave as compensation for extra hours. Wages are determined by length of service, with advancement after two years in each of the respective classes. Women may be generally employed, but may perform the duties of motorman in exceptional cases only. Trainmen having been two years in the service of the company are eligible as conductor apprentices. Conductors are chosen from permanent employees who have served a probationary period of one year.

Compensation for increased cost of living is fixed for all classes engaged in train movement at 2 francs (38.6 cents, par) per day. Permanent employees are paid this bonus for the regular weekly rest day also, others only for actual days worked. The cost of living bonus

in addition to wages is paid to married persons only.

Eight hours of actual labor per day constitute a day's work in the shop. Wages vary with the class of work, occupational skill, and length of service, a minimum of 1.5 francs (29 cents, par) per hour

being paid for unskilled labor, bonuses included.

Persons whose physical condition precludes the performance of a full day's work may be paid a rate lower than the regular wages, but the maximum proportion of such workmen is fixed at one-eighth of all employees, and the reduction from regular wages must not be greater than 25 per cent. During the period of military training regular employees are paid at one-half the usual rate. Sickness benefits are paid at the rate of two-thirds regular wages for the first 15 days of sickness, 6 francs per day thereafter up to the end of three months, and 4 francs per day for the next three months. During the life of the agreement the company assumes the entire charge of medical, pharmaceutical, and other expenses and compensation in cases of sickness.

Discharges for other than grave fault and without eight days' advance notice, are prohibited, and no one shall quit employment without giving similar notice of his intention. A discharged employee may demand a hearing before a board in which the employees are represented.

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PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

HE following tables are based on figures which have been received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers through monthly reports of actual selling prices.1

Table 1 shows for the United States retail prices of food on January 15 and February 15, 1920, and on February 15, 1919, as well as the percentage changes in the month and in the year. For example, the price of sugar in February, 1919, was 10.7 cents; in January, 1920, 17.8 cents; and in February, 1920, 18.8 cents. These figures show an increase of 6 per cent in the month and an increase of 76 per cent in the year. The cost of 22 weighted articles combined increased 16 per cent in the year, but decreased six-tenths of 1 per cent in the month.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICE OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, FEB. 15, 1920, COMPARED WITH FEB. 15, 1919, AND JAN. 15, 1920.

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.]

Article.	Unit.	Averag	e retail pr	ice on—	Per cent of i or decreas 15, 1920, with—	e (-) Feb.
		Feb. 15, 1919.	Jan. 15, 1920.	Feb. 15, 1920.	Feb. 15, 1919.	Jan. 15, 1920.
Sirloin steak Po Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	.do	Cents. 41.2 38.8 32.6 27.9 21.9	Cents. 40.5 37.0 31.4 25.3 18.4	Cents. 40.6 37.2 31.5 25.1 18.4	- 1 - 4 - 3 - 10 - 16	$\begin{array}{c} + \ 0.3 \\ + \ 1 \\ + \ 0.3 \\ - \ 1 \\ 0 \end{array}$
Pork chops. Bacon. Ham. Lamb. Hens.	do do	37.9 55.3 51.8 36.4 39.6	37.3 50.3 50.3 36.4 42.0	37.6 50.0 50.5 39.1 44.7	$ \begin{array}{rrr} & -1 \\ & -10 \\ & -3 \\ & +7 \\ & +13 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{c} +1 \\ -1 \\ +0.4 \\ +7 \\ +6 \end{array} $
Milk, evaporated (unsweetened) 15-	do art 16 oz. can und	31.7 15.5 16.4 57.2 39.2	37.1 16.6 17.0 74.2 43.5	37.6 16.8 16.2 72.6 43.4	+ 19 + 8 - 1 + 27 + 11	$\begin{array}{c} +1\\ +1\\ -5\\ -2\\ -0.2 \end{array}$
Nut margarine	.do	35. 9 40. 9 32. 1 33. 8 50. 6	35. 9 43. 4 34. 0 37. 8 82. 7	36.1 43.3 32.3 37.8 68.6	$\begin{array}{c} + & 1 \\ + & 6 \\ + & 1 \\ + & 12 \\ + & 36 \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} +\ 1 \\ -\ 0.2 \\ -\ 5 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{array}$

¹ In addition to retail prices of food, the bureau secures prices of coal, gas, and dry goods from each of 51 cities, and publishes these prices as follows: Coal, in the March and September issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW; gas, in the June issue; dry goods, in the April, July, October, and December issues. 2 Following are the 22 articles, weighted according to the consumption of the average family: 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. These include all articles for which prices have been secured each month since 1913, with the exception of lamb, for which the Bureau has no consumption fleurs. has no consumption figures.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICE OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, FEB. 15, 1920, COMPARED WITH FEB. 15, 1919, AND JAN. 15, 1920—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	Averag	e retail pr	ice on—		ncrease (+) e (-) Feb. compared
		Feb. 15, 1919.	Jan. 15, 1920.	Feb. 15, 1920.	Feb. 15, 1919.	Jan. 15, 1920.
Bread	Dozen Pound 3 Pound dodo	Cents, 46.8 9.8 6.7 6.0 8.4	Cents. 62.5 10.9 8.1 6.6 9.9	Cents. 59.4 10.8 8.1 6.5 11.1	+ 27 + 10 + 21 + 8 + 19	$ \begin{array}{r} -5 \\ +2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \\ +1 \end{array} $
Cream of Wheat	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pound do	14.1 25.1 19.4 14.3 13.7	14.1 28.8 19.8 18.1 12.2	14.1 29.3 20.2 18.3 12.2	$ \begin{array}{r} 0 \\ + 17 \\ + 4 \\ + 28 \\ - 11 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ +2 \\ +2 \\ +1 \\ 0 \end{array}$
Potatoes Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	do No. 2 can	3.1 4.3 4.3 18.6 19.6	5.4 9.0 8.1 16.9 18.8	6.0 9.4 9.3 16.9 18.7	+ 94 +119 +116 - 9 - 5	$^{+11}_{+4}_{+15}$ $^{0}_{-1}$
Peas, canned. Tomatoes, canned. Sugar, granulated. Tea. Coffee	Pound	19. 2 17. 0 10. 7 68. 4 36. 6	19. 2 15. 4 17. 8 72. 0 49. 1	19.1 15.3 18.8 71.0 49.0	$ \begin{array}{rrr} & -1 \\ & -9 \\ & +76 \\ & +4 \\ & +34 \end{array} $	$ \begin{array}{rrr} & -1 \\ & -1 \\ & +6 \\ & -1 \\ & -0.2 \end{array} $
Prunes. Raisins Bananas Oranges.	Dozen	20.3 16.2 35.0 46.8	29. 1 24. 8 40. 9 51. 0	29. 0 25. 6 41. 0 53. 2	+ 43 + 58 + 17 + 14	$ \begin{array}{r} -0.3 \\ +3 \\ +0.2 \\ +4 \end{array} $
22 weighted articles 4					+ 16	- 0.6

³ Baked weight.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on February 15 of each year, 1913 to 1920, together with the percentage change in February of each year compared with February, 1913. For example, as compared with the price in February, 1913, potatoes had increased 19 per cent in 1914, but in 1915 were 6 per cent cheaper than in 1913. By 1916 potatoes had increased 56 per cent; by 1917, 219 per cent, or cost over three times as much as in 1913. In 1918, the price was double that of 1913. In February, 1919, the price was 94 per cent higher than in February, 1913, and in February, 1920, the price had increased 275 per cent, or was $3\frac{3}{4}$ times as much as it was in February, 1913.

⁴ See note 2 p. 68.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICE OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE FEB. 15 OF EACH YEAR, 1914 to 1920, COMPARED WITH FEB. 15, 1913.

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are given in whole numbers.]

Article.	Unit.		Ave	erage	retail	price	Feb.	15—		(-	-) Fe	b. 15	of ea	(+) ch spe b. 15,	ecified	l year
		1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
Sirloin steak	Lb Lb Lb Lb	Cts. 24.0 20.6 18.9 14.9 11.1	22. 8 19. 9 16. 3	22.3 19.7 16.2	22. 8 20. 1 16. 2	26.0 22.5	31. 4 26. 3 22. 7	38. 8 32. 6	37. 2 31. 5 25. 1	+11 + 5 + 9	+ 4 + 9	+11 + 6 + 9	+ 26 + 19 + 25	+ 39 5 + 52 6 + 52 7 + 59	+ 88 + 72 + 87	+ 8 + 6 + 6
Pork chopsBaconHamLambHens.	Lb Lb Lb Lb	18.5		26. 7 25. 9 18. 8	27.3 29.7 21.2	30. 7 31. 8 25. 9	48. 4 43. 8 31. 4	55. 3 51. 8 36. 4	50.0	$+11 \\ +4 \\ +5 \\ +2 \\ +7$	+ 5 + 2 + 2	$+7 \\ +17 \\ +15$	+20 + 26 + 40	+ 79 + 90 + 73 + 70 + 74	+117 + 105 + 97	+ 90 +100 +11
Salmon, canned. Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated (unsweetened).	Lb Qt (5)		9.1	19.8		21. 6 10. 0	29. 1 13. 4	31. 7 15. 5 16. 4	37. 6 16. 8 16. 2	+ 2	0	0	+ 12	+ 51	+ 74	+ 89
ButterOleomargarine	Lb Lb		35. 9	37.8	37.8	46. 9	57.9	57. 2 39. 2		-13	- 9	- 9	+ 13	+ 40	+ 38	+ 78
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh.	Lb Lb Lb Doz.	15. 4		23. 5 15. 2 33. 8		21.9		33. 8	43.3 32.3 37.8	+ 3	- 1	+15	+ 42	+ 57 +114 + 94	+108	+110
Eggs, storage Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats	Doz. Lb ⁶ . Lb Lb Lb	23. 5 5. 7 3. 3 3. 0	6.2		7.0	5.6	9.5 6.6	46.8 9.8 6.7 6.0 8.4	8.1	$+9 \\ -3$	$+25 \\ +36$	$+23 \\ +24$	+40 + 70	+133 + 67 +100 +133	+72 $+103$	+ 95
Corn flakes. Cream of Wheat. Macaroni. Rice. Beans, navy	Lb	8.6	8.7	9. 1 7. 6	9.1	9.1	11.8 18.1	14.1 25.1 19.4 14.3 13.7	20.2	+ 1				+ 37		+113
Potatoes Onions Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	Lb Lb (9) (9)			1.5	4.4		3.2	3.1 4.3 4.3 18.6 19.6	6. 0 9. 4 9. 3 16. 9 18. 7					+100		
Peas, canned Fomatoes, canned Sugar, granu- lated.	(9) (9) Lb	5. 5	5. 1	6.4	6.8	8. 1	10. 6	19. 2 17. 0 10. 7	15.3			+24		+ 93	+ 95	+242
reaCoffee	Lb Lb	54.3 29.8	54. 5 29. 6	54. 6 29. 9	54. 6 29. 9	54. 6 29. 9	60. 9 30. 4		71.0 49.0	$+0.4 \\ -1$	+ 1	+ 1	+ 1	+ 12 + 2	+ 26 + 23	+ 31 + 64
Prunes	Lb Lb Doz. Doz.				19 6	14 1	16.5	20.3	29. 0 25. 6 41. 0							
2 weighted .												+ 9	+ 37	+ 65	+ 77	+105

⁵ 15-16 ounce can.⁶ Baked weight.⁷ 8-ounce package.

^{8 28-}ounce package.
9 No. 2 can.
10 See note 2, p. 68.

Relative Retail Prices of 22 Articles of Food.

IN TABLE 3, the average monthly and yearly prices of 22 food articles ¹¹ are shown as relative prices or percentages of the average prices for the year 1913. These relatives are computed by dividing the average price of each commodity for each month and each year by the average price of that commodity for 1913. Relative prices must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of pork chops in November, 1919, was 200, which means that the money price was 200 per cent of the money price in 1913, or, in other words, the price doubled. The relative price of pork chops in December was 181, showing a drop of 19 points from 200, which is a decrease of only 9.5 per cent.

In the last column of this table are given index numbers 12 showing the changes by months and years in the retail cost of the 22 food articles weighted according to the importance of each article in the consumption of the average family. Prices are obtained each month for 43 food articles, but only 22 of these are included in the retail food price index because the amounts consumed by the average family have been obtained as yet for only these 22 food articles. These articles comprise about two-thirds of the entire food budget of the average family and reflect with great accuracy changes in the cost of the food budget. The figure representing the cost of these 22 food articles was 201 in January, 1920, and 200 in February, 1920. This shows that as compared with 1913 the cost of these food articles was in February, 1920, double what it was in 1913. The figures also show that from January to February of this year there was a decrease of less than 1 per cent. In 1919, the figures for January was 185 and for February was 172, which shows a decrease of 7 per cent in February of last year.

¹¹ For list of articles, see note 2, p. 68.

¹² For a discussion of the method used in the computation of these index figures, see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1920, pp. 34 and 35.

TABLE 3.—RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, 1907, TO FEBRUARY, 1920.

[1913=100.]

Year and month,		Round steak.		Chuck roast.	Plate beef.	Pork chops.	Ba- con.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese,	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Sug- ar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	weighted articles.
1907. 1908. 1909. 1910. 1911. 1912.	73 77 80 81	68 71 74 78 70 89	76 78 81 85 85 94			74 76 83 92 85 91	74 77 83 95 91 91	76 78 82 91 89 91	81 80 90 104 88 94	81 83 89 94 91 93	84 86 93 98 93 99	85 86 90 94 88 98		\$7 90 91 95 96 97		95 102 109 108 102 115	88 92 94 95 94 102		105 111 112 101 130 132	105 108 107 109 111 115			82 84 89 93 92 98
1913: Av. for year January. February March. April. May. June. July. August. September October. November	94 97 101 102 104 104 103 101	100 92 93 96 99 100 101 104 104 104 104 102 101	100 95 95 98 101 101 102 102 102 101 101 100 100	93 93 98 101 101 102 103 103 103 103 102 101	92 93 98 101 101 101 101 102 102 102 102	100 89 90 97 103 100 99 103 104 108 107 102 97	100 94 95 97 99 100 101 104 105 104 103 101 99	100 93 94 97 99 102 104 106 104 102 100 99	100 97 98 99 100 100 101 102 102 101 101 101	100 95 97 100 104 104 103 102 101 101 100 97 98	100 108 91 77 73 76 81 87 96 109 121 144 138	100 107 108 108 106 94 92 91 92 98 100 101	100 100 100 100 100 99 99 100 100 101 102 102	100 100 100 100 100 99 99 99 100 101 102 102	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	100 100 100 100 100 101 101 101 100 100	100 99 98 98 98 98 98 98 100 102 103 104 104	100 99 99 99 99 99 99 100 100 100 100	100 91 90 88 87 91 104 110 109 110 106 107	100 106 100 99 98 97 100 102 104 101 99 98	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	100 98 97 97 98 97 98 100 101 102 104
1914: Av. for year January. February March. April. May. June. July. August. September. October November. December.	99 99 100 100 102 103 106 110 107	103 103	103 100 101 101 102 102 103 105 108 105 104 103 101	104 102 103 102 103 103 104 106 109 108 106 104 103	104 102 102 102 102 103 103 104 107 107 106 105 103	105 99 100 100 103 106 103 106 119 113 110 104 93	98 98 99 99 99 100 101 107 108 106 104 103	102 98 99 99 99 99 100 103 108 108 105 102 100	99 100 99 99 99 98 97 97 99 98 99 98	102 100 104 105 108 106 103 103 104 103 100 97	102 126 106 90 74 77 82 87 96 107 113 131 139	94 104 93 92 86 85 88 89 94 98 103 103	104 104 105 104 103 103 103 104 104 104	100 102 102 101 101 100 100 100 100 100	112 110 110 110 110 110 110 110 111 112 114 114 114 116	104 98 99 99 99 99 99 106 113 111 112 113	105 104 103 103 103 103 103 103 105 109 109	101 100 100 100 100 100 100 101 101 101	108 108 108 107 105 112 132 155 111 105 89 83 84	108 95 94 93 91 93 95 143 145 132 113 110	100 99 99 100 100 100 100 99 100 100 99 99 99	100 100 100 100 100 101 101 101 101 101	100 100 100 99 99 100 100 100 100 100 10
1915: Av. for year January February March April	. 100 98 97	100 99	101 101 100 99 100	101 101 99 98 99	100 102 101 100 100	96 88 85 85 94	100 101 99 98 98	97 98 96 95 94	93 97 97 96 96	97 95 97 99 100	99 129 98 74 75	93 101 98 94 94	105 105 106 106 105	99 101 100 99 99	124 120 126 126 126 126	126 124 138 136 137	108 109 110 110 109	104 104 104 104 104	89 85 84 82 86	120 110 118 120 122	101 101 101 101 101	100 100 100 100 100	10 10 10 9

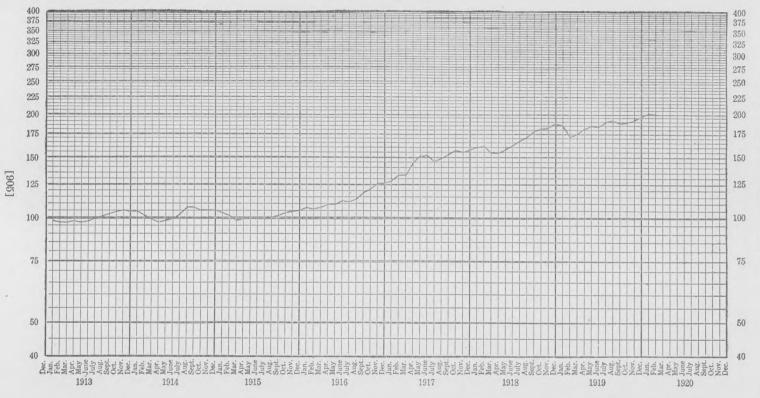
gitized for FRASER ps://fraser.stlouisfed.org deral Reserve Bank of St. Louis

May June July August September October November December	101 103 105 104 104 103 101 99	103 105 107 107 106 104 102 101	101 103 104 104 103 102 101 100	101 103 103 103 102 101 99 99	101 101 101 101 101 101 99 98 98	99 98 100 103 107 110 99 87	98 99 100 100 100 101 101 101	95 97 98 98 97 99 100 100	96) 95 93 89 88 91 92 92	101 98 97 97 97 97 97 95 95	76 78 81 88 101 117 133 135	91 90 90 88 88 92 95 101	106 106 105 103 103 104 105 107	98 98 98 99 99 100 100 100	128 128 126 126 124 124 122 122	139 130 125 124 117 113 113 114	109 109 108 108 108 108 107 107	104 104 104 104 104 104 104 104	89 99 85 82 79 94 97 106	124 126 127 123 118 111 119 124	101 101 101 101 100 100 100 100	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	100 100 100 100 101 103 104 105
January. February. March. April. May. June. July. August. September. October. November. December.	108 101 101 104 106 109 113 113 112 111 108 106	110 102 102 104 108 112 117 116 115 115 111 108 107	107 101 102 104 106 110 113 112 111 110 108 106 106	107 99 99 103 106 109 113 112 110 110 108 107 106	106 99 100 102 105 107 111 109 107 106 106 106	108 89 92 104 107 109 110 111 116 125 118 111 106	106 101 101 103 104 105 107 107 108 110 110 111 111	109 101 102 104 107 109 110 111 111 114 114 114	111 93 94 96 100 106 108 110 111 118 123 135 137	111 101 104 107 111 113 114 113 112 113 114 112 112	109 123 101 82 79 82 87 93 105 120 132 149 154	103 100 99 105 108 97 95 93 95 102 109 114 118	117 110 112 113 113 112 111 110 111 116 122 132 140	102 100 100 100 99 99 99 100 101 102 105 109 112	130 122 124 124 124 124 124 124 126 136 144 150 138	135 120 125 120 119 119 117 116 134 148 155 174 167	113 107 108 107 108 108 108 108 110 113 117 126 131	105 105 104 104 104 105 105 105 105 105 105	155 136 141 140 138 140 167 134 141 161 165 198 198	146 123 125 137 145 156 158 160 155 141 149 157	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100 100	114 107 106 107 109 109 112 111 113 118 121 126 126
January February March April May Juno July August September October November December	124 109 113 116 125 127 129 129 130 131 130 124 126	130 111 117 119 130 133 135 137 138 138 138 133	126 109 114 118 127 130 132 130 129 131 130 127 128	131 109 116 128 131 134 137 136 137 136 132 134	130 108 116 121 132 135 137 136 134 135 136 134 134	152 113 125 133 146 148 151 164 185 185 165 161	152 110 114 123 141 155 158 159 160 164 178 179 181	142 114 118 125 136 144 145 147 147 152 159 161	175 136 138 151 167 176 177 174 176 188 198 207 211	134 119 126 129 136 138 136 131 142 146 138 143	139 158 147 101 112 116 119 122 134 152 160 168 184	127 118 122 121 133 122 123 120 124 129 133 138 142	150 141 142 146 150 153 153 149 148 152 158 156 156	125 112 112 112 114 117 119 125 128 132 143 144 147	164 140 142 144 150 168 170 176 182 176 176 176 166	211 171 171 174 206 266 246 220 229 223 214 208 205	192 132 136 137 154 178 182 195 219 272 232 235 235	119 105 104 104 108 121 125 123 122 124 128 131 133	253 225 290 297 339 352 366 246 206 172 178 183 178	169 146 148 160 175 183 170 166 181 179 177 174 172	101 100 100 101 101 101 101 103 102 102 102 102	107 100 100 101 101 103 104 110 111 112 113 114 114	146 128 133 133 145 151 152 146 149 153 157 155 157
January. February. March. April. May. June. July. August September October. November December.	153 129 131 133 144 157 168 166 163 164 161 159	165 137 141 143 155 170 182 181 178 178 175 173 171	155 130 133 135 148 161 169 168 165 165 163 162 161	166 138 142 145 159 174 184 182 177 178 174 172 171	170 142 146 150 164 181 188 185 179 181 178 175	186 163 160 161 170 175 177 180 201 220 216 206 197	196 180 179 181 183 187 191 194 200 208 214 216	178 162 163 164 166 170 173 181 180 193 193 195 198	211 208 209 210 209 208 206 206 209 213 216 216 216	177 154 170 (13) (13) 178 177 178 181 185 183 185 180	165 195 182 128 123 123 142 155 170 186 215 235	151 148 151 144 132 133 133 137 141 155 170 174 190	162 156 158 159 154 151 150 152 157 163 174 184 193	156 151 151 151 148 148 146 148 153 161 166 173 176	175 168 170 171 175 177 179 179 177 177 175 175 175	203 200 200 200 200 200 203 203 206 206 203 203 203 203	227 233 233 240 237 233 223 223 227 230 227 217 213	148 134 136 138 139 141 144 148 154 157 161 161	188 188 188 147 129 129 171 229 229 229 206 194 188	176 173 193 167 165 165 165 167 169 175 193 196	102 102 102 102 101 101 101 101 101 102 102	119 115 112 113 117 117 119 120 121 122 124 125 124	168 160 161 154 154 158 162 167 171 178 181 183 187

13 No hens sold during this month, by order of Food Administration.

TABLE 3.—RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, 1907, TO FEBRUARY, 1920—Concluded.

Year and month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak,	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.		Pork chops.		Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Sug- ar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	weight ed arti cles.
1919: Av. for year January February March April May June July August September October November December December	162 165 172 175 170 171 166 161	174 175 174 177 182 187 181 183 177 170 165 162 161	164 165 165 169 175 178 171 169 164 158 155 153	169 175 174 178 184 186 176 173 166 158 153 151 151	167 181 183 187 181 174 168 160 150 145 143 143	201 193 180 184 197 205 202 220 223 219 211 200 181	205 217 205 203 212 210 212 215 214 206 196 189 186	199 199 193 191 197 203 205 211 212 205 195 188 188	234 211 203 211 223 246 254 266 242 228 231 221	193 188 186 193 202 204 200 197 196 194 189 184	182 218 147 140 143 154 155 164 174 183 209 235 261	177 184 149 174 186 177 165 164 167 172 186	193 201 185 183 190 191 192 195 197 195 192 195 195	174 175 174 168 169 167 169 169 174 176 180	179 175 175 175 175 175 175 177 179 180 180 180 182	218 200 203 206 218 227 227 227 224 221 221 221 233	213 207 200 197 200 207 210 217 220 223 220 220 220	174 159 164 154 154 159 168 178 190 202 203	224 188 182 171 182 194 224 282 294 253 224 229 253	205 196 195 193 193 193 193 198 202 200 207 227 264	145 117 123 126 129 136 143 155 160 164 159 164	129 127 126 129 128 128 129 130 130 131 131 131	186 185 172 175 182 185 184 190 192 188 189 192
1920: January February		166 167	159 159	158 157	152 152	178 179	186 185	187 188	215 204	197 210	240 199	194 190	196 196	187 189	195 198	245 245	220 217	208 210	318 353	324 342	165 164	132 131	201 200



AND

COST

LIVING.

The curve shown in the chart on page 75 pictures more readily to the eye the changes in the cost of the family market basket and the trend in the cost of the food budget than do the index numbers given in the table. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale 14 because the percentages of increase and decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 50 Cities.

TABLE 4 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of 22 food articles in February, 1920, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in February 1919, and in January, 1920. For 11 other cities comparisons are given for the oneyear and one-month periods. These cities have been scheduled by the Bureau at different dates since 1913. These percentage changes are based on actual retail prices secured each month from retail dealers, and on the average family consumption of these articles in each city.15

TABLE 4.—PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE RETAIL COST OF 22 FOOD ARTICLES 16 IN FEBRUARY, 1920, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN JANUARY, 1920, FEBRUARY, 1919, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES.

[Percentage changes of five-tenths of 1 per cent and over are in whole numbers.]

City.		February, compared	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (-) February 1920,	City.	Percent crease 1920, with-	, February compared	Percentage increase (+) or decrease (-) Feb- ruary, 1920, compared
	1913	February 1919.	compared with Jan- uary 1920.		1913	February 1919	with Jan- uary, 1910.
Atlanta	98 103 102 95	13 8 14 18 7	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Milwauke Minneapolis Mobile Newark New Hayen	106 107 92 97	20 24 13 12 15	-0.1 - 1 +0.4 - 1 + 1
Buffalo Butte Charleston Chicago Chicago Cincinnati	106 106 101 95	17 18 12 20 15	$ \begin{array}{ccccc} & - & 1 \\ & - & 1 \\ & - & 1 \\ & - & 0.3 \\ & - & 4 \end{array} $	New Orleans New York Norfolk Omaha Peoria	97 103 103	13 16 15 19 21	- 3 - 1 + 1 - 1 +0.4
Cleveland Columbus Dallas Denver	101 95 90 110	19 15 12 12 12 23	$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	Philadelphia Pittsburgh Portland, Me Portland, Oreg Providence	98 99 84 107 106	14 15 14 13 17	- 1 - 2 + 3 - 1 +0.4
Fall River Houston Indianapolis Jacksonville	100 96 90	15 12		Rochester St. Louis St. Paul Salt Lake City	108	18 18 23 12	-0.2 - + -0.1
Kansas City Mo. Little Rock Los Angeles Louisville Manches er	95 12		San Francisco Scranton Seattle Springfield, Ill Washington,	88 103 92	14 16 13 23	+ 1 + 1 + 0.5	
Memphis	102	14	+0.3	D. C	107	12	-0.

¹⁴ For a discussion of the logarithmic chart see article on Comparison of arithmetic and ratio charts, by Lucian W. Chaney, Monthly Labor Review for March, 1919, pp. 20-34. Also, The "ratio" chart, by Prof. Irving Fisher, reprinted from Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association, June 1917, 24 pp.

¹⁶ The consumption figure used for each article in each city is given in the Monthly Labor Review for November, 1918, pp. 94-95.

¹⁶ For list of articles see note 2, p. 68.

Retail Prices of Dry Goods in the United States.¹

HE following table gives the average retail prices of 10 articles of dry goods on the 15th of February, May, August, and October, 1919, and on February, 15, 1920. The averages given are based on the retail prices of standard brands, only.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1919, AND FEB. 15, 1920, IN 51 CITIES.

			Atl	anta,	Ga.			Balt	imore	Md.	
Article.	Unit.		19	19		Feb.		19	19		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddodododododoYardYardYardPair	\$0. 384 274 369 543 280 744 1. 935 337 750 5. 490	\$0.379 .233 .343 .525 .272 .724 1.849 .293 .925 4.987	\$0.390 .250 .374 .536 .328 .826 2.164 .376 .850 6.250	\$0. 250 . 390 . 260 . 387 . 546 . 333 . 853 2. 227 . 369 . 5. 153	.513 .344 .447 .650 .393 .972 2.572 .393 .950	. 361 . 253 . 323 . 472 . 289 . 809 1. 899 . 298	.315 .240 .347 .531 .273 .793 1.929 .346 1.100	. 279 . 348 . 521 . 386 . 925 2. 292 . 358	. 409 . 289 . 381 . 516 . 408 . 919 2. 281 . 373 1. 425	. 528
					ı, Ala.			Bos	ton, M	ass.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flamel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 1777 . 310 . 260 . 358 . 518 . 263 . 672 1. 742 . 355	\$0. 150 .317 .213 .326 .532 .270 .640 1. 716 .293	\$0. 198 . 413 . 269 . 340 . 592 . 326 . 751 1. 931 . 366 5. 573	\$0. 222 . 400 . 277 . 359 . 588 . 342 . 788 2. 013 . 368 . 990 5. 998	\$0. 434 . 316 . 427 . 662 . 385 . 873 2. 094 . 369 1. 113 6. 484	\$0. 190 . 346 . 275 . 289 . 516 . 302 . 798 2. 026 . 311 1. 000 5. 783	. 279 . 250 . 267 . 523 . 291 . 752 1. 909 . 312	. 261 . 293 . 491 . 367 . 802 2. 107 . 323 1. 117	.415 .274 .350 .545 .398 .871 2.198	. 456 . 320 . 383 . 602 . 487 . 999 2. 662 . 384 1. 413
			Bridge						falo, N		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 190 . 338 . 260 . 325 . 529 . 280 . 797 1. 990 . 320 . 783 4. 083	\$0. 150 . 295 . 245 . 304 . 501 . 275 . 768 1. 887 . 289 . 745	\$0. 210 . 385 . 250 . 354 . 551 . 345 . 914 2. 322 . 315 . 745 4. 375	\$0. 190 .385 .262 .353 .564 .368 .921 2. 248 .333 .650 5. 750	\$0. 220 . 473 . 390 . 433 . 599 . 457 1. 197 2. 638 . 625 6. 125	\$0.218 .363 .268 .355 .578 .288 .793 1.993 .343 .886 6.194	\$0.178 .308 .230 .319 .583 .289 .766 1.860 .283 .882 6.298	\$0. 219 .364 .256 .344 .563 .375 .907 2. 185 .342 .776 6. 363	\$0. 199 . 406 . 286 . 360 . 595 . 384 . 947 2. 261 . 349 . 987 6. 350	\$0. 255 . 510 . 320 . 404 . 545 . 447 1. 089 2. 664 . 392 . 980 6. 425
				te, Mo					leston,		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0.174 .330 .250 .310 .400 .313 .808 2.200 .317 .925 5.817	\$0. 150 . 330 . 220 . 328 . 448 . 259 . 836 2. 133 . 314 . 920 5. 800	\$0. 165 . 350 . 250 . 353 . 463 . 333 . 850 2. 292 . 326 . 800 6. 150	\$0. 174 . 388 . 250 . 365 . 463 . 366 . 925 2. 350 . 336 . 963 5. 800	\$0. 250 . 483 . 280 . 394 . 500 . 408 1. 131 3. 063 . 372 1. 020 6. 800	\$0. 159 .356 .228 .333 .428 .275 .745 2. 032 .294	\$0.158 .316 .197 .308 .432 .244 .729 1.801 .280	\$0. 218 . 408 . 263 . 367 . 513 . 394 . 800 2. 186 . 353 1. 000 5. 000	\$0. 250 . 398 . 273 . 341 . 514 . 361 . 971 2. 254 . 324 . 875 5. 738	\$0. 243 . 478 . 301 . 435 . 581 . 461 1. 116 2. 587 . 367 1. 267 5. 550

 $^{^1}$ Retail prices of dry goods are published in the April, July, October, and December issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

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AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1919, AND FEB. 15, 1920, IN 51 CITIES—Continued.

			Chi	cago,	III.			Cincin	nati,	Ohio.	
Article	Unit.		19	19		Feb.		19	19		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached Sheetis, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0. 195 .310 .212 .323 .626 .300 .762 1. 932 .353	\$0. 181 . 348 . 222 . 330 . 581 . 294 . 765 1. 831 . 288 5. 304	. 430 . 252 . 348 . 627 . 363 . 936 2. 301 . 333 . 915	. 425 . 254 . 368 . 602 . 385 . 955 2. 244 . 367	.519 .264 .431 .711 .467 1,166 2.753 .393 1.750	. 295 . 254 . 298 . 589 . 208 . 702 1. 901 . 337 . 875	. 290 . 230 . 275 . 562 . 256 . 701 1. 830 . 300	.305 .238 .323 .572 .351 .826 2.019 .319 1.095	.400 .273 .327 .596 .346 .839 2.283 .356	.476 .298 .408 .639 .398 .999 2.499 .366
			Cleve		Ohio.				ibus,		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddodododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0. 155 .315 .227 .297 .430 .253 .733 1. 650 .304	\$0. 150 .339 .250 .329 .515 .290 .758 1. 777 .298	\$0. 200 . 431 . 301 . 358 . 580 . 374 . 921 2. 200 . 368 1. 350 6. 750	\$0.180 .420 .280 .369 .626 .384 .944 2.243 .354	\$0. 236 . 526 . 323 . 457 . 667 . 440 1. 066 2. 710 . 426	\$0. 180 .348 .285 .368 .566 .267 .781 1. 919 .341 .6. 370	\$0. 176 .343 .212 .354 .588 .263 .726 1. 877 .329 .900 5. 980	\$0. 196 .412 .250 .367 .619 .405 .874 2. 114 .378	\$0. 225 .420 .265 .383 .596 .389 .995 2. 306 .384	\$0.200 0.490 .350 .444 .644 .461 1.170 2.722 .510
				llas, T					ver, C		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	dododododododo	. 233 . 330 . 549 . 263 . 704 1. 866 . 404	. 530 . 197 . 320 . 527 . 254 . 658 1. 656 . 274	.300 .250 .337 .520 .324 .800 1.978 .335	. 250 . 369 . 559 . 325 . 855 2. 042 . 332 . 717	.434 .310 .431 .622 .391 .985 2.348 .361	. 407 . 250 . 389 . 717 . 309 . 955 2. 377 . 408 1. 067	. 250 . 332 . 671 . 287 . 839 2. 082 . 356 1. 025	.429 .333 .364 .628 .420 1.068 2.673 .366 1.067	. 333 . 393 . 709 . 415 1. 070 2. 637 . 387	. 520 . 360 . 444 . 774 . 473 1. 244 2. 86 . 400 1. 200
			Det	roit, l	Iich.			Fall 1	River,	Mass.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0. 227 . 336 . 257 . 332 . 510 . 291 . 793 2. 019 . 336							\$0.170 .390 .270 .330 .505 .300 .820 1.993 .290	\$0.337 .250 .342 .543 .365 .847 2.110 .338 .890 5.903	35 45 61 44 1.04 2.57 40
				iston,						, Ind.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Plannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 188 .400 .270 .360 .625 .713 1. 695 .275 .670 6. 125	\$0. 150 .348 .225 .297 .553 .259 .608 1. 577 .265 .722 6. 433	\$0. 205 312 .245 .330 .604 .310 .792 1. 878 .281 .823 7. 225	\$0. 210 .388 .260 .351 .589 .326 .815 2. 037 .310 .743 6. 472	\$0. 250 . 433 . 290 . 383 . 618 . 385 . 975 2. 365 . 336 . 910 7. 500	\$0.142 .328 .228 .305 .439 .767 1.951 .328 .923 5.893	\$0.164 .313 .263 .320 .468 .292 .780 1.897 .293 .895 5.495	\$0. 181 .358 .253 .314 .498 .313 .855 2. 064 .312 .827 6. 050	\$0. 193 . 410 . 270 . 364 . 492 . 346 . 894 2. 208 . 328 . 895 6. 240	\$0. 25 . 47 . 30 . 41 . 60 . 42 . 1. 06 8 2. 59 8 . 37 1. 25 6 . 50

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB.15, MAY 15, AUG.15, AND OCT. 15, 1919, AND FEB. 15, 1920, IN 51 CITIES—Continued.

			Jacks	onville	, Fla.			Kai	isas C	ity, M	0.
Article.	Unit.		19	19		Feb.		19	19		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddodododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0. 180 . 427 . 290 . 350 . 445 . 307 . 775 2. 000 . 330	\$0. 225 . 445 . 263 . 370 . 528 . 330 . 850 2. 117 . 288 . 650 6. 500	\$0.180 .463 .290 .370 .542 .413 .950 2.188 .330	\$0.463 .350 .390 .550 .436 .950 2.375 .345	\$0. 523 . 390 . 410 . 645 . 465 1. 200 2. 743 . 420 1. 000 6. 500	\$0. 190 . 438 . 273 . 386 . 562 . 311 . 818 1. 915 . 370 . 890 6. 480	\$0. 184 . 373 . 250 . 369 . 610 . 324 . 828 1. 910 . 351	\$0. 196 . 458 . 316 . 367 . 601 . 423 . 943 2. 500 . 355	\$0. 223 . 441 . 316 . 373 . 685 . 445 . 980 2. 360 . 342 . 6. 660	\$0. 266 . 500 . 350 . 450 . 690 . 473 1. 070 2. 420 . 403
			Little							, Calif	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 169 .322 .248 .291 .468 .249 .788 1. 759 .270 .764 4. 531	\$0. 188 .322 .225 .316 .432 .269 .729 1. 819 .281 1. 000 5. 000	. 250 . 322 . 483 . 334 . 899	. 267 . 336 . 450 . 317 . 850 1. 975 . 342 1. 050	. 295 . 383 . 538 . 406 1. 008 2. 330 . 388 1. 113	. 263 . 371 . 538 . 317 . 769	. 263 . 361 . 600 . 275 . 755 1. 853 . 360 . 900	. 279 . 391 . 616 . 367 . 806 2. 025 . 385 1. 300	. 292 . 398 . 611 . 385 . 887 2. 177 . 396	.350 .419 .658 .396 .956 2.368 .414
			Louis	ville,	Ky.		1	Manch	ester,	N. H.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0.160 .348 .248 .401 .559 .263 .739 2.064 .374	\$0. 190 . 340 . 202 . 323 . 564 . 286 . 730 1. 967 . 377	\$0. 207 .382 .258 .361 .608 .353 .835 2. 120 .328 .770 6. 342	. 396 . 272 . 385 . 634 . 352 . 841	. 530 . 335 . 445 . 755 . 404 . 990 2. 603 . 363 1. 175	. 358 . 261 . 318 . 492 . 275 . 734 1. 774 . 275	. 277 . 220 . 281 . 408 . 283 . 699 1, 688 . 277	. 421 . 254 . 344 . 557 . 380 . 901 2. 379 . 322	. 381 . 244 . 362 . 560 . 370 . 913 2. 369	. 432 . 303 . 396 . 584 . 467 1. 111 2. 684 . 374 1. 080
				phis,	Tenn.			Milw	aukee	, Wis.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached. Sneeting bleached, 9-4 Sneets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo Each. Yarddo Pair	\$0. 221 .380 .263 .330 .553 .285 .788 1. 978 .331	\$0. 184 . 356 . 230 . 288 . 563 . 284 . 738 2. 024 . 290 5. 921	\$0. 199 . 407 . 260 . 363 . 582 . 353 . 909 2. 271 . 341	\$0. 225 . 424 . 310 . 366 . 588 . 379 . 934 2. 426 . 359 1. 000 6. 209	\$0. 264 . 507 . 355 . 426 . 687 . 435 1. 007 2. 669 . 383 1. 213 6. 987	\$0.170 .335 .246 .323 .54° .30 _± .814 1.981 .313 .600 6.520	.344 .226 .330 .510 .295 .739 1.887 .329 .825	.435 .270 .350 .549 .375 .860 2.227 .345 1,000	.414 .267 .357 .548 .384 .848 2.180 .343	. 538 . 350 . 423 . 629 . 473 1. 002 2. 703 . 414
			dinnes					Мо	bile, A	la.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	dodododododo EachYard.	. 357 . 256 . 336 . 610 . 285 . 741 1. 950 . 319	\$0. 166 . 366 . 237 . 329 . 581 . 278 . 698 1. 896 . 313 1. 000 5. 732	. 376 . 250 . 349 . 582 . 354 . 855 2. 186 . 354 1. 000	.387 .258 .354 .634 .380 .853 2.361 .344	.423 .306 .440 .728 .434 1.059 2.600 .415	. 362 . 243 . 295 . 500 . 275 . 698 2. 000 . 221	\$0. 154 .311 .193 .304 .477 .258 .595 1. 620 .276 .650	. 350 . 250 . 347 . 530 . 346 . 690 1. 827 . 290 . 675	.405 .270 .339 .534 .349 .750 2.250	\$0. 253 . 510 . 316 . 436 . 622 . 390 . 930 2. 276 . 350 1. 000 5. 990

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1919, AND FEB. 15, 1920, IN 51 CITIES—Continued.

			New	ark, 1	И. J.		. 1	New I	Iaven,	Conn	
Article.	Unit.		19	19		Feb.		19	19		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 173 . 325 . 230 . 284 . 516 . 291 . 761 1. 849 . 307 1. 450 4. 750	. 330 . 203 . 290 . 533 . 317 . 771 1. 916 . 272 1. 250	. 366 . 250 . 340 . 555 . 345 . 839 2. 113 . 341 1. 220	. 408 . 250 . 355 . 609 . 391 . 845 2. 316	. 488 . 297 . 402 . 608 . 432 1. 004 2. 645 . 382 1. 500	. 340 . 248 . 324 . 528 . 286 . 699 1. 763 . 296 . 925	\$0. 321 .194 .257 .505 .269 .670 1. 696 .243	.346 .241 .333 .531 .334 .825 2.003 .276	. 288 . 362 . 553 . 374 . 824 2. 011 . 310 . 935	. 43 . 29 . 39 . 58 . 42 . 98 2. 31 . 36 . 94
					ıs, La.					N. Y.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flamel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0.150 .320 .250 .283 .520 .238 .750 1.898 .350	\$0. 150 . 350 . 250 . 287 . 508 . 227 . 620 1. 788 . 300 . 500 5. 980	\$0. 269 . 450 . 250 . 312 . 552 . 324 . 705 1. 795 . 296	\$0. 217 . 375 . 290 . 338 . 584 . 341 . 784 1. 946 . 308 . 590 5. 986	\$0. 242 . 398 . 340 . 374 . 718 . 390 . 967 2. 343 . 373 . 600 5. 945	\$0. 210 .371 .247 .347 .777 .288 .797 1. 909 .324 .911 5. 686	\$0. 205 .343 .212 .335 .616 .288 .757 1. 878 .307 1. 029 5. 524	\$0. 270 . 419 . 290 . 361 . 625 . 349 . 892 2. 199 . 304 . 890 5. 238	\$0. 250 . 450 . 295 . 390 . 659 . 380 . 951 2. 326 . 338 1. 070 5. 975	\$0. 27 . 46 . 36 . 43 . 71 . 44 2. 53 . 37 . 94 5. 39
			No	rfolk,					aha, N		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddodododododoEachYarddoPair	\$0. 220 .360 .270 .336 .557 .292 .791 1. 916 .311 .875 5. 183	\$0. 250 .330 .250 .355 .536 .277 .792 1. 786 .310 1. 125 5. 990	\$0.460 .266 .370 .607 .354 .870 2.159 .360 1.125 6.500	.437 .305 .376 .568 .381 .873 2.174 .355	. 487 . 360 . 404 . 620 . 427 1. 025 2. 360 . 385 1. 050	. 377 . 270 . 345 . 595 . 317 . 726 1. 853 . 346 1. 125	.348 .232 .337 .596 .289 .726 2.013 .328 1.150	.389 .270 .342 .612 .371 .888 2.157 .358 .945	. 277 . 346 . 652 . 371 . 895 2. 257 . 368	1.1 2.4 1.3 1.3
				eoria,	111.			Phila	delphi	ia, Pa.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 213 . 330 . 250 . 335 . 530 . 307 . 877 2. 126 . 379	\$0. 180 . 336 . 230 . 328 . 581 . 277 . 824 2. 148 . 353 5. 700	\$0. 169 . 330 . 245 . 350 . 580 . 342 1. 007 2. 376 . 353	\$0. 186 . 340 . 248 . 356 . 540 . 347 . 991 2. 363 . 790 5. 717	\$0. 203 . 450 . 263 . 412 . 624 . 410 1. 085 2. 616 . 385	\$0. 159 . 307 . 239 . 290 . 534 . 283 . 761 1. 856 . 308 . 938 5. 153	\$0. 207 . 304 . 203 . 320 . 537 . 288 . 754 1. 813 . 285 1. 070 5. 472	\$0. 382 . 280 . 343 . 515 . 348 . 829 1. 990 . 325 . 854 5. 376	. 268 . 344 . 576 . 377 . 865 2. 144 . 348 . 883	1.0 2.6 4 1.4 1.4
			Pitt	sburgh	ı, Pa.					Me.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 209 . 326 . 241 . 305 . 526 . 281 . 785 1. 788 . 324 . 760 5. 957	\$0. 167 .310 .192 .309 .541 .267 .727 1. 707 .302 .785 5. 750	\$0. 173 . 350 . 220 . 340 . 515 . 298 . 790 1. 797 . 333 . 875	\$0. 199 .385 .274 .332 .603 .361 .917 2. 181 .335 1. 068 5. 511	\$0. 218 . 493 . 281 . 393 . 628 . 428 1. 063 2. 597 . 367 1. 075 5. 783			\$0.390 .250 .336 .550 .331 .785 1.990 .329	\$0.390 .250 .330 .519 .365 .814 2.000 .348 1.250 5.625	\$0.4 2.4 6.4 9.2.3 4.5 5.3

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB.15, MAY 15, AUG.15, AND OCT. 15, 1919, AND FEB. 15, 1920, IN 51 CITIES—Continued.

			Port	land,	Oreg.			Provi	dence,	R. I.	
Article.	Unit.		19)19		Feb.		19	19		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.
Calleo, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 94 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddododododoEach. YarddoedododoEach.	\$0.142 .400 .200 .340 .450 .258 .700 1.900 .333	\$0.148 .358 .200 .338 .693 .277 .700 1.889 .335 1.100 5.690	\$0.195 .400 .250 .350 .663 .371 .897 2.300 .363	\$0.188 .400 .273 .367 .496 .349 .846 2.162 .328 .900 5.500	\$0. 225 464 230 392 707 447 879 2. 255 378 1. 125 6. 750	\$0.186 .320 .240 .306 .474 .263 .724 2.078 .323 .990 5.995	\$0. 190 .300 .214 .316 .495 .257 .676 1. 734 .255 .915 6. 058	\$0.343 .270 .321 .560 .349 .922 2.435 .284	\$0.230 .383 .275 .359 .568 .371 .947 2.230 .370 1.100 5.888	\$0.270 .473 .333 .419 .590 .448 .986 .2.556 .417 1.090 6.240
				mond					ester,		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddodododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0.188 .348 .247 .320 .457 .293 .787 1.906 .330 .971 5.618	\$0.164 .318 .206 .290 .436 .273 .742 1.849 .308 .852 5.678	.405 .254 .315 .489 .369 .908 2.210 .348 .795	.384 .273 .358 .511 .371 .933 2.265 .354 .793	.499 .290 .389 .603 .460	.285 .238 .309 .562 .266 .696 1.934 .304 1.375	. 277 . 194 . 276 . 561 . 246 . 712 1. 783 . 282	.387 .205 .322 .627 .346 .889 2.153	.397 .248 .323 .629 .346 .878 2.229 .327	. 486 .290 .384 .664 .431 1.039 2.504 .346
			St.	Louis					Paul, L		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0.208 .370 .255 .334 .585 .275 .712 1.891 .328 .775 6.690	\$0.195 .320 .220 .289 .594 .249 .689 1.900 .351 .933 6.500	\$0.220 .430 .280 .387 .685 .362 .895 2.281 .367 .800 5.245	\$0. 220 . 430 . 280 . 357 . 700 . 376 . 922 2. 415 . 366 . 925 5. 250	\$0.250 .490 .300 .448 .728 .440 .944 2.535 .372 1.050 6.930	\$0.157 .308 .249 .315 .541 .324 .809 2.128 .316	\$0.156 .296 .220 .309 .484 .277 .733 1.861 .278 .980 5.698	\$0.216 .378 .240 .359 .597 .354 .895 2.230 .322	\$0. 231 .388 .255 .374 .565 .397 .894 2. 225 .328 1. 190 5. 942	\$0.255 .491 .320 .427 .644 .469 1.028 2.507 .398 1.250 6.613
		Sa	lt Lak	ce City	, Uta	h.	Sa	n Fra	ncisco		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0.169 .395 .235 .349 .710 .311 .793 2.027 .382 1.350 5.675	\$0. 158 . 351 . 245 . 329 . 635 . 294 . 762 1. 971 . 319 1. 258 6. 980	\$0.190 .384 .262 .377 .586 .377 .871 2.152 .361 1.750 7.596	\$0.200 .440 .266 .395 .683 .382 .945 2.776 .361 1.593 7.019	\$0.220 .520 .298 .409 .709 .467 1.078 2.691 .441 1.590 7.410	\$0.400 .317 .336 .550 .210 .800 1.934 .381 .750 6.379	\$0.417 ,288 ,333 ,500 ,286 ,771 1,905 ,359 ,750 5,943	. 360 . 525 . 355 . 865 2. 122 . 408	\$0.450 .510 .363 .397 .550 .396 .950 2.327 .405 1.200 6.950	. 325 . 400 . 621 . 417 . 983 2. 479 . 425 1. 083
				ınnah,					nton,	Pa.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddodododododododododo. Each Yarddo. Pair					\$0.505 .336 .429 .659 .462 1.077 2.593 .419 1.250 7.284	.350 .260 .320 .517 .284 .777 1.954 .322 .790	. 285 . 220 . 291 . 493 . 282 . 752 1. 902 . 312 . 980	\$0.207 .390 .290 .330 .594 .347 .771 2.053 .326	.395 .290 .341 .558 .352 .919 2.221 .335 .868	.415 .297 .402 .598 .416 1.022 2.378 .404 .980

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB, 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1919, AND FEB. 15, 1920, IN 51 CITIES—Concluded.

			Sea	ttle, V	Vash.			Sprin	igfield	, III.			
Article.	Unit.		19	19		Feb.		19	19		Feb.		
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1920.		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0. 213 .389 .250 .306 .608 .300 .855 2. 200 .362 .875 6. 050	. 357 . 240 . 328 . 560 . 253 . 767 1. 929 . 338 . 875	.418 .250 .328 .558 .403 1.090 2.850 .385 .925	.430 .250 .329 .600 .394 1.080 2.827 .370	.475 .350 .397 .655 .458 1.204 3.011 .429 1.675	.314 .250 .321 .571 .266 .698 1.780 .292	. 335 . 240 . 320 . 499 . 262 . 737 1. 967 . 284 . 875	.330 .247 .341 .435 .311 .820 2.081	. 366 . 257 . 349 . 475 . 322 . 829 2. 095 . 329	. 431 . 296 . 397 . 593 . 366 . 900 2. 350 . 383 . 750		
			Washi	ngton	, D. C								
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 200 .348 .244 .353 .559 .268 .801 1. 890 .315 1. 380 6. 500	\$0.338 .243 .381 .534 .278 .740 1.876 .304	.354 .263 .371 .587 .344 .858 2.347 .339 1.250	3 .297 .419 .572 4 .365 8 .930 7 2.348 9 .348 0 1.250	313 313 495 637 473 1.141 2.946 3.397 1.000							

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States.

A S SHOWN by information gathered in representative markets by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, wholesale prices in the aggregate averaged slightly higher in February, 1920, than in the preceding month. The Bureau's weighted index number, which is built on a larger number of commodities than any other currently published series, registered 249 for February, as compared with 248 for January. Articles belonging to the group of lumber and building materials exhibited the largest increase, the index number rising from 268 to 300, or nearly 12 per cent. Metals and metal products increased 7 per cent and chemicals and drugs 4½ per cent. Somewhat smaller increases were recorded for cloths and clothing, fuel and lighting, and for house furnishings.

On the other hand, the important groups of farm products and food articles each showed a substantial decrease of more than 3½ per cent from January to February, the index numbers dropping from 246 to 237 and from 253 to 244, respectively. In the group of miscellaneous commodities no change in average prices took place.

The following table shows the more important price changes occurring between January and February:

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICE IN FEBRUARY, AS COMPARED WITH JANUARY, 1920, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Increases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
Farm products.		Cloths and clothing.—Con.		Metals and metal prod- ucts.—Concluded.	
Timothy hay	7.45 3.66	Cotton goods: Blankets Flannels.	13.80 14.90	Steel billets	15.10 27.70
Ewes. Lambs. Wethers. Poultry, live:	20.11 4.72 17.08	Hosiery, men's	22.40 16.70 3.22	Steel, structural Lumber and building	4.75
Chicago	13.88 10.35	Sheeting. Shirting. Thread Yarns	4.63 3.10 12.34 7.56	materials. Brick, New York	4.15 12.90
Food, etc.		Linen shoe thread Dress goods:	8.18	Plate glass Lime Hemlock	7.80
Flour, Portland, Oreg Apples Lemons Oranges	6.60 6.06 39.85 21.33	French serge	2.84 2.19	Quartered oak	27.65 24.10 5.30
Raisins Hams Lamb	23.92 3.80 10.65	Denatured alcohol	5.58 3.11	Chemicals and drugs. Alcohol:	
Mutton	31.00 9.50	Crude	5.15 9.52	Grain. Wood. Caustic soda.	2.00 29.90 5.55
New York Potatoes Vinegar	11. 22 2. 00 5. 56	Metals and metal products. Bar iron	14.30	Nitrate of soda	16.75 10.00
Cloths and clothing.	0.00	Iron ore	16.15	Miscellaneous.	
Shoes, average	2.90	Basic Bessemer	11.90 6.20	Bran Lubricating oil, paraffin	2.02 11.11

Decreases.

Farm products.		Food, etc.		Food, etc.—Concluded.	4.
Cotton: New Orleans New York Barley Corn Rye Wheat: No. 1 northern spring, Chicago. No. 2 red winter, Chicago. No. 2 hard winter, Kansas City No. 1 northern spring, Minneapolis. Bluestem, Portland, Oreg.	2. 25 1. 25 7. 00 3. 68 11.17 15. 40 5. 50 11. 03 8. 30 6. 25	Cheese: Chicago	9.44 6.00 9.20 15.80 21.00 23.50 21.57 14.78 21.05 10.75	Food, etc.—Concluded. Fresh beef: Chicago New York Milk: Chicago. New York Sugar: 96° centrifugal Granulated. Cloths and clothing. Silk, Japan, raw Metals and metal products. Silver.	7. 4 9. 8 5. 8 5. 2 12. 4 3. 7 17. 0 4. 0
Calfskins. Cattle Hogs	11. 08 8. 14 3. 85	St. Louis Lard Corn meal	6. 25 4. 00 13. 00 2. 20	Miscellaneous. Cottonseed oil Rubber, Para Island	9. 2

Measured by changes in the index numbers for the 12 months from February, 1919, to February, 1920, farm products increased nearly 9 per cent in price, food 24½ per cent, and cloths and clothing 60 per cent. During the same time fuel and lighting increased nearly 11

per cent, metals and metal products $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, and lumber and building materials more than 84 per cent. Chemicals and drugs increased $6\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, house-furnishing goods nearly 51 per cent, and miscellaneous commodities about 9 per cent in this period.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN SPECIFIED YEARS AND MONTHS, 1913, TO FEBRUARY, 1920, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

[1913=100.]

Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and cloth- ing.	Fuel and light- ing.	Metals and metal prod- ucts.	Lumber and building materials.	Chemicals and drugs.	House fur- nishing goods.	Miscel- lane- ous.	All com- mod- ities.
January. April. July. October.	100 97 97 101 103	100 99 96 102 102	100 100 100 100 100	100 103 98 99 100	100 107 102 98 99	100 100 101 101 98	100 101 101 99 100	100 100 100 100 100	100 100 98 101 100	100 100 98 100 101
1914 JanuaryApril JulyOctober	103 101 103 104 103	103 102 95 104 107	98 98 99 99 97	96 99 98 95 93	87 92 91 85 83	97 98 99 97 96	101 100 100 99 105	99 99 99 99 99	99 99 101 97 96	100 100 98 100 99
1915 January April July October	105 102 107 108 105	104 106 105 104 103	100 96 99 99 103	93 93 89 90 96	97 83 91 102 100	94 94 94 93 93	114 103 102 108 124	99 99 99 99 99	99 100 99 98 99	101 99 100 101 101
1916. JanuaryApril. July. October	122 108 114 118 136	126 113 117 121 140	128 110 119 126 138	119 105 108 108 133	148 126 147 145 151	101 99 101 99 101	159 150 172 156 150	115 105 108 121 124	120 107 110 120 132	124 110 117 119 134
1917. January. April. July October.	189 148 181 199 208	176 150 182 181 183	181 161 169 187 193	175 176 184 192 146	208 183 208 257 182	124 106 114 132 134	198 159 170 198 252	144 132 139 152 152	155 138 149 153 163	176 151 172 186 181
1918. January. February March. April. May June July. August. September October November December	220 207 208 212 217 214 217 224 230 237 224 221 222	189 187 186 177 178 177 179 184 191 199 201 206 210	239 211 216 223 232 237 245 249 252 255 257 256 250	163 157 157 158 157 160 159 166 166 167 167 171	181 174 176 176 177 178 178 184 185 184 187 188	151 136 138 144 146 148 150 154 157 159 158 164	221 232 232 232 229 229 216 222 220 218 215 195	196 161 161 165 172 173 198 199 221 226 226 226 227	193 178 181 184 191 194 196 190 191 194 196 203 204	196 188 186 187 196 198 198 200 207 204 206 206
1919. January. February. March. April. May. June. July. August September October. November December.	218 228 235 240 231 246 243 226 230 240	210 207 196 203 211 214 204 216 227 211 211 219 234	261 234 223 216 217 228 258 282 304 306 313 325 335	173 170 169 168 167 167 170 171 175 181 181 179	161 172 168 162 152 152 154 158 165 160 161 164	192 161 163 165 162 164 175 186 208 227 231 236 253	179 191 185 183 178 179 174 171 172 173 174 176 179	236 218 218 218 217 217 233 245 259 262 264 299 303	217 212 208 217 216 213 212 221 225 217 220 220 220	21: 20: 19' 20: 20' 20' 21: 22: 22: 22: 23: 23:
1920: January February ¹	246 237	253 244	350 356	184 187	177 189	268 300		324 329	227 227	24 24

¹ Preliminary.

[914]

Comparison of Retail Price Changes in the United States and Foreign Countries.

HE index numbers of retail prices published by several foreign countries have been brought together with those of this Bureau in the subjoined table after having been reduced to a common base, viz, prices for July, 1914, equal 100. This base was selected instead of the average for the year 1913, which is used in other tables of index numbers compiled by the Bureau, because of the fact that in some instances satisfactory information for 1913 was not available. For Belgium, Denmark, Great Britain, Norway, Sweden, and the city of Rome, Italy, the index numbers are reproduced as published in the original sources. With two exceptions all these are shown on the July, 1914, base in the source from which the information is taken. The index numbers for Belgium are computed on April, 1914, as the base period, while those for Rome are based on the first half of 1914. The index numbers here shown for the remaining countries have been obtained by dividing the index for July, 1914, or the nearest period thereto, as published, into the index for each month specified in the table. As shown in the table, the number of articles included in the index numbers for the different countries differs widely. These results should not, therefore, be considered as closely comparable one with another. In one or two instances the figures here shown are not absolutely comparable from month to month over the entire period, owing to slight changes in the list of commodities included at successive dates.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN OTHER COUNTRIES.

[July, 1914=100.]

							amily bud- articles.	
Year and month.	United States: 22 foodstuffs; 45 cities. Weighted.	Australia: 46 food- stuffs; 30 towns. Weighted.	Belgium: 22 articles and rent, Brussels. Not weighted.	Canada: 29 food- stuffs; 60 cities. Weighted.	Denmark: Family food budget; 5 persons. Weighted.	Cities over 10,000 popu- lation (except Paris). Weighted.	Paris only. Weighted.	Great Britain: 21 food- stuffs; 600 towns. Weighted
1914. July October	100 103	100 99	1 100	100 108	100	2 100	100	100 112
1915. January April July October	101 97 98 101	107 113 131 133		107 105 105 105	128	² 110	120 114 120 118	118 124 132 140
1916. January April July October	105 107 109 119	129 131 130 125		112 112 114 125	146	² 133 ² 137 ² 141 ² 146	134 132 129 135	145 149 161 168
1917. January. February. March. April. May. June. July August. September October. November December.	125 130 130 142 148 149 143 146 150 154 152	125 126 126 127 127 127 126 129 129 129 129 129		138 141 144 145 159 160 157 157 157 159 163	158	2 171 2 184 2 200	139 147 183 184	187 189 192 194 198 2022 204 202 206 197 206 205
J918. January. February March. April May June July August September October November December.	151	129 130 131 131 132 132 132 131 128 128 131 133		167 169 170 169 171 172 175 181 179 182 182	173	2 211 2 232 2 244 2 260	218 206 238	206 208 207 206 207 208 210 218 216 229 233 229
1919. January. February. March. April. May. June July. August. September October November December.	172 178 181 180 186 188	140 141 143 145 146 147 147 148 148 156	699 564 403 344 333 357 361 350 346 351 359	186 181 176 180 182 185 186 195 193 192 192	212	2 277 2 293 2 288 2 301	248 227 248 257 268 264 261 238 259 283	230 230 220 213 207 204 209 217 216 222 231 234

¹ April, 1914.

² Quarter beginning that month.

INDEX NUMBERS OF RETAIL PRICES IN THE UNITED STATES AND CERTAIN OTHER COUNTRIES-Concluded.

	Ita	ly.	NT-/1					
Year and month.	7 food- stuffs; 40 cities (variable). Not weighted.	Rome: Family food budget; 5 persons. Weighted.	Nether- lands: 27 foodstuffs; Amster- dam. Not weighted.	New Zealand: 59 food- stuffs; 25 towns. Weighted.	Norway: Family food budget. Weighted.	Spain: 12 foodstuffs; provincial capitals. Not weighted.	Sweden: 21 articles; 44 towns. Weighted.	Switzer- land: 9 groups of foodstuffs Not weighted.
1914. July October	100 104	\$ 100	4 100	100 102	100	5 100	100 7 107	6 10 6 10
1915. January April July October	108 113 120 127	95 107 95 100		111 113 112 112		8 101 6 106	7 113 7 121 7 124 7 128	6 10 6 11 6 11 6 12
1916. January April July October	133 132 132 132	111 116 111 111		116 118 119 120	9 160	8 110 6 113	7 130 7 134 7 142 7 152	6 12 6 12 6 14 6 14
January. February March April May June July August September October November December	144 154 161 164 167 171 172 178 188 197 199	124 127 121 120 123 136 137 143 142 148 166		127 126 126 127 128 128 127 127 127 129 130 130	214	8 116 6 127	160 166 170 175 175 175 177 181 187 192 200 212	6 14 15 17 19
1918. January February March April May June July August September October November December	239 253 267	1777 181 199 2000 202 199 203 208 219 235 249 254		133 134 134 137 139 139 141 141 142 142 144	279 275 275		221 227 235 247 258 261 268 280 284 310 320 330	20- 230 25:
January. February March April May June July August September October November December	281	259 258 243 230 232 225 206 207 214 241 246 252	195 212 205 196 188 204 210 207 203 204 202 199	145 142 141 142 142 143 144 146 148 150 153	279 278 278 278 276 271 269 269 272 277 280	8 157	339 334 331 337 328 319 310 313 309 307	25

Retail Price Changes in Great Britain.

HE following table gives for Great Britain the increase over July, 1914, in the cost of food and general family expenditure for March of each year, 1915 to 1920, and for each month in 1920. 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 percentage of increase and is not one of relative prices. To obtain the relative prices it is necessary to add 100 to the percentage as given, e. g., for January, 1920, the increase in cost of food was 136 per cent, the relative price being 236.

The figures represent two comparisons: First, the increase in prices, based on the same kinds and quantities as used in July, 1914; second, the increase, based on the change in the standard of living, resulting from a substitution of one kind of food for another to meet war-time conditions.

The table shows that retail prices of food were 133 per cent higher in March, 1920, than in July, 1914, and that the increased cost of all items in the family budget was 130 per cent. On account of the lower standard of living at the later date the expenditures of wage earners for food increased only 107 per cent and for all items in the family budget 115 per cent during the same period.

PER CENT INCREASE IN COST OF FOOD AND ALL ITEMS IN FAMILY BUDGET IN GREAT BRITAIN BASED ON JULY, 1914.

[Compiled from the British Labor Gazette.]

	Fo	od.	All items in family budget.			
Year and month.	Retail prices (assuming same kinds and quantities).	Expenditures (allowing for estimated changes in con- sumption).	Cost (assuming same kinds and quantities).	Expenditures (allowing for estimated changes in consumption).		
March, 1915 March, 1916 March, 1917 March, 1918 March, 1919	24 48 92 107 120	1 35 3 55 79	2 65 4 90 8 115	50–55 90		
January. 1920. February. March	136 135 133	115 112 107	125 130 130	118 118 118		

Approximate increase if standard of consumption is changed as follows: Eggs omitted; margarine substituted for butter; sugar and fish consumption cut one-half.
 Not including taxes.
 Based on change in standard of food consumption adopted by the Ministry of Food.

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

Cost of Living in Italy.

RECENT number of the municipal monthly bulletin of the city of Milan¹ contains three tables showing the increase in the cost of living in Milan during 1918 and 1919. The first of these three tables gives the total weekly expenditure of a workman's family of 5 persons (2 adults, 1 child 10 to 15 years of age, and 2 children under 10 years) for food, clothing, housing, light, fuel, and miscellaneous items for each month of 1918 and 1919 in comparison with the average weekly expenditure during the first six months of 1914.

TABLE 1.—WEEKLY COST OF LIVING OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY IN MILAN, ITALY, FOR EACH MONTH OF 1918 AND 1919, COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE PER WEEK FOR THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1914.

[One	lire at	par=	19.3	cents.]
------	---------	------	------	---------

Month and year.	Amount.	Per cent increase over first 6 months of 1914.
Average first 6 months of 1914.	Lire. 41.20	
January 1918, February March April May June July August September October November December.	68. 42 66. 55 68. 04 71. 70 75. 35 85. 47 84. 35 97. 98 114. 16 102. 49 102. 97 106. 85	66 62 65 74 83 107 105 138 177 149 150
1919. January February March. April May June July August. September October November Docember	107. 18 110. 81 108, 03 106. 49 117. 21 120. 05 109. 24 108. 07 111. 47 117. 74 118. 53 118. 16	160 169 162 158 184 191 165 162 170 185 187

According to the preceding table the cost of living curve showed a continuous upward tendency in 1918 up to September. In that month it reached its highest level, the cost of living being 177 per cent greater than the average cost for the first six months of 1914. In October, 1918, the corresponding increase was only 149 per cent, and up to May, 1919, the cost of living remained below the high level of September, 1918. In May, 1919, it showed an increase of 184 per

¹Città di Milano. Bollettino Municipale Mensile di Cronaca Amministrativa e di Statistica, vol. 25, No. 12. Milan, December 31, 1919. pp. 531, 532.

cent over the average for the first six months of 1914, and in June, 1919, it rose to the highest point of the year, the increase in that month over the 1914 figures amounting to 191 per cent. In July and August, 1919, there was a slight decrease, but in September it began again to rise, and in November and December it was 187 per cent greater than in the first half of 1914.

Table 2 shows the average weekly budget of a workman's family, and Table 3 shows the average weekly expenditure for food during December, 1919. The weekly expenditures for December, 1919, is compared with the average weekly expenditure for the first six months of 1914 and an index number is computed by assuming the latter expenditure to be equal to 100. Table 3 in which the articles of food are itemized, also shows the quantities of each foodstuff consumed and the price per unit. The quantities shown as consumed in 1914 are based on an investigation made in 1913. Owing to the rationing of certain foodstuffs in December, 1919, and the scarcity of certain nonrationed foodstuffs the quantities consumed weekly in December, 1919, are not the same as those consumed per week during the first six months of 1914. For this reason the table shows first what the weekly expenditure would have been in December, 1919, if the normal quantities of food consumed in 1914 had been consumed in December, 1919, and secondly the actual expenditure in December, 1919, for those quantities of food which were consumed.

Table 2.—AVERAGE! WEEKLY BUDGET OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY IN MILAN, ITALY, IN DECEMBER, 1919, COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE WEEKLY BUDGET OF THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1914.

[One lire at par=19.3 cents.]

	Average weekly expenditure.									
	First six mo	onths of 1914.	December, 1919.							
Item.	Amount.	Per cent.		normal con- n of food.	Based on actual con- sumption of food.					
	illiouit.	10100201	Amount. Per cent.		Amount.	Per cent.				
Food	Lire. 25.58 4.94 4.70 1.86 4.12	62.09 12.00 11.40 4.51 10.00	Lire. 101.15 18.50 5.09 4.09 16.25	69.72 12.76 3.50 2.82 11.20	Lire, 74. 23 18. 50 5. 09 4. 09 16. 25	62. 83 15. 66 4. 30 3. 46 13. 75				
Total	41.20	100.00	145.08	100.00	118.16	100.00				
Index number	100.00		352.13		286.80					

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE WEEKLY EXPENDITURE FOR FOOD OF A WORKMAN'S FAMILY IN MILAN, ITALY, IN DECEMBER, 1919, COMPARED WITH THE AVERAGE WEEKLY EXPENDITURE OF THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF 1914.

[1 kilogram=2.20462 pounds; 1 liter=1.0567 quarts; 1 lira at par=19.3 cents.]

		First 6	months	of 1914.		Decemb	er, 1919.	
		Aver-			Aver-			ekly diture.
Item.	Unit.	age weekly con- sump- tion.	Price.	Weekly ex- pendi- ture.	age weekly con- sump- tion.	Price.	Based on normal consumption.	Actual
Farinaceous foods Rice. Sugar Butter Oil Bacon. Cheese, hard. Tunny in oil	do do do do do	1.617 2.415 .770 .364 .238 .483		Lire. 4.69 1.07 .97 .98 1.18 .62 .99	9. 590 1. 691 1. 691 . 790 . 226 . 113 . 339 . 113 . 057	Lire. 0.83 1.25 1.25 4.64 11.75 5.50 8.50 8.40 10.00	Lire, 8.13 2.02 3.02 3.57 4.28 1.31 4.10	Lire. 7. 98 2. 11 2. 11 3. 67 2. 66 62 2. 88 . 95
Total				10.41			26.43	23.58
Lard and other fats. Cheese, various. Salt pork. Milk Beans. Tripe. Sausage. Fish, fresh, dried, and preserved. Eggs. Meat, beef. Meat, various. Chocolate. Potatoes. Vegetables. Fruit, fresh. Catsup. Coffee, and coffee substitutes. Flour, wheat. Corn meal. Wine.	dodoLiter Kilogramdododododododo	.531 .084 5.894 .028 .280 .084 10.500 2.695 .028 2.499 7.000 .896 .077 .154 .231 .268 3.000	1.70 3.20 2.20 30 4.00 2.50 .08 11.40 4.00 .13 3.30 .68 1.20 4.00 .50 2.54	.04 1.70 .18 1.77 .03 1.15 .21 .84 3.77 .11 .32 2.10 .61 .09 .62 .12 .07 1.47	.600 .290 4.000 1.500 .300 .200 4.000 1.200 4.000 1.000 .500 .100 3.000	8.60 7.40 8.50 .86 2.60 2.25 14.43 6.00 .70 26.20 6.80 8.00 .67 2.50 3.50 2.18 19.00 .80 2.24	.17 4.19 .71 5.07 .07 4.04 .50 7.35 19.40 .22 1.67 17.50 3.14 .17 2.93 .18 .18 .21 7.20	5. 16 1. 48 3. 44 3. 99 2. 89 2. 80 7. 44 8. 16 2. 68 2. 50 1. 75 2. 22
Grand total, all items				25.58			101.15	74. 23
Index number				100.00			395.43	290. 19

¹ Average price of all grades of fresh beef and veal.

A study of the data contained in Table 2 and Table 3 reveals in the first place the remarkable fact that even in prewar times, i. e., during the first half of 1914, 62.09 per cent of an Italian workman's family budget covered expenditures for food. Had the consumption of food been normal in December, 1919, the expenditures for food would have formed 69.72 per cent of the total budget, but, owing to rationing, the consumption of food decreased, so that the percentage for December, 1919, was 62.83. The expenditures for clothing formed 12 per cent of the budget in 1914 and 15.66 per cent in December, 1919, while the percentages for miscellaneous expenditures were

² Average price of all grades of fresh beef.

10 and 13.75, respectively. The percentages formed by expenditures for rent and for fuel and light have decreased, the former from 11.4 to 4.3 and the latter from 4.51 to 3.46. The decrease of the percentage for rent is due to the fact that, while the price of all other necessaries increased enormously during the war, rents remained

nearly stationary owing to legislation preventing increases.

From the table showing the itemized expenditures for rationed and nonrationed foodstuffs it becomes evident that with respect to rationed foodstuffs there was a considerable decrease in the consumption of rice, butter, oil, and bacon. As regards nonrationed foodstuffs, the decrease of consumption was greatest in the case of vegetables, i. e., from 7 kilograms to 1 kilogram (15.4 to 2.2 pounds). This decrease was partly made up by an increased consumption of dried beans and potatoes. The consumption of milk decreased from 5.894 to 4 liters (6.23 to 4.23 quarts). Salt pork, fresh, dried, and preserved fish (with the exception of tunny), chocolate, coffee, and wheat flour while consumed in 1914, disappeared entirely from the list of articles used in December, 1919. The largest items of the weekly food budget in December, 1919, were the expenditures for meat (not including bacon and sausage), 15.60 lire; bread, 7.96 lire; wine, 7.20 lire; lard and other fats, 5.16 lire; beans, 3.90 lire; sugar, 3.67 lire; and milk, 3.44 lire.

The average per cent of expenditure in December, 1919, for the principal groups of items of cost of living of a workman's family in Milan, Italy, is compared in Table 4 with the estimated per cent of expenditure of white families in industrial centers of the United States in October, 1919, as published in the Monthly Labor Review for January, 1920 (p. 98).

TABLE 4.—COMPARATIVE PER CENT OF FAMILY EXPENDITURE FOR THE SEVERAL ITEMS OF EXPENSE IN ITALY AND THE UNITED STATES, 1919.

	Per cent of total expenditure.			
Item.	Milan, Italy, December, 1919.	United States, October, 1919.		
Food. Clothing Rent Fuel and light Furniture and furnishings. Miscellaneous	62. 83 15. 66 4. 30 3. 46 13. 75	38. 2 16. 6 13. 4 5. 3 5. 1 21. 3		
Total	100.00	100.0		

This comparison shows that the average relative expenditure of Italian families for food was much larger and that for rent, fuel and light, and miscellaneous items considerably smaller than the expendi-

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ture of American families for the same items, and that the relative expenditure for clothing was nearly the same in the case of urban families of both nations.

Cost of living in Germany, 1914 to 1919.

THE Deutscher Reichsanzeiger (Berlin) for December 19, 1919, publishes the following table showing the estimated amounts required to purchase the "standard food budget" used by Calwer as the basis of his series of computations at the prices prevailing at various dates. The figures represent the estimated weekly cost of food needed by a family of four persons in specified months of the years 1914 to 1919. These figures are based on the average of the official maximum prices from about 200 localities and on the peace-time ration of a seaman in the German Navy.

ESTIMATED WEEKLY COST OF FOOD REQUIRED BY A GERMAN FAMILY OF FOUR PERSONS DURING SPECIFIED MONTHS OF THE YEARS 1914 TO 1919.

Month.	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	Per cent of increase, 1919 over 1914.
January. February March April May	Marks. 25, 57 25, 29 25, 08 24, 96 24, 70	Marks. 29.65 31.49 32.90 34.41 35.49	Marks. 41. 26 43. 40 48. 47 51. 78 52. 29	Marks. 53. 67 54. 15 54. 69 54. 81 54. 58	Marks. 56. 50 56. 47 57. 00 57. 13 57. 30	Marks. 63. 65 64. 93 67. 30 69. 65 73. 70	149 157 168 179 198

[1 mark at par=23.8 cents.]

Thus the increase in the cost of food in August, 1919, as compared with August, 1914, amounted to 224 per cent. It is stated that since the beginning of the war the cost of rationed foodstuffs had increased more than three times up to August, 1919, and that since then the prices of fats, eggs, bread, flour, potatoes, milk, etc., have risen considerably. These articles are not the only necessaries that have undergone heavy price increases. For example, the rise in the prices of clothing and shoes has been extraordinary. A man's suit, which before the war cost from 70 to 80 marks (\$16.66 to \$19.04, par), cost 600 marks (\$142.80, par) a year ago and now costs 1,000 marks (\$238, par).

According to the Statistical Yearbook for 1919, just issued by the Bavarian Statistical Department, the rise in prices in Munich between July, 1914, and November, 1919, is shown in the following table

170775°—20——7

July.... August... taken from Münchner Neueste Nachrichten (Munich) for December 10, 1919:

PER CENT OF INCREASE OF PRICES OF SPECIFIED COMMODITIES IN MUNICH IN NOVEMBER, 1919, OVER JULY, 1914.

Article.	Per cent of increase.	Article.	Per cent of increase.
Wheat flour Rye bread Milk Butter Cheese, Limburger Cheese, Emmenthaler Eggs Beef Veal Pork Wheat groats Pearl barley Loaf sugar Beer Vinegar Methylated spirits.	400 125 172 150 133 66 200 216 165 485 360 255 340 71 408 328	Petroleum Men's shoes Men's suits. Coffee cups (earthenware). Plates (earthenware). School slates. School exercise books. Pencils. Ink Beechwood Pine wood Coal, Bavarian Coal, Silesian Coal, Silesian Coal, Ruhr, hard Lignite briquets.	1, 186 400 999 1, 08° 256 66 655 499 424 488 34' 233 400

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

Wages and Hours in Paper-Box, Women's Clothing, Confectionery, and Overalls Industries.

HIS article presents a summary report on the results of the investigation of wages and hours in the manufacture of paper boxes, of women's clothing, of confectionery, and of overalls. The investigation was a part of the industrial survey of 1919. In the investigation of the paper-box industry were included establishments manufacturing folding boxes, i. e., boxes that are shipped flat to the purchaser, and set-up boxes, or those shipped in the form of made-up boxes. The investigation of the women's clothing industry covered the manufacture of children's dresses, of house dresses and kimonos, of cloaks, suits and skirts, of dresses and waists, and of white goods. These divisions of the two industries named correspond to divisions generally recognized in the trades.

In tabulating the material the occupations of each of the subdivisions of the women's clothing industry are given separately, except that the manufacture of children's dresses is combined with that of house dresses and kimonos. In the paper-box industry such occupations as are fairly comparable in the two divisions of the industry are given once for both, while those peculiar to each branch of the industry are given separately, under the appropriate subheading.

In selecting the establishments to be covered by the survey the attempt was made to include enough in each State to give fairly typical results for the State. No attempt was made to apportion the representation in each State exactly in relation to the number of employees in the State. The number of establishments and the number of employees included in the investigation of each industry is shown by States in Table 1.

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, BY INDUSTRY AND STATE.

	Paper	boxes.	Women's	s clothing.	Confec	tionery.	Overalls.		
State.	Number of es- tablish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.							
California Connecticut Georgia	6 455				12	731 189	5	49	
Illinois Indiana	7	783	27	1,456	2 8 3	2,353 234	9	38 59	
lowa Kentucky					3 2	180 378	8	29	

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TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF ESTABLISHMENTS AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES, BY INDUSTRY AND STATE—Concluded.

	Paper	boxes.	Women's	clothing.	Confect	ionery.	Overalls.		
State.	Number of es- tablish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.	Number of es- tablish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.	Number of es- tablish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.	Number of es- tablish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.	
Maryland Massachusetts. Michigan Minnesota. Missouri New Jersey New York North Carolina	8 5 6 8 14	746 336 227 441 1,692	10 15 15	229 606 864 2,995	3 6 2 6 7 2 8	664 2,988 192 334 1,432 254 2,149	5 7 3 8 7 5	254 167 542 177 41; 31; 42; 20;	
North Carolina Ohio Oregon Pennsylvania Tennessee Texas Virginia	12		754 353	25 24	2,350 1,422	8 3 12 2	812 154 1,697 183	8 7 9	20 52 27 39 38 52
Washington Wisconsin	3	326			5 7	253 1,509	10	284	
Total	80	6,113	160	9,922	101	16,686	131	6, 91	

Because of the conditions under which the survey was carried out it was impossible to obtain the records of all establishments even in a single industry for the same pay-roll period. Owing to the unsettled state of industry immediately after the close of the war, conditions changed so rapidly that the exact date of the material presented is a matter of more importance than it would be in a normal year. The pay-roll periods included in each industry were distributed by months, as shown in Table 2:

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF PAY-ROLL PERIODS IN SPECIFIED MONTHS, BY INDUSTRY.

	Total num- ber of pay- roll	Number of pay-roll periods in—											
Industry.		1918		1919									
	periods.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.				
Paper box	80 160 101 131	2	2	43 30 8 3	6 84 21 2	16 21 32 9	12 23 30 38	3 8 70					

It will be seen from the table that in the paper-box industry 77 of the 80 pay-roll periods fell within the first four months of 1919; in the women's clothing industry 158 of the 160 pay-roll periods fell within the same time limits; in the confectionery industry the proportion is 91 out of 101 periods; while in the overalls industry 126 out of the 131 pay-roll periods fell in the months of March, April, May, and June, 1919. Information is presented as of the year 1919. In none of the industries, so far as could be ascertained, were there any changes in rates of wages during the progress of the survey.

Method of Gathering and Computing Data.

THE information concerning hours and earnings on which the tables are based was obtained directly from the pay rolls or other records of the companies by agents of the Bureau. Other information was obtained from responsible officials in personal interviews. Wherever the records of the company failed to indicate the time actually worked by pieceworkers during the selected pay-roll period, arrangements were made to have such a record kept for a future period from which record data were afterwards copied. In all cases the figures copied by the agents represented hours actually worked and earnings actually received.

As the material comes to the Bureau the figures for hours and those for earnings are both in incommensurable form on account of inequalities in the length of pay-roll periods and in the time worked by different individual employees. Before they can be presented in tabular form it is necessary to reduce both hours and earnings to a common denominator. The comparable figures selected for use in the following tables are hours worked per day and per week, and earnings per hour and per week. These figures are obtained in the

manner described in the following paragraphs:

The hours per day of each employee are obtained by dividing the number of hours worked by him during the pay-roll period by the number of week days, holidays omitted, in the pay-roll period. Thus in the case of pay rolls for a single week containing no holidays, the hours worked by each employee during the pay-roll period are divided by six, whether the employee worked on each of the six days or not. Similarly the hours actually worked by an employee in any establishment during a pay-roll period containing 13 work days were divided by 13, regardless of the number of days on which the employee worked. The resulting figure represents the number of hours per day that the employee would have worked, if his work time had been distributed uniformly among the week days of the pay-roll period.

Of the pay rolls included in the survey of those industries nearly all covered a single week. In the paper-box industry there were 75 one-week pay-roll periods and 5 two-week periods. In the women's clothing industry all of the 160 pay rolls were for a single week. In the confectionery industry 97 were for one week and 4 for two weeks, while in the overalls industry the corresponding figures were 112 for one week, 18 for two weeks, and one for a 14-day period.

By using the average number of hours per week day as a factor it is possible to obtain a figure for the average number of hours worked per week by multiplying that factor in every case by six. With oneweek pay rolls the result agrees with the original figure for hours per week actually worked. In the case of longer pay rolls, however, the resulting figure is hypothetical. It represents the number of hours per week that the employees would have worked in a six-day week if their working hours had been distributed uniformly over the

week days of the entire pay-roll period.

This figure of hours worked per week is no more useful for comparisons of hours in different occupations or industries than is the figure of hours per day. It has the advantage, however, of enabling comparisons to be drawn between the hours actually worked on the average by people in each occupation and the full-time hours of the same occupation.

By full-time hours per week is meant the number of hours that is thought of in the occupation as constituting a normal week's work—the number of hours the employee regularly expects to work and the employer expects him to work. This figure was obtained from the officials of the various establishments by the agents of the Bureau. The difference between average actual hours per week and average full-time hours per week is an indication of the degree of irregularity of employment among the employees to whom the figures apply.

Combining hours per day or hours per week computed from the records of one-week pay rolls with those computed from longer pay rolls introduces a disturbing factor which must not be lost sight of in using the figures for comparative purposes. The figures for a group of employees computed for four weeks combined will differ from those computed for the same group of employees for any one of the four weeks separately. This difference is always in the same direction, though varying in amount. The causes and the extent of it are discussed at some length in an article in the Monthly Labor Review for January, 1920 (pp. 121, 122).

The conclusion of that discussion is stated in the following words:

For these reasons it is inadmissible to use the figures of average hours per week day or average hours per week for very close comparisons, without making allowance for the relative number of short and long pay-roll periods on which the averages are based. For practical purposes, however, the figures are sufficiently comparable to give a fairly accurate representation of relative hours of labor in different States, industries or occupations, and of the percentage of the full time of each occupation which the employees in that occupation actually worked.

For comparative purposes the earnings of each employee are reduced to the form of average earnings per hour by dividing his total earnings for the pay-roll period by the total number of hours worked by him during the period. The resulting figure indicates how much he would have earned each hour he worked if his earnings had been distributed uniformly over all the hours actually worked by him during the period.

By multiplying the average hourly earnings of a group by the previously computed average hours per week worked by the same group, a figure is obtained which represents very closely the average actual weekly earnings of the group. In the case of one-week pay rolls this process brings us back practically to the average actual earnings for the week as computed directly from the actual earnings of the individual employees as reported on the schedules. For employees with longer pay-roll periods, however, the average is not the average of what was actually earned in any one week, but the average of what would have been earned if they had worked the same number of hours on each week day of the pay-roll period. In some respects it is a more significant figure than the actual earnings of a single week. For in general the longer the pay-roll period from which average weekly earnings are computed the more nearly

typical may the resulting average be assumed to be.

One other somewhat variable factor involved in the figure for average actual weekly earnings should be pointed out. The practice of working fewer hours on Saturday than on other week days, while by no means universal, is widely prevalent; and the number of hours worked on Saturday varies more or less from establishment to establishment. Whenever fewer hours are worked on Saturday than on other days the theoretical figure for actual weekly earnings described above will express exactly what it professes to express (namely, the amount that would have been earned in a week if the earnings had been uniformly distributed) only in the case of employees for whom Saturdays constituted one-sixth of the total number of days worked by them. In all other cases the figure will vary by a few cents from theoretical exactness. If the number of Saturdays exceeds one in six, the computed weekly earnings will be somewhat too low; if the number is less than one in six, the earnings will be correspondingly high. Careful experiment has shown, however, that these variations offset one another so largely that the net result is a variation of a few cents at the most in the weekly average for the group, a variation so slight that it may be entirely disregarded.

Hours and Earnings of Employees in the Four Industries.

IN TABLE 3 are presented the facts as to hours and earnings of male and female employees in the four industries under consideration. In each industry the figures are given for the whole country for each of the occupations listed in the survey. Figures for each State separately as well as other details concerning each

industry will appear later in separate bulletins.

The figures in each column are to be interpreted in the light of the explanations given in the preceding paragraphs. In the column immediately following that showing average full-time hours per week is shown the percentage which the average hours worked constituted of such full-time hours. In view of the explanation already given the figures presented in the table may be left to tell their own story.

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TABLE 3.—AVERAGE HOURS AND EARNINGS IN THE PAPER-BOX, WOMEN'S CLOTHING CONFECTIONERY, AND OVERALLS INDUSTRIES, BY SEX AND OCCUPATION.

Paper boxes.

	Number	Number	Avera	ige hours actu	ally work	ed—	Full-	-	Avera	ige earnings a	ctually ma	ade—
Sex and occupation.	of establish-	of em- ployees.	In weekly pay period.	In bi- weekly pay period.	Per week day.	Per week.	time hours per week.	Per cent of full- time worked.	In weekly pay period.	In bi- weekly pay period.	Per hour.	Per week.
MALES.												
Folding and set up boxes.												
Benders-up Laborers Stayers.	5 63 21	17 723 61	46.6 49.6 51.8	105.1	7.8 8.3 8.7	46.6 49.8 51.8	55. 2 50. 8 53. 9	84 98 96	\$12.13 17.99 17.95	\$24.88	\$0.258 .359 .347	\$12.13 17.92 17.95
Folding boxes.												
Cutters and creasers. Die makers and pressmen. Gluing-machine operators. Scrappers	30 30 11 19	247 139 30 161	48.9 53.3 50.8 49.5		8.2 8.9 8.5 8.2	48.9 53.3 50.8 49.5	50.6 50.6 52.5 49.5	97 105 97 100			.396 .525 .404 .407	19.52 28.42 20.78 20.92
Set up boxes.												
Closers and inspectors. Cutters, scorers, and corner cutters.	6 64	10 414	44.5 50.0	97.0	7.4 8.3	44.5 49.8	53.9 52.6	83 95	11.10 19.20	28.34	- 247 - 376	11.10 18.92
Total	77	1,802	49.9	102.2	8.3	49.9	51.2	97	19.51	26.14	.374	19.40
FEMALES. Folding and set up boxes.												
Benders-up. Laborers Stayers. Table workers.	24 26 66 71	94 221 323 1,258	44.6 42.0 45.7 45.5	99.1 90.2 94.6	7.4 7.0 7.6 7.5	44.6 42.0 45.6 45.0	50. 0 48. 8 50. 2 50. 1	89 86 91 90	9.59 9.28 11.97 11.54	21.91 24.93 21.75	. 217 . 218 . 262 . 250	9.59 9.31 11.99 11.51
Folding boxes.												
Cutters and creasers	15 22 16	94 217 146	45.5		7.9 7.6 7.4	47.7 45.5 44.5	48.9 49.2 50.4	96 92 88	12.69		. 293 . 283 . 269	14.30 12.69 12.16

Closers and inspectors	37 47 19	338 272	43.5	83.7 86.7	7.3	43.8	49.6 50.5	88 94	9.41 12.86	16.61 18.25	. 213	9.36 12.60
Gluers-off. Strippers and top and bottom paperers. Turners-in.	40 58 38	64 247 733 303	44.3 45.1 46.5 44.6	83.5 94.4 84.0	7.6 7.5 7.7 7.4	44.3 45.0 46.2 44.4	49.6 50.2 50.2 49.7	89 90 92 89	11.77 9.73 11.12 8.60	15.14 22.77 12.75	. 256 . 211 . 240 . 191	11.77 9.54 11.13 8.50
Total	77	4,311	45.3	90.3	7.5	45.0	50.0	90	11.09	20.04	. 243	11.05
				Women's cl	othing.					,	,	
MALES.												
Children's, and house dresses and kimonos.												
Cutters, assistant. Operators Pressers	33 15 8 10	85 22 18 19	49. 2 45. 9 48. 5 48. 4		8.1 7.7 8.1 8.1	49. 2 45. 9 48. 5 48. 4	49.1 49.1 48.7 48.9	100 83 100 99	\$28.34 16.59 22.31 26.52		\$0.585 .384 .458 .545	\$28.34 16.59 22.31 26.52
Cloaks, suits, and skirts.												
Assorters Bushelers and examiners Button sewers and markers Cutters and pattern graders Cutters, assistant Finishers Operators Pressers Tailors and sample makers Dresses and waists,	5 33 7 53 33 32 52 54 31	11 93 21 304 78 235 812 547 414	48.6 48.0 48.5 49.0 49.4		8.3 8.1 8.0 8.1 8.2 8.2 8.3 8.1 8.1	49.6 48.6 48.0 48.5 49.0 49.4 49.5 48.6 48.7	48.3 48.8 49.0 48.6 48.4 48.9 48.8 48.7 48.6	103 100 98 100 101 101 101 100 100	19. 25 29. 09 19. 47 34. 25 26. 72 26. 86 42. 03 33. 12 40. 17		.390 .598 .404 .703 .544 .542 .846 .681	19. 25 29. 09 19. 47 34. 25 26. 72 26. 86 42. 03 33. 12 40. 17
Cutters Cutters, assistant Operators Pattern graders Pressers Pressers	55 18 29 7 34	182 31 152 8 87			7.7 7.8 7.4 8.6 7.8	46.1 47.0 44.2 51.7 46.7	47.1 48.0 46.3 48.4 47.5	98 98 95 107 98	31.46 20.80 37.08 42.98 32.83		.689 .451 .833 .835	31.46 20.80 37.08 42.98 32.83
White goods.												
Cutters, assistant	12 6	22 9	48.5 44.1		8.1 7.3	48.5 44.1	49.4 47.8	98 92	25.46 14.10		. 523 . 319	25.46 14.10
Total	158	3,150	48.5		8.1	48.5	48.5	100	35.11		. 723	35.11

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Table 3.—AVERAGE HOURS AND EARNINGS IN THE PAPER-BOX, WOMEN'S CLOTHING, CONFECTIONERY, AND OVERALLS INDUSTRIES, BY SEX AND OCCUPATION—Continued.

Women's clothing—Concluded.

	NT	NT 1	Aver	age hours acti	aliy work	ed—	Full-	D	Avera	age earnings a	ctually m	ide—
Sex and occupation.	Number of establish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.	In weekly pay period.	In bi- weekly pay period.	Per week day.	Per week.	time hours per week.	Per cent of full- time worked	In weekly pay period.	In bi- weekly pay period.	Per hour.	Per week.
FEMALES. Children's, and house dresses and kimonos.												
 Examiners. Finishers. Folders. Deperators. Pressers. Cloaks.	26 26 7 34 23	126 106 17 1,104 154	46.5 45.5 46.2 43.5 40.6		7.8 7.8 7.7 7.7 6.8	46.5 45.5 46.2 43.5 40.6	48.8 49.0 46.5 49.1 48.9	95 93 99 89 83	\$11.15 9.77 8.28 13.29 10.78		\$0.238 .213 .179 .309 .266	\$11.15 9.77 8.28 13.29 10.78
 Assorters: Bushelers and examiners Button sewers and markers Lleaners. Lutters, assistant. Finishers. Derators. Pressers. Failors and sample makers.	25 35 8 7 50 28 2	42 76 250 23 13 670 584 19	47.7 47.1 45.3 44.6 46.8 46.8 46.5 44.8 42.4		7.9 7.8 7.6 7.4 7.8 7.7 7.3 7.1 7.4	47.7 47.1 45.3 44.6 46.8 46.5 44.8 42.4 44.3	48.3 48.1 48.6 48.0 48.0 48.4 48.1 47.8 48.2	99 98 93 93 98 96 93 89	13.89 17.00 14.39 10.24 16.20 19.31 16.85 18.53 22.10		.290 .361 .313 .230 .345 .420 .375 .437 .504	13.89 17.00 14.39 10.24 16.20 19.31 16.85 18.53 22.10
 Dresses and waists. Assorters and trimmers Deaners. Embroiderers. Examiners. Finishers. Folders and boxers. Operators. Pressers.	22 28 3 43 52 7 57	48 104 178 14 139 415 15 1,789 129	44.5 43.6 46.5 52.5 47.9 47.0 47.6 47.4		7.4 7.3 7.8 8.1 7.7 7.2 7.4 7.2 7.2	44.5 43.6 46.7 48.9 46.1 43.2 44.6 43.0 43.5	47.6 46.6 46.5 52.5 47.9 47.0 47.4 47.4	93 94 100 93 96 92 94 91	13.22 11.33 21.02 11.24 14.46 14.90 12.19 18.84 16.06		. 297 . 261 . 454 . 230 . 314 . 344 . 272 . 445 . 370	13. 22 11. 33 21. 02 11. 24 14. 46 12. 19 18. 84 16. 06

WAGES
AND
HOURS
OF
LABOR.

	White goods.		1		1	1	1	1	1		1	1	
	Assorters and lace cutters Embroiderers and ribboners Examiners Finishers Folders Operators Pressers	5 8 9 8 9 13 11	39 37 89 20 14 493 48	46.6 44.6 45.3 38.9 45.0 42.5 41.5		7.8 7.4 7.5 6.5 7.5 7.1 6.9	46.6 44.6 45.3 38.9 45.0 42.5 41.5	48. 2 48. 5 48. 7 49. 3 47. 1 49. 0 48. 2	97 92 93 79 96 87 86	11.76 12.21 10.47 8.56 7.65 14.13 15.86		.252 .276 .231 .228 .168 .331 .379	11.76 12.21 10.47 8.56 7.65 14.13 15.86
	Total	157	6,772	44.0		7.4	44.0	48.1	91	15.95		.365	15.95
					Confecti	onery.							
	MALES.												
601	Candy makers. Candy makers' helpers. Dippers, machine Laborers Machine operators. Packers Wrappers.	101 89 16 52 70 20 2	1,018 1,419 66 1,055 848 104 24	53. 5 50. 7 54. 8 51. 0 52. 4 52. 7 49. 5	92. 2 96. 8 99. 0 80. 8 83. 8 99. 0	8.9 8.5 9.1 7.9 8.6 8.8 8.3	53. 4 51. 0 54. 6 47. 4 51. 6 52. 8 49. 5	54. 5 54. 9 54. 3 53. 8 54. 0 56. 3 56. 9	98 93 101 88 96 94 87	\$24.46 15.86 19.93 16.54 18.07 16.96 17.00	\$55.60 35.16 36.00 23.72 40.77 36.00	\$0.457 .312 .358 .318 .343 .317 .360	\$24.51 15.87 19.90 16.47 18.07 16.97 17.00
10	Total	101	4, 534	51.8	89.4	8.4	50.4	54.4	93	18.44	40.07	.352	18.45
	FEMALES. Candy makers	8 31 93 70 53 30 99 60	39 209 2,628 1,408 1,025 97 5,457 1,289	44. 4 47. 3 44. 4 43. 3 44. 5 47. 0 43. 7 44. 8	86. 9 81. 3 79. 9 101. 6 81. 4 61. 5	7. 4 7. 8 7. 5 7. 2 7. 6 7. 7 7. 2 7. 2	44. 4 46. 8 45. 0 43. 2 45. 6 47. 0 43. 2 43. 2	51. 7 52. 0 50. 4 49. 9 50. 0 51. 2 49. 9 50. 6	86 90 89 87 91 92 87 85	10. 22 10. 49 11. 38 9. 35 8. 93 11. 72 9. 74 10. 16	26. 68 24. 60 15. 38 17. 96 22. 97 12. 43	. 246 . 230 . 258 . 217 . 198 . 247 . 222 . 226	10. 22 10. 66 11. 39 9. 35 8. 93 11. 72 9. 77 10. 18
	Total	101	12,152	44.1	80.9	7.3	43.8	50.1	87	10.06	22.75	+ 228	10.08

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE HOURS AND EARNINGS IN THE PAPER-BOX, WOMEN'S CLOTHING, CONFECTIONERY, AND OVERALLS INDUSTRIES, BY SEX AND OCCUPATION—Concluded.

Overalls.

	27	37	Avera	ge hours acti	ally work	ed-	Full-	D	Averag	Average earnings actually made—			
Sex and occupation.	Number of establish- ments.	Number of em- ployees.	In weekly pay period.	In bi- weekly pay period,	Per week day.	Per week.	time hours per week.	Per cent of full- time worked	In weekly pay period.	In bi- weekly pay period.	Per hour.	Per week.	
MALES.													
Cutters. Operators.	117 25	254 111	43.8 37.0	100. 6 99. 6	7. 4 6. 4	44. 4 38. 4	46. 4 45. 6	96 84	\$26.95 21.13	\$51.22 40.04	\$0.607 .551	\$26.78 21.00	
Total	119	365	38.5	100.4	7.1	42.6	46.1	92	25.10	49. 24	. 590	25. 02	
FEMALES. Examiners. Operators. Trimmers.	108 129 14	340 6,160 46	41.6 39.4 39.7	86. 7 84. 2 89. 8	7. 0 6. 7 6. 7	42. 0 40. 2 40. 2	46. 0 45. 9 47. 5	91 88 85	12.07 12.36 7.25	20. 48 20. 92 24. 92	. 285 . 306 . 205	11. 88 12. 11 7. 98	
Total	129	6, 546	39. 5	84.3	6.7	40.2	46.0	87	12.30	20.93	.304	12.00	

Report on Reclassification of Government Employees.

HE Joint Congressional Commission on Reclassification of Salaries of Federal and District Employees in the District of Columbia, which on March 12, 1920, handed in its report to Congress, was created by a rider in the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation act approved by the President March 1, 1919. The sections establishing the commission are as follows:

Section 9. That a joint commission is created to be known as the "Joint Commission on Reclassification of Salaries," which shall consist of three Senators, who are now Members of the Congress, to be appointed by the President of the Senate, and three Representatives, who are now Members of the Congress, to be appointed by the Speaker. Said commission shall submit its report and recommendations as early as possible, and, in any event, by the second Monday in January, 1920, and the members of such commission shall receive a compensation at the rate of \$625 per month, unless they are receiving other compensation from the Government. Vacancies occurring in the membership of the commission shall be filled in the same manner as the original appointments.

It shall be the duty of the commission to investigate the rates of compensation paid to civilian employees by the municipal government and the various executive departments and other governmental establishments in the District of Columbia, except the navy yard and the Postal Service, and report by bill or otherwise, as soon as practicable, what reclassification and readjustment of compensation should be made so as to provide uniform and equitable pay for the same character of employment

throughout the District of Columbia in the services enumerated.

The commission is authorized to sit during the sessions or recess of Congress, to send for persons and papers, to administer oaths, to summon and compel the attendance of witnesses, and to employ such personal services and incur such expenses as may be necessary to carry out the purposes of this section.

The heads of the various governmental services and the Commissioners of the District of Columbia shall furnish office space and equipment, detail officers and employees, furnish data and information, and make investigations whenever requested

by the commission in connection with the purposes of this section.

For payment of the expenses authorized to be incurred there is appropriated \$25,000, or so much thereof as may be necessary, to be available immediately and to be disbursed upon vouchers approved by the commission; which approval shall be conclusive upon the accounting officers of the Treasury Department

The amount of money originally granted by Congress for the use of the commission was \$25,000, but it soon became evident that this sum was not sufficient to handle the work that must be done. As a result of hearings before the Senate and House appropriations committees in June, 1919, Congress granted the commission an additional appropriation of \$50,000. The time limit originally set for the submission of the commission's report to Congress was January 12, 1920, but the commission found it impossible to complete its task by the date named. An extension of time was granted by resolution approved January 10, 1920, extending the time of the commission for filing its report to March 12, 1920.

The commission as appointed consisted of Senator Andrieus A. Jones, New Mexico, chairman; Senator Charles B. Henderson, Nevada, vice chairman; Senator Selden C. Spencer, Missouri; and Representatives Courtney W. Hamlin, of Missouri, Henry Allen Cooper, of Wisconsin, and Edward Keating, of Colorado. Its creation was due to a realization of the need for a reclassification, and especially for a standardization of positions and salaries within the Government service. There had been no general adjustment of this kind for over 50 years, and conditions were unstandardized and chaotic to an extent which roused dissatisfaction and interfered with efficiency.

Procedure of the Commission.

THE commission's first task was to secure data as to the work actually performed by the employees with whom they were to deal. For this purpose questionnaires were distributed throughout the various governmental departments, bureaus, and divisions, asking for details of the work done by the recipient, his length of service, his qualifications, salary, experience, and so on. One of these was to be filled out by each employee. To guard against a possible exaggeration of the importance of his work by some too enthusiastic worker, the questionnaire, after being filled out, was submitted for revision to the worker's official superior, who wrote what comment he considered necessary upon the employee's statement, after which it was returned to the employee, who had an opportunity to protest against his chief's judgment if he thought the situation called for such action.

By the end of May, 1919, practically all of these questionnaires, to the number of 104,000, had been filled out and returned to the Reclassification Commission, and the work of classifying the positions was begun. A small force of industrial engineers was engaged to direct the task, but for the most part the work was done by Federal employees detailed from their regular service. At the outset it was decided to classify positions, not employees, on the ground that an employee might be transferred from one job to another, but that the work of a given position should be the same, no matter who held that position. The task was a long and difficult one. Prior to the commission's appointment, there was not even a list of what and how many were the Government positions held by civilian employees in the District of Columbia. The name which a position bore had little relation to the kind of work done, and apparently the kind of work done had little relation to the salary received. The whole list of over 100,000 positions was first roughly classified into 44 different services on the basis of the general nature of the work done, and then within each service a careful classification was made,

the different jobs being grouped, on the basis of qualifications and duties, to form an ascending series from the entrance position to the head of the service. The complexity of the task was much increased by the fact that many positions involved duties falling within two or more different services, and it was often a matter of extreme difficulty to decide in what class a given position properly belonged. In order to help in this matter, and also to aid in setting suitable salary scales after classification had been accomplished, the commission secured the formation of committees of employees within each service, to whom the specifications describing the various positions within their service were submitted for criticism, and who were asked to present salary scales and arguments supporting them. Hearings gave an opportunity for arguments in all services and briefs were submitted by the interested parties—that is, by the administrative officials and the employees, either separately or jointly.

Meanwhile, an advisory committee on wage policy had been formed, consisting of three representatives of the administrative side of the Government service, three representatives of the employees, and four economists. This committee concerned itself with general policies rather than with the salaries to be affixed to given positions. Other committees took up conditions of employment other than salary, such as the matter of annual leave, sick leave, working conditions, opportunities for advancement, and the like, reporting the results of their investigations back to the Reclassification Commission.

As the work of classification proceeded, it became evident that the decision as to a fair standard of compensation required an amount of information on subjects not covered by the questionnaire which could be supplied only by special inquiries, and the Division of Economic and Employment Research was formed. One important task undertaken by this body was an investigation to secure material for a comparison between Government salaries and those paid outside for similar work. Committees consisting of representatives of the Government employees, of the administrative side of the service. and of the public were asked to recommend sources for the collection of such data, and by their help a list was prepared of establishments within the "Washington Zone," bounded by Boston on the north, Pittsburgh on the west, and Richmond on the south, which would fairly represent conditions among the better class of employers outside of the Government service. Agents to conduct the investigation were detailed from different Government agencies. As soon as the reclassification staff had prepared specifications setting forth the duties of given positions and the qualifications required to fill them, the agents were given these specifications and sent out to secure

from the selected employers data as to the wages, hours, necessary qualifications, vacation and sick leave privileges, etc., of their employees in similar positions. Some 3,200 schedules were gathered in this way, covering over 35,000 different employees. This material was tabulated so as to show the minimum, the maximum, and the weighted average salary paid for these outside positions, and was presented for the consideration of the commission, together with a similar tabulation of the salaries paid within the Government for corresponding positions.

The report submitted by the reclassification Commission will be discussed in later issues of the Monthly Labor Review. Its most important points are the definition and classification of the Government positions which it presents, its provision for advancement on the basis of proved efficiency after the service has been entered, its plan for promotion from one class to another, its definite relation of a specified salary to specified duties, its recommendation for a continuing body to administer its provisions, and its suggestion for the creation of an advisory council to act with the administrative body in interpreting and applying the different provisions. Its salary recommendations are conservative; on the whole, they represent an increase, though this does not hold true without exception. A standard annual leave of 30 days is recommended, this to be a matter of right, not favor; and the employee is entitled to appeal if it is denied him. On the other hand, the annual amount of sick leave is cut to 10 days, but this may be cumulative to the amount of 60 days.

Average Wages of Farm Labor in the United States in 1918 and 1919.

A T NO other time since 1866, when the first investigation of this subject was made by the Bureau of Crop Estimates, United States Department of Agriculture, were the wages rates of farm labor so high in this country as they were in 1919. Averages for the United States are in mind, and not local rates. For labor hired by the month with board, the average rate was \$39.82, and among the geographical divisions the average was as low as \$30.54 in the South Atlantic and as high as \$62.96 in the Western, including the Mountain and Pacific States. Without board, the average for the United States was \$56.29, and the lowest was \$44.03 in the South Atlantic division and the highest, \$87.12, in the Western division. Extras, such as firewood, milk, etc., are not included.

¹ From Weekly News Letter, Feb. 4, 1920. Department of Agriculture, Washington.

Harvest wages per day with board reached the top figure of \$4.48 in the North Central States west of the Mississippi River and the lowest figure of \$2.28 in the South Atlantic States, and the United States average was \$3.15. Without board, the United States average of \$3.83 was most exceeded by \$5.33 in the former States, while the latter States had the lowest average, \$2.82.

Statements in similar form for day wages for work outside of harvest with board make the United States average \$2.45, that of the North Central States west of the Mississippi River \$3.22 and of the South Atlantic States \$1.85; the rates without board, in the same order, were \$3.12, \$4.03, and \$2.39.

The following table gives a comparison of the wages received by farm labor in 1918 and 1919, with per cent of increase in 1919 over 1918:²

WAGES OF FARM LABOR IN 1918 AND 1919, SHOWING PER CENT OF INCREASE IN 1919.

	Month	ly wages.	Daily wages, at harvest.		Daily wages, not at harvest.	
Year.	With board.	With- out board.	With board.	With- out board.	With board.	With- out board.
1918. 1919. Per cent of increase in 1919	\$34.92 39.82 14.02	\$47.07 56.29 19.59	\$2.65 3.15 18.87	\$3.20 3.83 19.69	\$2.07 2.45 18.36	\$2.63 3.12 18.63

Earnings in Manufacturing Industries in New York State, December, 1914 and 1916 to 1919.

New York State in December of each year 1914 to 1919, except 1915, are tabulated in the December issue of the Labor Market Bulletin, published by the New York State Industrial Commission. The following table reproduces these figures by industries, so far as they apply to the State as a whole, with average figures for industries in New York City alone and for industries in the State outside of New York City. In order to determine at a glance the extent of the increase of earnings in 1919 over earnings in 1914, a column showing these increases in terms of per cent has been added to the table; this column does not appear in the original table. A comparison of earnings of New York State factory workers and retail prices of food appeared in the February issue of the Monthly Labor Review (p. 128).

² Data taken from Crop Reporter for December, 1919. Department of Agriculture, Washington.

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN DECEMBER, 1914 AND 1916 TO 1919, IN FACTORIES OF NEW YORK STATE. $^{\rm 1}$

	Average weekly earnings in December—						
Industry.	1914	1916	1917	1918	1919	cent of in- crease 1919 over 1914.	
Stone, clay, and glass products. Miscellaneous stone and mineral products. Lime, cement, and plaster. Brick, tile, and pottery. Glass. detals, machinery, and conveyances. Gold, silver, and precious stones. Brass, copper, aluminum, etc. Pig iron and rolling-mill products. Structural and architectural ironwork. Sheet-metal work and hardware. Firearms, tools, and cutlery.	\$13.94	\$16.16	\$18,32	\$25, 30	\$26, 33	88.	
Miscellaneous stone and mineral products	18. 47	18.42	19.64	26.35	28. 28	53.	
Lime, cement, and plaster	13.38	16. 52	18.16	27.32	27. 21	103.	
Brick, tile, and pottery	11.53	13. 73	16. 19	21. 81	23. 31	102.	
Glass	14. 23	15.89	18. 53	25. 27	26. 16 29. 08	83.	
Cold silver and precious stones	14. 24	18.11	20. 84 18. 99	27. 39 26. 52	32. 95	104. 131.	
Brass copper aluminum etc	12. 73	18. 10 17. 32	18. 62	25. 45	26. 68	109.	
Pig iron and rolling-mill products	16. 63	21.76	27.70	37.97	36.36	118.	
Structural and architectural ironwork	15.31	17.98	20.50	30. 21	32.75	113.	
Sheet-metal work and hardware	12. 20	14.50	17. 24	22.44	24. 80	103.	
Firearms, tools, and cutlery	13.07	18.78	20.90	24. 01	25. 63 31. 65	96. 128.	
Cooking, nearing, and ventuating apparatus	12 06	17. 94 17. 73	21. 12 19. 85	27. 47 25. 22	28. 26	102.	
Automobiles carriages and airplanes	18.07	19. 13	21.69	26. 55	29. 89	65.	
Cars, locomotives, and railway repair shops	14.34	19. 28	23.10	34. 07	31.17	117.	
Boat and ship building	16.16	21.11	22.98	32.01	37.57	132.	
Sheet-metal work and hardware. Firearms, tools, and cutlery. Cooking, heating, and ventilating apparatus. Machinery (including electrical apparatus). Automobiles, carriages, and airplanes. Cars, locomotives, and railway repair shops. Boat and ship building. Instruments and appliances. Wood manufactures. Sawmill and planing-mill products. Furniture and cabinetwork. Pianos, organs, and other musical instruments. Miscellaneous wood and allied products. Furs, leather, and rubber goods. Leather. Furs and fur goods. Boots and shoes. Miscellaneous leather and canvas goods.	13.40	16.17	17.58	21. 25	24. 90	85.	
Wood manufactures	12.50	14.98	16.70	20. 97	24.07	92. 106.	
Sawmill and planing-mill products	12.06	14.35 15.22	16. 19 17. 22	21. 11 20. 91	24. 92 24. 76	94.	
Pianos organs and other musical instruments	14.70	17. 33	18.30	22. 53	22. 02	54.	
Miscellaneous wood and allied products	10. 81	12.77	14. 92	19. 52	23.75	119.	
Furs, leather, and rubber goods	11.88	14.86	16.75	22.19	25. 95	118.	
Leather	11.04	15.48	18. 21 22. 03	22.57	25. 42	130.	
Furs and fur goods	14.13	16.67	22.03	29.80	34. 23	142.	
Boots and shoes	12. 52	15. 50 13. 52	17. 20 14. 57	23. 46 18. 55	26. 69 24. 87	113. 126.	
Miscellaneous leather and canvas goods	10. 93	14. 09	15. 97	19. 91	24. 52	124.	
Miscellaneous leather and canvas goods. Rubber and gutta percha goods Pearl, horn, bone, celluloid, hair, etc. Chemicals, oils, paints, etc. Drugs and chemicals Paints, dyes, and colors Animal and mineral oil products. Miscellaneous chemical products. Paner	9. 62	12. 23	13.79	17.86	20.36	111.	
Chemicals, oils, paints, etc	13.64	16.02	18.00	21.81	25.47	86. 72.	
Drugs and chemicals	14.57	15. 13	16.68	19.97	25.06	72.	
Paints, dyes, and colors	14.43	15.37	16.43	21.66	24.36	68.	
Animal and mineral oil products	13.35 13.17	16.39 16.41	19. 03 17. 96	22. 91 21. 89	25. 85 25. 55	93. 94.	
Papar	13. 32	16.19	18.96	25. 52	27.35	105.	
Paper Printing and paper goods. Paper boxes and tubes. Miscellaneous paper goods. Printing and book making	15.16	16.42	17.85	22.69	28.41	87.	
Paper boxes and tubes	10.59	12.31	13.03	22. 69 17. 62	21.42	87. 102.	
Miscellaneous paper goods	11.75	13. 24	14.69	18.38	23.02	95.	
Printing and book making.	17.03	17.97	19.42	24.66	30.80	80.	
Pextiles.	9. 47 9. 20	11.91	13.61	17. 21	21.06 18.60	122. 102.	
Wool manufactures	9. 20	10.73 12.47	12. 19 14. 91	15. 50 17. 62	23, 21	134	
Cotton goods	9. 61	13.15	14.88	19.44	23. 26	142	
Cotton and woolen hosiery and knit goods	8.93	11.16	12.73	16.27	18.83	110.	
Other textiles and allied products	10.20	12.76	14. 23	18.93	22.74	122.	
Clothing, millinery, laundering, etc	10.00	12.15	13.72	16.45	24. 23	142.	
Printing and book making. Practiles. Silk and silk goods. Wool manufactures. Cotton goods. Cotton and woolen hosiery and knit goods. Other textiles and allied products. Clothing, millinery, laundering, etc. Men's clothing. Men's shirts and furnishings. Women's clothing. Women's underwear and furnishings. Women's underwear and furnishings. Women's headwear.	11. 02 8. 51	13.15	15.78	18.77 13.13	30.17 18.34	173. 115.	
Women's clothing	12. 24	14. 21	11. 58 15. 75	19.55	27 27	122	
Women's underwear and furnishings	8.18	10. 28	11.40	14. 43	27. 27 18. 74	129.	
Women's headwear	10.92	13.66	16.88	19.12	24.89	127.	
Miscellaneous sewing	8.36	9.12	9.53	12.89	17.67	111.	
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, etc	8.86	10.40	11.51	14.96	18.10	104.	
Food, beverages, and tobacco	11.72	13.70	15.37	20. 25 24. 71	23.59	101.	
Fruit and vegetable canning and preserving	9 62	16.38 11.32	19. 44 12. 43	17. 54	27.39 20.12	109	
Groceries not elsewhere classified.	13, 20	14.47	17. 53	21. 92	26. 24	98	
Slaughtering, meat packing, and dairy products	14.88	17. 23	19.42	26.41	28, 33	90.	
Bread and other bakery products	11.19	13.47	15. 31	21.48	23. 61	110.	
w omen's neadwear Miscellaneous sewing. Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, etc. Food, beverages, and tobacco. Flour, feed, and other cereal products Fruit and vegetable canning and preserving. Groceries not elsewhere classified. Slaughtering, meat packing, and dairy products. Bread and other bakery products. Confectionery and ice cream. Beverages	9.64	10.82	12.00	14.94	18.34	90. 49.	
Beverages. Cigars and other tobacco products	18.58	19.77	21.32	27. 19	27. 83 21. 15	190	
Cigars and other tobacco products Water, light, and power	8. 96 15. 48	11. 53 17. 45	12. 58 20. 62	16.30 26.89	31.00	136.	
	Production of the						
Average, all factories in the State Factories in New York City Factories outside New York City	12. 56 12. 81	15. 51 14. 93	17. 71 16. 61	23. 18 22. 11	26. 32 27. 58	109	
	12. 40	15. 83	18.32	23. 77	25, 63	106	

¹ Includes all employees in both office and shop. It is commonly the case that office salaries are higher than the average earnings of shop employees. However, the office employees form such a small percentage of the total number of workers that their effect, in the computation of the average earnings, is negligible.

Changes in Wages and Hours of Labor in Great Britain.

HE increasing extent to which wages have been advanced and the reduction that has taken place in the number of hours of work are indicated in returns issued on December 19 by the British Ministry of Labor, according to a report from the American consul general at London, published in Commerce Reports (Washington) for January 9, 1920.

Additions granted during the month of November added substantially £480,000 (\$2,335,920, par) to the weekly wages of approximately 1,900,000 workpeople, and during the first 11 months of 1919 5,343,000 people secured increases aggregating £1,908,900 (\$9,289,662, par) weekly, or nearly £100,000,000 (\$486,650,000, par) per annum. The largest number of workpeople affected was in the engineering and shipbuilding trades, namely, 1,329,000, or 24.9 per cent; and the largest wage advance was given to coal miners, namely, £587.000 (\$2,856,636, par), or 30.8 per cent of the total.

The report states that announcement has been made of awards of the court of arbitration concerning the applications of electrical workers and of farriers employed by the London County Council, the corporations of Croydon and Wimbledon and other urban districts, and the various electrical supply companies and tramway undertakings in the metropolitan area who demanded an increase of 15s. (\$3.65, par) per week. Under these awards electrical workers 18 years of age and over and electrical operators working on railroads within the London district have been given an advance of 5s. (\$1.22, par) per week. The farriers, who claimed 3s. (73 cents, par) per day more have been given 1s. 6d. (36.5 cents, par), while firemen's pay has been advanced to 13s. 9d. (\$3.35, par), and doormen's to 13s. 2d. (\$3.20, par) per day.

Beginning with April 1, 1920, according to a ruling by the London County Council, senior superintendents of the fire brigade will receive £575 (\$2,797.24, par) per annum, rising to £625 (\$3,041.56, par); superintendents, £475 (\$2,311.59, par); subofficers, £5 10s. (\$26.77. par) per week. Firemen will commence with £3 10s. (\$17.03, par), rising to £4 8s. (\$21.41, par), and, subject to passing an examination,

to £4 13s. (\$22.63, par) per week.

The consul general further reports that in November, 1919, 30,000 workpeople had their hours of labor reduced on an average of three hours each, or 90,000 hours for the month, and that the changes effected in this respect during the first 11 months of 1919 aggregated 36,211,000 fewer working hours, the number of workpeople affected totaling 5,479,000.

MINIMUM WAGE.

Minimum Wages in the District of Columbia.

HE Minimum Wage Board of the District of Columbia has presented its second annual report, covering its first real activities. The law went into effect in September, 1918, the wage board being appointed in the following month. The first order fixing wages bears the date of June 13, 1919, so that the subject matter presented

is really that of a new organization.

A striking fact in connection with the enactment of the minimum wage law for the District was the friendly attitude of the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association. No opposition to the law was ever offered, and the board states that whatever success has been attained in the administration of the law "is due in no small measure to the active cooperation of the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association." Organized labor likewise favored the enactment of the law and has been active in its support. The position of the District board is therefore unique in a number of respects. Both parties affected by the law have favored it from the beginning, and the District officials and the public have shown cordial sympathy with it at all times. Employers have served freely on the conferences, appointing therefor their strongest representatives; employees have been willing and eager to serve, hotly contested elections being held to determine nominees for positions on the conferences; and only two persons considered as representatives of the public have refused to serve, and then only by reason of pressure of other work. The area served by the District board is restricted, making for homogeneity of conditions and ease of administration. It is estimated that about 15,700 women come under the law.

Surveys have been made in three groups of industries, the first covering printing, publishing, and allied industries, employing about 900 women; the second covering mercantile employment, with about 7,000 women; and the third including the hotels, restaurants, and allied industries, with about 2,500 females employed. Wage surveys were made in each group, covering in all 7,563 women. The following table shows the conditions existing at the time of the investigations:

¹ Second annual report of the Minimum Wage Board of the District of Columbia for the year ending Dec. 31, 1919. Washington, 1920, 60 pp. The full text of the law is given in the Monthly Labor Review for October, 1918, pp. 171–181.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WOMAN WORKERS RECEIVING EACH CLASSIFIED WEEKLY RATE, BY INDUSTRY.

Number.

	Woman workers whose rate of wages per week were—									
Industry.	Under \$9.	\$9 and under \$10.	\$10 and under \$11.	\$11 and under \$12.	\$12 and under \$13.	\$13 and under \$14.	\$14 and under \$15.	\$15 and under \$16.	\$16 and over.	Total.
Printing, publishing, and al- lied industries. Mercantile industry Hotel, restaurant, and allied industries.	25 452 113	24 226 177	82 620 78	38 112 39	107 968 262	68 125 88	29 280 205	91 640 338	281 1,186 909	745 4,609 2,209
			Per o	cent.						
Printing, publishing, and allied industries. Mercantile industry. Hotel, restaurant, and allied	3. 4 9. 8	3. 2 4. 9	11. 0 13. 5	5. 1 2. 4	14. 4 21. 0	9. 1 2. 7	3. 9 6. 1	12. 2 13. 9	37. 7 25. 7	100. 0 100. 0
industries	5.1	8.0	3.5	1.8	11.9	4.0	9.3	15.3	41.1	100.

In arriving at the wages of hotel, etc., employees, allowances were made where board and lodging were provided, and it is the opinion of the board that the actual wage situation in these industries is not accurately disclosed by the table, but is as bad as in the other two groups, if not worse. The allowance of \$6 for board and \$3 for room is believed to be too high for the type of accommodations furnished. The fact that in a recent investigation of the cost of living of wage-earning women in the District of Columbia by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics it had been found that \$16 was approximately the necessary standard for a living wage, led to the adoption by the board of this amount as a tentative minimum cost of living figure.

The lowest percentage of women receiving \$16 or more per week was found in the 5 and 10 cent stores, where but 5.9 per cent of the women were thus paid. Marked differences in wage rates between stores of the same type were found, and also a wide range within an individual establishment. In fact standardization seemed to be entirely lacking and even avoided. "It was a general practice in stores to instruct the new employee that she must on no account tell her fellow workers what wage she was receiving, and these secrets were apparently well kept." This made it possible to pay different amounts for the same kind of work, and also for the aggressive individual to secure an advance, while "the woman who did not ask for a raise seldom received one." There was a greater uniformity in the hotel and restaurant industries.

Conferences representing employers, employees, and the public in equal numbers (three of each) were held for each industry considered. Representatives of employers and employees were chosen by the persons interested, six names to be submitted, from which the board selected three, designating also the chairman of the conference. The conference on printing, publishing, and allied industries held its initial meeting on March 4, 1919, and met weekly until April 8, 1919, at which time it adopted a report recommending the minimum rate of \$15.50 per week, with provisions for learners. A public hearing was held on June 14, 1919, but no protest being submitted, the rate was promulgated to take effect on August 13, 1919. The rate fixed is applicable to experienced females, by which term is meant one who has been employed in the industry one year or more. Learners are to be paid not less than \$8 per week for the first three months, \$9 per week for the second three months, not less than \$11 per week for the third three months, and not less than \$12 per week for the fourth three

months, after which the established minimum is payable.

The mercantile board held 10 meetings between May 21 and July 12, and recommended a wage for experienced women of \$16.50 per week. The difference between the two rates was said to be due to the fact that women in the printing trades could wear aprons and less expensive clothing at work, while the greater majority of the mercantile employees must present a proper appearance to the public. Learners 18 years of age or more must receive not less than \$12.50 per week for the first three months of employment, and not less than \$14.50 for the following four months, after which time they are to be considered experienced workers. A rate for learners under 18 was also fixed, but was protested by the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association as being too nearly the same as for adults. The question of providing a lower rate was earnestly discussed, employers arguing that the high wage offered would act as an incentive to minors to leave school, but that they would be thrown out of employment when the expiration of the learning period would require the payment of the full minimum rate. The labor representative on the board, on the other hand, argued that a high wage would discourage employers, preventing the hiring of minors, so that they would remain in school until a more mature age when the minimum would be actually earned. A compromise measure was adopted, however, reducing the rate for minors under 18 and providing for an entrance rate of not less than \$10 for the first four months of employment, of not less than \$11.50 for the next four months and of not less than \$14.50 for the following 6 months, after which not less than \$16 per week should be paid until the age of 18 is reached. No time served prior to the sixteenth birthday is to be considered as experience in determining the minimum wage.

As already indicated, good administration has been facilitated by the cooperation of all parties affected. But few violations of the law have been found, and no proceedings have been instituted therefor. Collections have been made through the board where less than the legal rates were paid, amounting to \$186.96, ranging in amounts from \$137 to \$8. Learners' certificates are used, and these are found to be of great value as protecting both the employers and the employees. Some experienced workers have been found who attempted to begin service in other places as learners on account of difficulty in securing employment at the minimum rate. The employer is liable to be penalized if he gives employment to such persons, therefore the learner's certificate, on which the applicant must enter all prior service, is his best safeguard.

Licenses for substandard workers are provided for, of which 51 have been issued, nearly all (48) being in the mercantile industry. Of the total, 45 were for women whose capacity had been impaired by age, 3 were to subnormal girls, and 3 were for short periods to women whose present physical condition would not permit regular work.

The effects of the law have been for too short a time under observation to make final conclusions possible. However, there has been a definite increase in the amount of wages paid, without any considerable replacement of women by men. There has also been a tendency to raise wages in other industries for which no orders have been issued, since the mercantile rate of \$16.50 affects such a large proportion of the employed women of the District. The contention that the minimum tends to become the maximum is disproved by the experience thus far developed. Some degree of hardship has resulted in the case of women incapable of measuring up to the higher standards necessitated by the higher costs of service. This situation affects the District of Columbia the more seriously since there are so few occupations available to women seeking employment. Factories are few, and the positions generally available require at least a woman of ordinary ability to compete successfully. The special license is a partial solution, but leaves the substandard worker without a living wage. However, it is felt that the substandard worker must be cared for in some other way, and that the minimum wage law fills its purpose well in securing an adequate basis of support for the vast majority of workers for whom these provisions are made.

Minimum Wages for Women in Certain Industries in British Columbia.

A CCORDING to the Canada Labor Gazette for February (pp. 169, 170), the British Columbia Minimum Wage Board has recently issued orders fixing minimum wages for women in the fishing industry and in the fruit and vegetable industry. These orders were effective February 28, 1920, and follows.

Fishing Industry.

The minimum wage for every experienced female in this industry who is of the age of 18 years or over (except women to whom a special license may be issued under section 10 of the Minimum Wage Act) shall be at the rate of \$15.50 per week. The minimum wage for every inexperienced female who is of the age of 18 years or over (except women to whom a special license may be issued) shall be at the following rate: Not less than \$12.75 for the first four months, \$13.75 for the second four months, and \$14.75 for the third four months.

The fishing industry is defined as including the work of females engaged in the washing, preparing, preserving, drying, curing, smoking, packing, or otherwise adapting for sale or use, or for shipment, any kind of fish except in the case of canned fish. An "experienced female employee" is one who has worked in the fishing industry for a period of at least 12 months, while an "inexperienced employee" means one who has worked in the fishing industry for a period of less than 12 months.

Fruit and Vegetable Industry.

The minimum wage for every experienced female employee engaged in the fruit and vegetable industry, who is of the age of 18 years or over (except women to whom a special license may be issued), and who is employed on a time-rate basis, shall be the sum of \$14 for a week of 48 hours. The minimum wage for every inexperienced female in this industry, who is of the age of 18 years or over, and is employed on a time-rate basis, shall be the sum of \$10 a week for the first month, \$11 a week for the second month, and \$12 a week for the third month. Where payment of wages is made on a piece-rate basis instead of a time-rate basis in the preparation of any product, the minimum piece rates shall be such as will produce the wages mentioned above. In an emergency period the hours of labor for an employee may be extended to 10 hours a day or up to 60 hours in any one week. The minimum wage for an employee during the time of labor in any day in excess of eight hours, and up to and including 10 hours a day, shall be such as will produce a wage of 30 cents an hour. The minimum wage, whether on time-rate basis or a piece-rate basis, for an experienced female employee who is of the age of 18 years or over, during the time of labor in any day in excess of 10 hours, shall be such as will produce a wage of 45 cents an hour.

The Labor Gazette states that in this order the expression "fruit and vegetable industry" includes the work of females engaged in canning, preserving, drying, packing, or otherwise adapting for sale or use, any kind of fruit or vegetable. "Experienced female employee" is defined as a female who has worked in the industry for at least three months, while an "inexperienced female employee" is one who has had less than three months' experience. "Emergency period" means a period of 90 days in any 12 months during which the hours of labor for female employees may be extended.

COOPERATION.

Consumers' Cooperative Wholesale Societies in the United States.

By FLORENCE E. PARKER.

NE writer on the cooperative movement states that "the test of a really established movement, undoubtedly, is the existence of a federation." If this is true, the cooperative movement in the United States is established, or is rapidly becoming so.

During the past few years the number of cooperative enterprises has increased rapidly. No statistics relative to the extent of the movement are available. The Cooperative League of America estimates, however, that of consumers' societies alone there are probably 3,000 in the United States, with a membership of over 500,000.² The combined buying power of these societies is placed at about

\$200,000,000 yearly.3

The isolated independent cooperative store is, nevertheless, at a great disadvantage in its purchasing. It can not, by itself, compete very successfully with the large department stores or chain-store systems, because it can not hope to obtain, on its small orders, the low prices obtained by the latter on their enormous ones. Leaders in the cooperative movement have long realized the advantages of a whole-sale society, and as a result of their efforts there are now in existence a number of district wholesale societies formed during the past decade. Of recent years, however, a movement has been under way looking toward federation along national lines. This plan took shape during the First American Cooperative Convention held in September, 1918, at Springfield, Ill., in the organization of the National Cooperative Association. This step was taken with the idea that the national body would take over the operation of the district wholesales as soon as this could be done without disturbing their functioning.

Organization was perfected, offices and a warehouse were secured in Chicago, and the National Cooperative Association began operations about the 1st of November, 1919. Branch wholesale warehouses have been established at Seattle, Wash., and Hoboken, N. J. It is planned

¹ Albert Sonnichsen: Consumers' Cooperation. New York, Macmillan Co., 1919, p. 62.

² The story of cooperation, published by Cooperative League of America, 2 West Thirteenth Street, New York, 1919. p. 15.

³ Estimated by National Cooperative Association, Chicago.

to establish additional wholesales at Los Angeles, Kansas City, Omaha, Denver, and other points.

At the first annual meeting of the association held March 15, 1920, the word "wholesale" was added to the name of the association.

Following is a directory of the National Cooperative Wholesale Association and the district wholesales:

National Cooperative Wholesale Association, Main Office, 342 River Street, Chi-

National Cooperative Wholesale Association, Northwestern Branch, 1206-1208 Western Avenue, Seattle, Wash.

National Cooperative Wholesale Association, New York Branch, 1113-1115 Clinton Street, Hoboken, N. J.

District cooperative wholesales.

Cooperative Wholesale Co., 236 Commercial Street, San Francisco, Calif. Cooperative Wholesale Society of America, Pioneer Bldg., St. Paul, Minn. Cooperative Central Exchange, Superior, Wis. Central States Cooperative Society, 612 Missouri Avenue, East St. Louis, Ill. Tri-State Cooperative Association, 39 Terminal Way, Pittsburgh, Pa.

Organization and Purposes of the Wholesale Society.

THE wholesale association performs for its members, the retail societies, the same function that the latter perform for their members; the local society saves the profit of the retailer, the federated society saves the profit of the commission merchant and jobber. The following description of the benefits derived from the English Cooperative Wholesale Society by its members would apply equally to a similar society established in this country:

It was not of marked benefit to the larger societies, which were already able to buy in big quantities and deal independently with manufacturers and agricultural producers, but the majority of them joined through the enthusiasm of their leading members. It was to the smaller units of the movement that the wholesale came, often as a saving institution. First of all, it solved the discouraging problem of buying on the wholesale market, a difficulty especially terrifying to amateurs. It saved also the expense of buying; not only the higher salaries which must be paid men with such ability, but the time which they must devote to this function. It was far better able to insure quality and purity, since it could afford to employ men who were experts in judging. Its growing purchasing power could enable it to obtain better bargains; this, of course, was one of the chief arguments in its favor. It saved the stores the profits of the middlemen. Finally, it encouraged the formation of new societies, thereby providing a stimulus for the further expansion of the movement, for it eliminated many of the important causes of failure.4

The plan of organization of the cooperative wholesale societies in the United States follows that of the cooperative retail associations 5 and is substantially as follows:

1. Membership is usually restricted to cooperative organizations conducted on the Rochdale plan and to cooperative buying clubs, though individuals are sometimes admitted. Organizations operating for profit are excluded.

Albert Sonnichsen: Consumers' Cooperation. New York, Macmillan Co., 1919. pp. 33, 34.
 For a detailed discussion of the retail cooperative stores and the plan under which they operate, see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, March, 1920, pp. 138 to 145.

2. Capital investment required of each local association ranges from \$100 to \$1,000. In some instances the sum varies with the size of the local societies.

3. Retail organizations are entitled to be represented at the meetings of the wholesale by one or more delegates chosen from their membership, the number being either absolute or based on the size of the society. The affairs of the wholesale society are managed by a board of seven or nine directors elected either from the delegates or from the members of the constituent stores.

4. Business is conducted on a cash basis, at prevailing wholesale prices, and savings are returned to member associations on the basis of patronage.

The cooperative wholesale society as found in the United States differs in one important respect from the English cooperative wholesale society. The English wholesale is purely a federation of independent local associations. The American type of wholesale society is not so much a federated as a centralized society, having both wholesale and retail activities, with final control of the retail branches remaining in the wholesale society. In this type of society, the retail stores have less independence than is the case in England. The societies studied diverge from the federated type in varying degree, however, as will be seen from the descriptions given later in this article.

The question of the degree of control which should be exercised by the wholesale society over its members is a matter of some controversy among leaders in the movement in the United States. The Cooperative League of America is the chief critic of this centralization of power.

Educational Work.

One of the main services a wholesale may perform is along the lines of educational work. To this end the societies studied annually appropriate from the savings an amount ranging up to 10 per cent of the savings after deduction of interest to be paid on capital stock. The societies use this fund to furnish information, literature, lectures, stereopticon slides or even moving pictures on the cooperative movement. Most of them publish weekly or monthly magazines for the benefit of their members.

Bookkeeping and auditing service.—The wholesale society may be of especial service in introducing a satisfactory and uniform system of bookkeeping and auditing. Lack of such a system has been a potent cause of failure of cooperative stores. It is interesting, therefore, to note what the wholesale societies studied are doing in this respect. In two of the societies—the Pacific Cooperative League and the Tri-State Cooperative Association—the bookkeeping of the local associations is done at the central office of the wholesale, as is also the auditing of the association's accounts. The Cooperative Wholesale Society of America requires that its member stores install a certain system of accounting. They may have their bookkeeping and

⁶ The Scottish Wholesale Society bases representation on members' purchases through the society. So far as is known, no wholesale society in the United States follows this practice.

auditing done by the society, but this is not required. The Cooperative Central Exchange furnishes assistance in installing, but does not require, a uniform system of accounting. It also furnishes auditing service. The Central States Cooperative Society does not require any particular system of bookkeeping nor does it supply this or auditing service to its members. It has, however, issued a form which it recommends and which, it is stated, is "quite generally used" by the affiliated associations.

Courses in cooperation.—The Tri-State Cooperative Society, as a part of its educational work, is opening a school of cooperation whose first session will be held from January 30 to June 11, 1920. The purpose is "to begin general educational work in the interest of the cooperative movement in all its aspects and to afford specific training to prospective workers in the various departments of cooperative enterprise." Two courses are offered, the first, "Store management"—including such topics as cooperative advertising, organization of working force, systematization of business and delivery service, elements of accounting, sources of waste, standards of efficiency, etc.—open only to persons expecting to seek positions in the cooperative movement or already holding such positions, and the second, "Scientific principles of cooperation," open to "all persons of serious interests."

A short course in cooperation, attended by about 40 students, was given by the Cooperative Central Exchange in 1919 and plans are being made for giving a similar course this year.

National Cooperative Wholesale Association and Its Branches.

As S HAS been said, the National Cooperative Wholesale Association was organized at the first National Cooperative Congress held at Springfield, Ill., in September, 1918, but did not begin operations until about the 1st of November, 1919. The association is incorporated, under the laws of Wisconsin, for \$1,000,000, divided into 10,000 shares of \$100 each. Only cooperative associations organized on the Rochdale plan are eligible to membership. Each member society must subscribe for three shares for each one hundred (or major fraction thereof) of its members; for every 500 members it is entitled to a delegate to represent it at the meetings of the association. Under an amendment just adopted (Mar. 15, 1920), hereafter an association applying for membership will be required to subscribe to the wholesale a sum equal to 25 per cent of its capital stock.

The association has its general office and a five-story wholesale warehouse in Chicago, and branches in Seattle and Hoboken.

The president's annual report states that on March 15, 1920, 167 cooperative stores were affiliated with the national body.⁷ The mem-

⁷ National Cooperative News, Chicago, Mar. 27, 1920.

bership of the National Cooperative Association will of course be greatly increased with the taking over of each of the district wholesales, with its affiliated societies.

The affairs of the association are managed by a board of seven ⁸ directors, one being elected from each of the seven principal cooperative districts. Three of these directors serve respectively as president, vice president, and secretary-treasurer.

The association has established an organization department that is assisting in organizing, on the chain-store plan, stores in the dis-

trict of each of the branch wholesale societies.

The association has been established too short a time for one to judge of its success. The report of the first two months' operations, however, showed a volume of business amounting to over \$150,000, and a net gain of over \$5,000, which will be returned to the member

societies on the basis of patronage.

The president of the association states that the association plans to cooperate in its purchasing, with the various producers' cooperative organizations in the effort to "bridge the gap between producer and consumer without profit or profiteering." Cooperative stores tributary to Chicago, New York, and Seattle are being supplied from the warehouses of the cooperative wholesale associations at each of these points. The wholesale society is handling the product of the cooperative milk condensary at Tolt, Wash. It is stated that arrangements have been made with the new cooperative salmon cannery at Port Angeles, Wash., by which the wholesale society will act as agent for the sale of the cannery's entire output. The National Association is also cooperating with the Railroad Brotherhoods in the sale of the products of their newly acquired clothing factories. The product of a cooperative cigar factory in Chicago is handled by the wholesale society.

Carrying out the policy of cooperators to deal with cooperators wherever possible, the National Cooperative Association has placed orders with the English Cooperative Wholesale Society at Manchester, for a supply of woolen cloth.⁹

The National Association is a member of the International Co-

operative Alliance.

District Cooperative Wholesale Societies.

Pacific Cooperative League.

THE center of the cooperative movement in California is the Pacific Cooperative League, with headquarters and a wholesale company, the Cooperative Wholesale Co., in San Francisco. The league was formed in 1913 in the attempt to save the situation created by

⁸ This number was increased to nine on Mar. 15, 1920. ⁹ Nati6nal Cooperative News, Chicago, Feb. 14, 1920.

the failure of an earlier movement begun about 18 years ago. The failure of these early stores is laid to "lack of mutual support; lack of experience and education in cooperation; lack of friendly wholesale facilities."

Membership in the Pacific Cooperative League is open to cooperative stores, organized clubs, firms, and corporations on payment of \$5 entrance fee, \$100 share capital, and \$900 loan capital. In order that individuals may enjoy the trading, social, and educational features of the league without assuming the liabilities of the regular member, provision is made for "associate" memberships. Associate members pay \$5, which entitles them to the advantages the league offers, as long as they take "continuous advantage" of them.

Though no attempt is made by the league to induce established stores to affiliate, the feeling being that it is better for the stores themselves to take the initiative, many stores, realizing the advantages of federation, have joined the league. A large number of these stores, on affiliation, are not solvent and have to be carried "on probation" until they become so. In these cases the league takes over their bookkeeping and does their buying, and is generally able to reestablish them financially.

Organization work is an important part of the league's activities. Stores are organized, however, only when the cooperative spirit is sufficiently strong and widespread to give a reasonable assurance of success. According to the secretary of the league, in the "average community," 200 members, each subscribing from \$35 to \$50 for capital and organization expense, are required.

Each store has local autonomy. It makes its own by-laws, and elects its own directors and a representative to serve on the Central Board of Delegates of the league. From these delegates are elected the seven directors who form the Central Board of Directors which manages the affairs of the league. The manager of the store, however, is selected by the league.

Each store declares its own dividends on purchases, after fulfilling certain requirements of the league as to interest on shares, and reserve and educational funds. It is hoped that as the business methods become more established dividends may be made uniform for all stores under the league, as has been done in the case of the cooperative stores within the city of Seattle and by the Tri-State Association in its stores.

Individuals, members of an association, are permitted transfer privileges to another association, and any member removing from the vicinity of a store entirely becomes a member at large for life,

¹⁰ Pacific Cooperator, San Francisco, October, 1919, p. 9.

¹¹ When the membership exceeds 250 it may subscribe for another membership share and contribute another \$900 loan capital, thus becoming entitled to a second delegate to the Central Board of Delegates.

and is entitled to buy direct from the nearest wholesale or other center at wholesale prices.

The branches are required to conform to certain strict business requirements. Thus, expenses may not be paid out of capital stock. but only from actual earnings on sales. This is stated to be no hardship where, as is required by the league, a store starts with a sufficient

number of members and subscriptions for capital shares.

A centralized form of bookkeeping is in operation under which, it is estimated, the cost is about one-third the cost where each store does its own bookkeeping. There is, of course, the additional advantage of assured efficiency in bookkeeping. The charge made by the league for this service varies from \$15 to \$50 per month, according to the amount of business done by the store. Regular audits and inventories are made, and monthly meetings are held at each store. The buying is all done by the wholesale company of the league.

The league's operations, begun in California, have gradually extended into Arizona and New Mexico. It was reported that on October 6, 1919, the league had or was organizing branches at 32 towns in California and Arizona. Seventeen of these for which data

were given had a combined membership of 3,600.

It is also reported that a cooperative grocery store in Hilo, Hawaii, known as the Rochdale Cooperative Association (Ltd.), with nearly 400 members, has affiliated with the Pacific Cooperative League. 12

International relationships.—The league is a member of the International Cooperative Alliance. Early in September, 1919, several directors of the English Cooperative Wholesale Society visited San Francisco in the course of a tour made for the purpose of making international trade arrangements. It is stated that the directors have taken the preliminary steps for mutual buying between the Cooperative Wholesale Co. of San Francisco and their own society and that hereafter all purchases of the English society made in this section of the United States will be made through the Pacific Cooperative League. 13 The league has also been asked by the Russian cooperative unions to act as their agent in purchasing in this country.

Effect of federation. - The president of the league says, "We have not had a single store fail. On the contrary, every store has not only paid its way from the start, but has paid a dividend."

He feels that there is an encouraging degree of individual cooperative development in the league stores, and the loss of initiative

that might have been expected has not been evident.

There is more live cooperative sentiment and interest manifested and more attention to business than in the ordinary efforts of the old independent stores. The same strong men that come to the top in independent stores come to the front in the federated

¹² National Cooperative News, Chicago, Jan. 24, 1920. 18 Pacific Cooperator, San Francisco, September, 1919, p. 3.

stores, and with the advantage that their valuable services can be shared in over a larger area and not submerged in the struggle to keep one little place alive.

We believe we see in the federated plan a natural growth conforming to modern conditions, which are all in the direction of amalgamation. The problem of securing education and wholesale advantages for cooperative stores has been a serious one for many years. By a close form of federation I believe we are going to secure these results in a very successful measure.

Cooperative Wholesale Society of America.

The Cooperative Wholesale Society of America, with headquarters in St. Paul, is the wholesale society of the cooperative associations operating in Minnesota, the Dakotas, and Montana. The society was incorporated in the fall of 1917 with a capitalization of \$10,000, which was successively increased to \$100,000 in May, 1918, and to \$1,000,000 in July, 1918. Cooperative associations operating under the Rochdale plan, cooperative corporations, and unincorporated cooperative societies are admitted to membership on purchase of \$1,000 worth of capital stock. About 28 societies are now affiliated with the society, having a combined membership estimated at between 4,000 and 5,000. This number includes both producers' and consumers' associations, farmers' enterprises being prominent among the affiliated societies.

The wholesale does business at the current wholesale prices, and the surplus, after a deduction is made for reserve and educational funds, is returned to members in proportion to their patronage and to employees on their wages. Nonmembers receive one-half the rate of dividend of members.

The society is interesting because of the fact that it combines both phases of the cooperative movement. It buys for the consumers and sells for the producers, maintaining separate buying and marketing departments. The society states that, doing business as it does, at regular wholesale prices, it is "recognized as a regular wholesaler by the trade." The marketing department makes a specialty of marketing farm produce from its affiliated producers' societies, and it is stated that the activities of this department have resulted in a "substantial saving" to both the consumers' and producers' societies.

The association also maintains an organization department. It does not, however, undertake the establishment of a store except on request from the members of a locality. No attempt is made to induce cooperative associations and stores already established to affiliate with the society. Associations desiring affiliation are required to have a certain minimum amount of capital before being admitted, and must sign a contract binding themselves to do all their purchasing through the wholesale. All affiliated stores must conduct their business on a cash basis.

Cooperative Central Exchange.

The Cooperative Central Exchange is a Finnish wholesale society operating in Superior, Wis. The exchange was organized at a conference of 16 Finnish cooperative stores held at Superior in July, 1917. It now has a membership of 42 cooperative associations, located in Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Michigan, the combined membership of which is about 5,000. Eighty additional organizations are listed as purchasers through the exchange.

Its sales during 1919 amounted to \$310,322, and its net profits to \$7,330. During the fall of 1919 a manufacturing bakery department was established, specializing in rye-flour products, such as hardtack and toasts, the net profits of which, up to January 1, 1920, amounted

to \$1,879.14

The exchange leaves the matter of affiliation with it to the local associations, but carries on educational work toward that end. Such associations, before being admitted to membership, must purchase at least one \$100 share of stock. The exchange furnishes aid in establishing new stores when requested to do so by the residents of a locality.

Branches and local cooperative organizations are not required to make all their purchases through the society. At the annual meeting of the exchange held on February 21 and 22, 1920, however, a resolution was passed "instructing affiliated stores to buy at least the commodities bearing the trade-mark of the exchange and all goods it can handle direct from manufacturers and producers."

At this meeting provision was made for an educational director who besides his regular educational duties, must "obtain and keep a list of persons in the employ of cooperative organizations and those seeking employment along those lines, and obtain reliable information in reference to their experience, in order to aid cooperative associations in obtaining employees."

Central States Cooperative Society.

It is estimated that there are approximately 90 cooperative stores in Illinois and the adjoining States, and that Illinois has about 75 of these. The Central States Cooperative Society, with offices in Springfield and a warehouse in East St. Louis, Ill., is the wholesale center for this group of cooperative associations. The society was organized in March, 1915, but the wholesale warehouse was not established until early in 1919, the society in the beginning carrying on simply a system of collective buying for its members. Though beginning with a capital of only \$300, the society has grown rapidly and now has a paid-in share capital of \$130,000, and a loan capital of \$25,000. At first the society was hampered by lack of working capital,

14 National Cooperative News, Chicago, Mar. 6, 1920.

and was compelled to "split profits" with jobbers, thus greatly diminishing its usefulness as a factor in reducing costs. In this district, as in the Seattle district, organized labor has been a strong supporter of the cooperative movement, and has come to the aid of the society with the trade-union funds as loan capital.¹⁵

A membership share in the society costs \$100, and no affiliating individual or organization may hold more than five shares of capital stock. Any amount of loan capital may be advanced. On both

share and loan capital the society pays 5 per cent interest.

At the time of the organization of the society every effort was made to induce independent stores to affiliate with the society. Some 35 of the stores in Illinois, having an approximate membership of 200 each, have done so. Most of these handle groceries only, though some carry meats, fuel, boots and shoes, and a limited line of dry goods and millinery. The society also supplies goods to other societies which are not members but are interested, as cooperators, in supporting the wholesale.

Some organization work is done by the society, but only where there is sufficient demand on the part of members of the community to warrant it. This has been done, particularly in "industrial centers where there is a very great demand upon the part of the trade-unions to have a store started, where they have sufficient money to buy goods but do not care to assume responsibility for the organization

and management of a store."

The society does not require local associations to fulfill any conditions as to membership or capital before being admitted to affiliation. Where a new association is being organized, however, the society advises that, before starting the store, at least 40 or 50 members who "know each other and can depend on one another to do what is right, be honest, help with the work, be loyal to the store, and do all their trading in their own store," be secured and that each contribute at least \$50 in share capital. Where the store is organized by the society the latter requires the manager to turn in to it weekly reports showing the amount of goods bought, the amount sold, the balance on hand, and the expenses incurred. All branches must make all their purchases through the wholesale society, except in the case of local produce or where the wholesale can not fill an order. The amount of dividend to be returned by each local association to its members is left entirely to the association itself.

It is stated that a number of the affiliated stores do not, in one respect, conform to the Rochdale plan—instead of selling goods at current prices and returning the surplus to their members as dividends, after making certain deductions for education, reserve,

¹⁵ Cooperation, New York City, September, 1919, p. 137.

depreciation, etc., they operate on the "cost plus" plan, under which the goods are sold at cost, plus a small percentage estimated as sufficient to cover expenses.

Tri-State Cooperative Association.

The Tri-State Cooperative Association is both a wholesale and a retail organization, operating on the chain system about 22 retail stores as branches, in western Pennsylvania, eastern Ohio, and northern West Virginia. All of its stores "are owned collectively by the members of all stores; they are managed by the Tri-State board of directors, officers, and central operating force, aided and assisted by local committees." Branches are required to make all their purchases, except those of meats and produce, through the wholesale department, unless the latter is unable to fill the order. Each store is entitled to two delegates to the quarterly meetings of the association, though the by-laws provide that the principle of proportional representation may be applied in the election of delegates. The association states that it sends organizers to establish branches only on request of 10 or more families in a community.

The association issues two kinds of stock—permanent and ordinary—paying 6 per cent interest on the former and 5 per cent on the latter. Ordinary stock may be withdrawn on 90 days' written notice to the board of directors. Every person desiring to join a Tri-State store must pay a membership fee of \$1, and purchase at \$10 a share at least five shares, two of which must be permanent stock.

A store already established may become an "integral part" of the association by accepting Tri-State stock for the value of its net assets. In such cases the rule of the association is that the store have a minimum membership of 100 and a capital of \$5,000. Hitherto the association has not strictly enforced this rule, but it states that it intends to do so in the future. It does, however, require that the stock issued to each member of the store shall be in the same amount—2 shares of permanent and 3 shares of ordinary stock—as is required in stores organized by the association. Such a store may also withdraw at any time "upon majority request of its membership and the signing by all of its members of a release authorizing the transfer of ordinary stock to the local organization."

Independent stores are admitted to membership in the wholesale on the purchase of \$200 worth of permanent stock. There are now over 20 such stores connected with the association on this basis.

The retail department is operated as a unit and a uniform dividend is returned in all of the stores irrespective of their several savings. Employees receive on their salaries a bonus at the same rate as the dividend. Each store participates in the earnings of the wholesale

department in proportion to the amount of its business with the latter. 16

The All-American Farmer-Labor Cooperative Congress.

HE All-American Farmer-Labor Cooperative Congress was held in Chicago, February 12 to 14, 1920. It is reported that about 400 delegates were present representing cooperative, farmer, and labor organizations having an estimated membership of over 4,000,000.

The conference, an outgrowth of a similar meeting held in November, 1919² was called to consider means of reducing living costs by a system of direct trading between producer and consumer. Following are some of the subjects on the program for consideration: Direct trading—from producer to consumer; Mobilizing the farmer-labor forces; Cooperative banking and credits; The people's press; Standardization of cooperative business methods; Unification of the cooperative movement; Cooperative education; Social aspects of cooperation; Organized labor and cooperation.

Various speakers outlined the steps that have already been taken toward direct trading and the cooperative supply of necessities. Mr. O. P. Trask told of the action of the Brotherhood of Maintenance of Way Employees which has invested more than a million dollars in factories:

Our 387,000 members are section hands, trackmen, bridge workers. Their work is chiefly out of doors. They need clothes. We have cut their clothing cost 40 per cent by manufacturing and through buying from big manufacturers, who give us 40 per cent discount rather than see us go into the same business. We have mills in Ypsilanti, Kalamazoo, and Toledo making gloves, socks, sweaters, underwear. A shirt factory will be opened soon in Williamston, Mich. Our gloves are of the cheapest cotton or the best Australian wool, running from 17 cents to \$5 in price. One mill turns out 200 union suits a day. A surplus of 100,000 dozen mittens is to be turned over to farmers' cooperatives. A branch supply store is to be opened in Chicago for our 40,000 members there to buy clothes in.

Reports made at the Congress show the farmers to be strong in support of cooperative enterprises. Mr. C. H. Gustafson, president of the Nebraska Farmers' Union, stated that that society, which owns

¹⁶ It is stated (National Cooperative News, Feb. 7, 1920) that at the annual meeting of the association, Jan. 26, the decision was made to separate the wholesale and retail departments and to apply for a separate charter for the retail department.

¹ Data on which this article is based were obtained from the Farmers' National Council, Washington, D. C.; The Survey, Feb. 21, 1920; the Nebraska Farmer, issues of Feb. 28 and Mar. 6, 1920; The Nation Mar. 6, 1920; and the New Republic, Mar. 10, 1920.

² For a short account of the November Congress, see Monthly Labor Review, February, 1920, pp. 133, 134.

³ The Survey, Feb. 21, 1920, p. 606.

creameries, flour mills, grain elevators, etc., is ready to furnish cooperative stores with the products of its members. Report was also made of the action of the National Federation of Gleaners, a Michigan farmers' fraternal organization, in taking over all the canning factories of Armour & Co. in that State. An account of the successful work of the Farmers' Union of Kansas was given by Mr. W. C. Landson, secretary of the union. He stated that during the 13 years of its existence it has increased its field of operations until it now includes more than 550 incorporated societies—elevators, retail stores, mills, shipping associations, insurance companies, auditing associations-doing a total business during the past 12 months of \$250,000,000. The union is now cooperating with the labor unions. A triple alliance of organized farmers, railroad brotherhoods, and organized labor was formed in the State of Washington last year, according to Mr. Wm. Bouck, master of the Washington State Grange.

The various phases of the work of the consumers' cooperative associations were discussed by Dalton T. Clarke and Carl E. Lunn, president and vice president, respectively, of the National Cooperative Association, and by Mr. Ernest O. F. Ames, president of the Pacific Cooperative League. The need of education in cooperation was urged by Dr. James P. Warbasse, president of the Cooperative League of America. Mr. Isaac Sherman, director of the New York branch of the Moscow Narodny Bank, gave a short account of the cooperative movement in Russia.

In a discussion of cooperative insurance, Mr. E. A. Tyler, of the Equity Cooperative Insurance Co. of St. Paul, spoke of the success of that company, which during its first year wrote \$2,000,000 worth of hail insurance.

The trade-unions of Seattle have been active along various lines of cooperative effort. The building of a labor temple and the establishment of a bank in which every depositor is a stockholder were described by Mr. Frank A. Rust, secretary-manager of the latter institution, the Seattle Trade-Union Bank. That the machinists of the same city have bought one-eighth of the stock in a large national bank and are now organizing a new bank to be located in a building of their own was stated by Mr. W. H. Johnson, president of the International Association of Machinists.

A feature of the convention was the display of cooperatively made goods.

The last day of the conference was devoted to the presentation and discussion of the reports of the various committees. Resolutions were passed indorsing the Rochdale system and favoring the establishment of cooperatively owned newspapers and of a cooperative news service.

A special committee was appointed to formulate plans for direct trading. Recognizing the need for education in cooperation, the congress adopted a resolution providing for organized educational work to be carried on by a department entirely separate from the

financial and business department.

Perhaps the most important step was that taken with regard to banking and credit. Recognition was given to the fact that all permanent work along cooperative lines must be based on a system of cooperative credit. In this connection favorable mention was made of the work done by credit unions in the few States where the law permits their formation, and the congress declared itself in favor of legislation furthering cooperative effort. A permanent committee of five, consisting of Mr. Warren S. Stone, grand chief, Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers, chairman; Mr. George P. Hampton, managing director, Farmers' National Council; Mr. C. H. Gustafson, president, Nebraska Farmers' Union; Mr. Sidney Hillman, Amalgamated Garment Workers; and Mr. F. A. Rust, secretary-manager, Seattle Trade-Union Bank, was appointed. This committee, which will serve without pay, was authorized "to advise upon the incorporation of banks to be established by cooperative labor and farmer organizations throughout the different States" and to take steps to secure necessary cooperative banking and credit union legislation.

It was recommended that a similar congress be held annually

hereafter.

National Cooperative Union for Importation of Foodstuffs into Italy. 1

HE present tendency of the Italian Government is gradually to retire from the actual purchase and distribution of food supplies and to delegate questions of detail in this connection to central and local consortiums created for this purpose, while still retaining control over prices and the general policy determining

purchases and imports.

In conformity with this tendency, a new autonomous body, under the name of National Cooperative Union for Importation, has been established by a royal decree. This body will provide for the importation of pork products, fats, milk products, and allied foodstuffs in such quantities as may be considered necessary, under the direction and control of the Government. Imports will be effected by means of purchases abroad, which the cooperative union will make either directly or through private firms. The union is authorized to assume the monopoly of receiving, storing, preserving, and eventually manufacturing and delivering these goods. The delivery

¹ Extracted from Commerce Reports, Feb. 12, 1920, pp. 865, 866.

will take place as indicated by the provincial distributing commissioners. The union may also undertake export activities.

The National Cooperative Union for Importation will have its central offices in Rome, with branches and agencies in the other cities of Italy and abroad; it is intended to operate until September 30, 1921, at which time its life may be extended.

Organizations dealing with food supplies, public bodies not instituted for profit, and cooperative companies, their federations and unions, will be admitted as members of the new body. Its initial

capital is fixed at 10,000,000 lire (\$1,930,000, par).

Full administrative powers are vested in the board of directors, which will also establish the general principles and conditions on the basis of which purchases are to be made and the storage, manufacture, and preservation are to be carried out. Of the profits of this cooperative union, 20 per cent will be assigned to a reserve fund, and a further sum will be set aside sufficient to pay not more than 5 per cent on the capital invested. Of the amount available after these deductions have been made, 5 per cent will be assigned to the board of directors, 5 per cent to the personnel, and 85 per cent will be turned over to the State, which will distribute it, on the recommendation of the board of directors, to certain national cooperative bodies, with a view to effecting technical improvements in cooperative organizations existing for food supply and consumption.

Activities of the British Cooperative Societies During 1918.¹

HE latest report of the English and Scottish cooperative wholesale societies shows 2 that the 1,474 societies belonging to the Cooperative Union had a membership, in 1918, of 3,894,999, employed 164,383 persons, and did a business amounting to £248,979,685 (\$1,211,659,637, par).

The table following shows for each class of society the membership, sales, employees, and wages paid in each of the years 1913 to 1918.

² People's Yearbook, 1920, published by Manchester, England, Cooperative Wholesale Society (Ltd.), pp. 75-79.

¹ For other articles on the same subject see Monthly Labor Review, June, 1919, pp. 121-124; October, 1919, pp. 171-177; January, 1920, pp. 181-183.

OPERATIONS OF MEMBERS OF THE COOPERATIVE UNION, 1913 TO 1918, BY CLASS OF SOCIETY.

[£1 at par=\$4.8665.]

Year and class of society.	Num- ber of socie- ties.	Member-ship.	Share and loan capital.	Sales.	Net surplus.	Number of em- ployees.	Salaries and wages paid.
Retail distributive societies: 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 Distributive federations, 1918 Productive societies:	1,375 1,362 1,366	2,878,648 3,054,297 3,264,811 3,520,227 3,788,490 3,846,531 61	£42,601,765 46,317,939 48,848,596 53,322,352 55,746,493 61,394,708 31,579	£83,590,374 87,964,229 102,557,779 121,688,550 142,003,612 155,157,963 121,597	£12,851,303 13,501,825 14,960,086 16,335,079 15,916,591 16,495,645 7,637	103, 452 103, 074 109, 449 115, 651 118, 716 119, 629 31	£5,903,943 6,319,967 6,749,726 7,452,616 8,465,663 10,246,932 2,878
1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917.	108 108 103 101 97 95	34,662 36,880 34,912 35,142 36,358 37,393	1,701,033 1,822,349 1,688,118 1,771,604 1,804,954 1,974,479	3,710,234 3,800,627 3,860,052 4,461,491 5,146,459 5,714,041	253,014 276,792 316,896 333,842 359,740 398,602	10,442 10,725 10,657 10,284 10,038 9,745	596,380 613,558 634,921 732,106 766,846 912,788
Supply associations: 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918	4 4 4 3 3	95,061 95,117 8,473 8,560 8,282 8,349	563, 240 572, 010 483, 951 435, 239 438, 388 452, 055	2,078,661 2,030,245 3,280,360 3,402,308 1,712,718 1,763,450	49, 231 41, 470 54, 151 92, 328 58, 602 58, 122	1,956 2,099 1,799 1,661 1,816 1,805	179, 688 183, 528 172, 167 196, 866 164, 198 177, 841
English Cooperative Whole- sale Society: 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917. 1918. Scottish Cooperative Whole-		² 1, 193 ² 1, 195	6,320,763 6,301,017 6,641,598 7,109,291 6,937,325 11,896,941	31,371,976 34,910,813 43,101,747 52,230,074 57,710,133 65,167,960	636,119 840,069 1,086,962 1,519,005 1,315,155 160,538	20,994 23,190 23,924 22,215 22,777 24,100	1,383,254 1,539,354 1,777,406 1,819,727 1,983,869 2,529,137
sale Society: \$ 1913		² 266 ² 264	3,696,415 4,130,170 4,464,633 4,564,637 4,257,818 4,546,296	8,964,033 9,425,383 11,363,075 14,502,410 17,079,842 19,519,485	340,730 393,115 456,516 501,531 500,915 547,993	8,685 8,877 9,103 8,307 8,522 8,324	405,818 530,378 554,634 593,165 655,874 797,510
Society: 1915		² 327 ² 381 ² 453 ² 511	28,225 65,518 83,187 25,975	375,379 479,877 651,567 914,242	3,141 4,989 5,577 7,527	81 100 125 156	5,400 6,854 10,730 17,109
Total: 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918	1,510 1,497 1,481 1,478	3,011,390 3,188,140 3,310,524 3,566,241 3,835,376 3,894,999	54,919,381 58,704,695 62,230,430 67,348,808 69,355,148 80,473,150	130,035,894 138,473,025 165,034,195 197,295,322 224,913,795 248,979,685	14, 260, 414 15, 204, 098 17, 003, 956 19, 150, 021 18, 194, 600 17, 702, 567		8, 491, 448 9, 213, 464 9, 928, 926 10, 838, 075 12, 086, 853 14, 734, 284

¹ Exclusive of the wholesale societies.
2 Number of member societies.
3 This society also pays a bonus on wages of its employees. The amounts thus paid have been—1913, £16,583; 1914, £18,783; 1915, £13,017; 1916, £12,614; 1917, £10,016; 1918, £9,348.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

Recent Development of Part-Time or Continuation Schools in the United States.

HEN the Federal Vocational Education Act became a law on February 23, 1917, only eight States, namely Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Wisconsin, and California, had developed systems of vocational education. Under the law three forms of vocational education may exist: All-day schools, part-time schools, and evening classes. Of these three types the part-time schools have perhaps the most direct effect upon industry, as the instruction must be given during hours of employment. While at the time of the passing of the law provision for part-time schools was admittedly desirable and part-time classes conducted for various purposes under various auspices existed here and there, but two of the States, Wisconsin and Pennsylvania, had established compulsory instruction of this character for young workers over 14 years of age.

The increasing interest in vocational training of this character is manifest in the fact that on January 1, 1920, 25 States, most of which had enacted legislation during 1919, had laws requiring attendance upon part-time schools. The following table shows data relative to such schools in these 25 States:

SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL REQUIREMENTS OF LAWS PROVIDING FOR PART-TIME SCHOOLS, BY STATES.¹

State.	Minimum number of minors required to establish classes.	Ages of required attendance.	Hours per week re- quired attend- ance.	Length of school year.	Time for holding classes.
Arizona	15 12 (2)	14-16 14-18 14-16	5 4 8	150 hours	8 a. m6 p. m. 8 a. m5 p. m. Evening classes.
Illinois Indiana Iowa	(2) 15	14-18 14-16 14-16	8 4 8	36 weeks Full school year Full school year	8 a. m5 p. m. 8 a. m5 p. m. 8 a. m6 p. m.
Massachusetts 3 Michigan 4 Missouri Montana	200 50 25 15	14-16 14-18 14-16 14-16	4 8 4 4	Full school year Full school year Full school year Full school year	8 a. m5 p. m. 8 a. m5 p. m. 8 a. m5 p. m. 8 a. m6 p. m.

¹ U. S. Federal Board for Vocational Education. Vocational Summary, June, 1919, p. 22. U. S. Bureau of Education. School Life, Dec. 15, 1919, pp. 14-16. Washington, 1919.
2 Every child who possesses an employment certificate and has not completed elementary schools.

Every city or town.
Every school district of 5,000 population or more.

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SUMMARY OF PRINCIPAL REQUIREMENTS OF LAWS PROVIDING FOR PART-TIME SCHOOLS, BY STATES-Concluded.

State.	Minimum number of minors required to establish classes.	Ages of required attendance.	Hours per week re- quired attend- ance.	Length of school year.	Time for holding classes.
Nebraska Nevada New Hampshire 6 New Jersey	15 15 (6) 20	14-16 14-18 16-21 14-16	8 4 (5) 6	144 hours Full school year (5)	(5), 8 a. m6 p. m. (5), 8 a. m5 p. m. (except Saturday and Sunday).
New Mexico. New York 4. Oklahoma. Oregon. Pennsylvania. Rhode Island 6. South Dakota 6. Utah. Washington. West Virginia.	15 20 20 15 (5) 20 (5) 15 15 15 (2) (7)	14-16 14-18 16-18 14-18 14-16 16-21 16-21 14-18 14-18	5 4-8 (5) 5 8 (5) 8 4 4 5	150 hours. Full school year. 144 hours. Full school year. (4). 200 hours. 200 hours. 144 hours. Full school year. 20 weeks.	ant Saturday). 8a. m6 p. m. 8a. m5 p. m. (5). 8a. m6 p. m. 8a. m5 p. m. (except Saturday). Evening school. 8a. m5 p. m. 8a. m5 p. m. (6).

The application of these State laws differs with the varying conditions relative to population, education, and industry, in the different States, and includes numerous details not shown in the table. Among these are the questions of exemption, State aid, substitution of regular day schools or evening classes for part-time classes, the establishment of standards, penalties for violation of the law, and the inclusion of

part-time instruction on the employer's time.

The laws of Arizona, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, Oregon, Utah, and Washington specifically state that hours of attendance upon part-time or continuation schools must be construed as a part of a minor's lawful employment. In Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, Oklahoma, and West Virginia, the employer is obliged to permit attendance. Illinois makes home work a lawful employment, while the Wisconsin law requires all apprentices to attend a vocational school for at least five hours a week during the first two years of training, for which time they are paid at the regular rate per hour.

States in which the law has been adopted provide penalties for its nonenforcement, applying usually both to the parent or guardian of a delinquent child and to the employer as well. In many cases the minor's employment certificate may be revoked if he fails to attend part-time classes. Sometimes employment ceases when attendance ceases. New York State, in addition to holding the parent and employer responsible, provides for withholding the State public school funds in case of failure to comply with the law. New Hampshire,

<sup>Every school district of 5,000 population or more.
Not specified.
Americanization classes only.
Every child not attending some other school. Apprentices required to attend vocational school five hours per week for first two years of apprenticeship.</sup>

Rhode Island, South Dakota, New York, Utah, and California require evening or day Americanization classes for which part-time instruction may be accepted. State and Federal funds in varying amounts may be used to defray the expenses of part-time classes.

Part-time instruction is intended for employed minors over 14 years of age. It may be a trade-extension course which is merely supplemental to the trade or industrial pursuit in which the minor is employed; it may be a preparation for a trade entirely different from the one in which he is earning a living; or it may be of a general character suited to the development of the civic and vocational intelligence of the young worker. In any case these schools and classes must be operated for at least 144 hours every year during the hours of regular employment. The instruction in the trade courses may consist of actual experience in the shop, of theory related to the processes taught, or of both so arranged as to divide the time between the two.

One of the difficulties met in the introduction of these classes is the arrangement of the hours of attendance. While the school is the final judge in this matter the conditions under which minors are employed determine in large measure the adjustment made, a great deal of elasticity being allowed. It has been found that for workers in stores there has been a tendency to divide the time among the working-days of the week, the morning hours from 8 to 10 having been found most suitable and convenient. Manufacturing establishments, on the other hand, often give all the time in a block.

The shift system has also been successfully introduced. Under this system the minors work in two shifts of five hours each, with a 3-hour school period. Such an arrangement insures compliance with the law, secures a full day's production and affords an educa-

tional opportunity for children who are compelled to work.

Iowa, which has recently provided for the establishment of compulsory part-time continuation schools, is inaugurating a dull season short course for painters. According to the present plan¹ the State will be divided into six districts with one center in each. The course of instruction will continue for a period of 3 weeks, 8 hours a day for 6 days in each week, making the required 144 hours. At Newton, Iowa, boys being trained as machinists and pattern makers attend the local high school three hours in the morning and work in the machine shops of two plants four hours in the afternoon. In this way they combine instruction in related subjects and practice in the trades under trade conditions. The boys do not in this case receive pay for the work in the shops.

Another difficulty met in the operation of part-time or continuation schools is the lack of properly trained teachers. It is obvious that a

¹ U. S. Federal Board for Vocational Education, Vocational Summary, January, 1920, p. 164.

teacher with an excellent academic training might prove a complete failure in attempting to explain the fundamentals of a trade. The majority of skilled workmen, on the other hand, would be quite as unable to present the theory of certain industrial processes, or even to impart to others a knowledge of the actual operation of the processes. The problem then is to secure as teachers persons who combine with a thorough knowledge of the trade and good personality, ability to express themselves readily. Thus far most of the teachers have been found in the industries themselves. Efforts are being made, however, to give teachers an all-round training for these positions through courses which are being introduced in a number of schools and even in some of the universities of the country.

The need for part-time education is evident from the large number of children who leave school at an early age and drift into industry without any preparation for it or any appreciation of the necessity of preparation. It is estimated that the number 2 of minors in the United States between 14 and 15 years of age gainfully employed during 1918 was approximately 800,000 boys and 400,000 girls, or more than half of the whole number of children between those ages. Owing to the pressure of keen competition which has increasingly demanded minute specialization upon particular processes rather than general training in a trade, the old apprentice system has almost broken down in some trades and no substitute has as vet been offered for it. As a result industry is faced with an impoverishment of the human factor and with a lack of trained workmen who can be depended upon to secure quality as well as quantity of production. The part-time and other vocational schools, though not designed to take the place of apprenticeship, may supplement this ancient form of trade training where it exists, and in the trades where it is lacking, will undoubtedly serve as a connecting link between the school and the realities of life and labor. To industrial establishments they offer an unexcelled opportunity to develop a trained, intelligent, thinking force, at a relatively small expense.

Vocational Training for Women in Industry.

HE following report on vocational training of women in industry was prepared by a special committee on women in industry of the National Society for Vocational Education, and presented at the joint convention of the National Society for Vocational Education and the Vocational Education Association of the Middle West held in Chicago February 19 to 21, 1920. It is believed that the report is of considerable interest to industrially

² U. S. Federal Board for Vocational Education. Second annual report, 1918, p. 52. Washington, 1919.

employed women as it gives the problems of vocational education for women in industrial fields and suggests means for attaining desired ends.

Report of Committee on Women in Industry.

Every citizen at the end of his or her period of education (all-day school attendance) should be engaged in some form of productive work. The right type of home making is productive work of the highest value to the Nation, but for a great majority of women there is a considerable period between school attendance and home making during which women should engage in some other productive occupation.

The war service of women workers in many types of skilled and unskilled operative and directive work in industry demonstrated beyond further question their ability to assume work calling for a high degree of responsibility and skill. This demonstration of fitness, coupled with the necessity for economic independence for all citizens in a democratic social order, strengthens substantially the claims for the industrial education of women.

Vocational education for trade and industrial occupations for women should be greatly extended, therefore, in order that each individual girl or woman may be assured the opportunity of doing the highest type of productive work of which she is capable during the period previous to marriage, or if she does not marry, for the period of her working life, or for the married woman who, because of widowhood, desertion, childlessness, or some other deviation from normal married life, returns to industry as a wage earner.

Nothing less than a recognition of these problems which confront women wage earners, and serious constructive education to meet them, can insure the best type

of womanhood and integrity of workmanship among woman workers.

Vocational education for girls and women is a twofold problem: (a) Preparation for wage earning, and (b) preparation for home making. This discussion, however, is confined to the problems of vocational education for wage-earning occupations in industrial fields.

Facts Relative to and Problems of Industrial Education for Girls and Women.

1. Woman wage earners now constitute an important factor in industry and the number is increasing both absolutely and relatively.

1900: 5,319,397—18.8 per cent of the women over 10 years of age were wage earners.

1910: 8,075,772—23.4 per cent of the women over 10 years of age were wage earners.

1919: It was estimated that 11,000,000 of the women over 10 years of age were wage

2. Industries employing woman workers represent a wide diversity of industrial employments. The United States Census of 1910 (Vol. IV, p. 53) lists woman workers in every one of the 127 types of employment except locomotive firemen and engineers; plumbers, gas and steam fitters; railroad brakemen and conductors; teamsters; laborers (road and street building); draymen and expressmen; motormen; policemen; sailors and marines. The census of 1920 will reduce this list of exceptions.

3. Women of all ages are wage earners. (United States Census, Vol. IV., p. 69:)

Age group.	Number of women at work.	Per cent of women at work.	Proportion of women at work.
10 to 13 years	286, 946	8. 0	1 out of every 12
14 to 15 years	350, 140	19. 8	1 out of every 5
15 to 20 years	1, 847, 600	39. 9	2 out of every 5
21 to 44 years	4, 302, 969	26. 3	1 out of every 4
45 years and over	1, 288, 117	13. 7	1 out of every 7

4. The largest age group of woman workers is 14 to 24 years; 24 is generally conceded

as the usual age for marriage.

5. Because of the immaturity, and in many cases the home residence, of a considerable proportion of this 14 to 24 year group, self-supporting women living away from home and older women responsible for family support are frequently forced to accept wages insufficient to provide a safe standard of living or to insure protection in case of illness or old age. Woman wage earners are entitled to the financial consideration of their needs as workers and as citizens.

6. Specialized machines and scientific organization have created two main types of industrial occupations: (a) The operative type, in which the worker performs one or more special operations or processes; and (b) the directive type, in which a foreman

or forewoman directs the organization of the factory.

7. Many industries in which young women are employed are organized on a basis of extreme specialization or subdivision of work in which no traditions of apprenticeship exist and in which shifting from one specialized operation to another is difficult. Because of this condition many woman workers remain excessively long on operative specialties which can be learned in comparatively short periods of time, when their increasing maturity, experience, and training should assure them of advancement to better paid specialties or to directive or more expert work,

8. Woman workers (not the individual woman) are now regarded as a permanent factor in industry and not as an emergency labor reserve. Education for industrial occupations, therefore, demands due consideration in a program of vocational education for women which recognizes preparation for wage earning as well as prepara-

tion for home making.

9. The stigma which social prejudice has placed upon industrial work for women has militated strongly against the development of industrial education for girls and women. This applies to industrial occupations in which women have long been employed as well as to newer types of work developed under the modern factory system.

10. Woman workers since the advent of the factory system have been exploited workers. Because of the prejudice against industrial work, the lack of apprenticeship systems of training, and the slow development of other forms of trade organization among women, woman workers have been largely untrained for their work and

uninformed about conditions of their labor and the value of that labor.

Protective legislation alleviates these conditions and it necessarily antedates consideration of vocational education, but education, both general and vocational, must ultimately develop in women the ability to formulate and demand for themselves the protection and privileges necessary for successful and satisfactory employment.

11. Under the terms of the Federal Vocational Act equal opportunity is possible for girls and women as for boys and men. That States and local communities have not taken advantage of available resources is evident from the third annual report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education, which shows that only the smallest beginnings have been made in the establishment of systematic vocational education for girls and women in industrial fields (Vol. I, Table 18, p. 220).

Number of female pupils enrolled in trade or industrial schools in the United States for year ending June 30, 1919.

Evening schools		1, 391
Part-time schools		5, 340
All-day schools	2,058	
Manhattan Trade School 1		
		0,000

¹ Omitted in Federal Board report.

The complexity of the social, economic, and educational problems of vocational education is recognized, but the nature of the problem should insure open-minded study and experimentation in developing and putting into effect an adequate program for industrial education for girls and women commensurate with the importance of the problem. State boards and the Federal Board for Vocational Education share this responsibility.

12. The States are charged with the responsibility of selecting and training supervisors and teachers for the vocational work of the State. The supply of women for State and city supervisory positions and for teaching positions in the vocational schools is far below the demand. Lack of supervisors and teachers, in turn, retards the development of vocational schools and desirable courses and standards of instruc-

tion.

Solutions of these Problems.

1. While in protective legislation, organization of workers, and education of employers and consumers are to be found some remedies for difficulties encountered by girls and women in industry, the remedy of most importance is better general education and better vocational education for those who compose the army of girl and woman workers.

2. A considerable part of both these forms of education should be assured prior to the beginning of wage-earning work, but much of it can only be given parallel to the pursuit of such work or during periods when the worker shall voluntarily or involuntarily discontinue wage earning.

3. One fundamental aim of both general and vocational education should be to give girls an understanding of the conditions of wage-earning work, and the possibilities available for the protection of health, morals, earning capacity and promotion to

higher levels of employment.

4. The fundamental aim of vocational education should be to fit the worker to pursue effectively some specialized work, to assure advantageous entrance to a wageearning occupation, and to make it clear that employment in one phase of specialized work is but one stage from which she should advance as experience, maturity, and additional training justify advancement.

5. One of the primary aims of up-grading vocational education should be to fit the worker for promotion to more advanced stages of operative work, or for directive work,

or positions of leadership.

- 6. An important aim of vocational education at the later stages should be to fit women, who expect to remain in wage-earning work and those who return to wage earning when their children have passed beyond the need of mother care, for productive work in occupations which demand maturity, experience, and special training. This should be done in order that these women may not be brought into sharp competition with every young woman worker, no matter what may have been the special training of the latter.
- 7. Educators, employers, and others interested in or responsible for the education of wage-earning girls and women must recognize the weight of social prejudice against industrial occupations and actively engage in the dissemination of intelligent information which shall bring about a realignment of attitudes among employers, workers, and the community at large toward women in industrial callings and develop a demand for education and vocational training which shall result in knowledge of the job, and group consciousness and working integrity among woman workers. This task is urgent, and necessarily a part of the working program, for the development of all-day, part-time, and evening courses for girls and women of all ages and grades of experience depends largely upon a measure of social approval.
- 8. The States and local communities look to the Federal Board for Vocational Education for help in the development of a constructive program of vocational educa-

tion for industrial occupations for women, which includes ways and means for developing a demand for industrial education as well as courses of study, and dynamic assistance in putting it into operation. This help should be commensurate with the numbers of workers involved and their rights as workers and citizens.

To Attain these Ends.

1. General education for all girls (and boys) extending over at least the first 8 or 10 years of school attendance should be insisted upon in order that intelligent, right-minded participation in home and community life and State and national activities may be assured.

2. Vocational education for all prospective workers should be assured in all-day vocational courses before entering wage earning or in part-time courses which supplement occupational experience and prepare for promotion. While the all-day vocational school or department in most communities serves fewer students than part-time and evening courses, it has been shown that the all-day courses tend to lengthen the school attendance of girls contemplating wage earning and that vocational preparation tends to create a demand for further trade training and education in part-time or

evening trade extension courses.

3. Vocational education supplementing the daily occupation, particularly part-time day courses, should be assured to 16 or 18 years of age. Special effort should be made to develop these courses in places of employment when instruction can be given more effectively and advantageously (without loss of time, suitable equipment, illustrative material, subject matter for daily lessons) in the business establishment than in the school building. Instruction that carries its point—that proves its worth in the daily employment—increases the demand for education both general and vocational. Passive approval of this form of education will not bring results. Part-time vocational education is pioneer education and to insure its success it requires vigorous propaganda on the part of educational leaders and genuine belief in it, as well as good teaching on the part of the teachers who undertake the work.

4. Since stimulation, promotion, and development of vocational education is of paramount importance in the ever-widening horizon of women's employment, a staff of workers commensurate with the importance of the problem should be provided by both the State and Federal authorities. Each of the regional fields should have a woman agent for industrial education charged with the duties of stimulating and developing courses for the provisions for teacher-training courses and all-day, parttime, and evening vocational courses for which Federal funds of the Smith-Hughes

Act provide.

Each State should have a woman in charge of industrial education for girls and women charged with the duty of stimulating and developing the work within the State as outlined by the State board and approved by the Federal Board for Vocational Edu-

cation.

5. It is of utmost importance that each State make definite provisions for teacher-training courses for State supervisors and teachers for the vocational schools of the State. So long as State and national programs of vocational education depend upon stimulation for their ultimate acceptance and effective operation, definite and sustained effort should be made to attract well-educated, well-trained women as well as men into the field of vocational education.

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING.

New Agreement Affecting the Men's Clothing Industry in Chicago.

A NEW agreement granting increases in wages to piece and time workers in the men's clothing industry in Chicago has been entered into, effective December 15, 1919, by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America and Chicago clothing manufacturers. The considerations that figured in the final adjustment, as presented by the employees, were as follows:

1. Increased cost of living.

2. Desire for improvement in standards of living, if the industry can afford it.

3. The great demand for labor in this industry, which would have permitted greatly increased wages by bargains made by individual workers, had not the agreement stabilized and moderated rates of wages.

4. The increased market value which labor in this industry now commands, as shown by increases in wages in other cities.

5. The efficiency of this industry in maintaining constant production, thereby making its important contribution to public welfare, both in the economic aspect of doing its share toward keeping costs down as compared with the wastefulness of strikes, and in the general social and public aspect of maintaining order and peace in industry in the midst of a generally disturbed condition in the labor world.

6. The efficiency of the Chicago market, in particular, as a piecework market, which makes it possible for the Chicago market to do at least as well by the workers as other less efficient markets and make the doubt of the chicago market to do at least as well by the workers as other less efficient markets and make the chicago market to do at least as well by the workers as other less efficient markets and make the chicago market to do at least as well by the workers as other less efficient markets.

less efficient markets, and makes any other attitude hard to justify.

Against any increase at this time it was maintained by the representatives of the firms:

- 1. That increases in wages in the industry have more than kept pace with increased cost of living.
- 2. That whatever may be true as to the demand for labor and the consequent market rate of wages, there is at this time a paramount duty to the public not to increase the cost of the necessaries of life unless there is a real exigency, which in this case does not exist.
- 3. That this industry is now in a highly favorable condition, as compared with other industries, both national and local, especially when it is considered that only about one-third of those employed are heads of families.
- 4. That since deflation is bound to come sooner or later, every increase which adds to costs has a tendency in the wrong direction, and will make the inevitable shrinkage more keenly felt.
- 5. That the indirect effects on prices and industry of any increase in wages at this time ought to be considered.
- 6. That local conditions in the Chicago market, both within the industry and in the relation of this to other industries, make any change undesirable from the point of view of the best interests of the agreement into which many of the firms have recently entered.

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After considering and weighing these and other arguments presented the board of arbitration, to which under existing agreement the question of changes in wage rates was automatically referred, issued the following award:

Beginning December 15, 1919, an increase shall be added to the piece and wage rates now in existence under the agreements, in the shops of the firms and their contractors. The new rates thus established shall prevail up to June 1, 1920, except when detailed changes may be ordered by the board of arbitration on recommendation of either of the trade boards.

The increase shall be applied as follows:

An increase of twenty per cent (20%) shall be given to sections or occupations, where the average earnings or wages on a forty-four hour basis are \$30 or less per week, and five per cent (5%) to sections where the average earnings on a forty-four hour basis are \$50 or more per week. An increase equivalent to \$6 per week shall be given to sections where the average earnings are from \$30 to \$49.99 per week.

An increase of 20 per cent shall be given to all week workers now receiving less than \$30 per week; an increase of \$6 per week to week workers now receiving from \$30 to \$49.99 per week; and an increase of 5 per cent to week workers now receiving \$50 or more per week.

In piecework sections, the equivalent of the increase shall be calculated and added

to the existing piece rates.

In addition to the increases granted above, the board will grant further increases in specific sections to be recommended by the committee appointed to investigate the

subject of relative disparities in rates now existing.

The increase shall apply to all sections and classes of labor represented by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, provided that nothing in this shall be taken to prejudice certain problems of reclassification which are now pending before the board of arbitration under the Hart, Schaffner & Marx agreement. Pending the completion of such reclassification, and a final decision, such persons as were granted increases by the board under the agreement of July 8 shall be presumed to be entitled to the increases herein provided.

Inexperienced persons employed in the trade less than three months at week work

shall not be included in the award.

Persons who are working on piece-rate operations on a weekly minimum guaranty

shall be considered pieceworkers and not week workers.

In calculating the classifications of piecework sections for the purpose of applying these increases, the same methods and practices shall be employed as in the adjustment of July, 1919.

The board hereby authorizes the establishment of commissions, under the chairmanship of Dr. Millis and Mr. Mullenbach, with representation of employers and workers, respectively, selected by themselves, to elaborate and recommend to the board standards of wages and production, and classifications of week workers. The chairmen shall have the deciding votes in cases of disagreement, and such recommended standards and classifications, when approved by the board, shall become a part of this award.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

Employment in Selected Industries in February, 1920.

HE Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in February, 1920, from representative establishments in 13 manufacturing industries. Comparing the figures of February, 1920, with those of identical establishments for February, 1919, it appears that in 11 industries there was an increase in the number of persons employed, while in 2 there was a decrease. The largest increase, 124.9 per cent, is shown in woolen, while cotton finishing and men's readymade clothing show percentage increases of 52.3 and 50.2, respectively. Decreases of 15.9 per cent in car building and repairing and 9.7 per cent in cigar manufacturing are shown.

Twelve of the 13 industries show an increase in the total amount of the pay roll for February, 1920, as compared with February, 1919, and 1 shows a decrease. The most important percentage increases, 252.4 and 137.9, appear in woolen and men's ready-made clothing. The next largest increases are 96.9 per cent in cotton finishing, 65.9 per cent in silk, and 65.6 per cent in cotton manufacturing. A decrease of 13.3 per cent is shown in car building and repairing.

The increases in the volume of employment over last year are largely due to labor troubles and the cancellation of Government contracts in January, 1919, which decreased employment and production in February, 1919.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN FEBRUARY, 1919, AND FEBRUARY, 1920.

Industry.	Estab- lish-		Num	ber on pa	ay roll.	Amo	Amount of pay roll.			
	ments report- ing for Febru- ary, both years.	Period of pay roll.	February, 1919.	February, 1920.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	1010	Febru- ary, 1920.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).		
Automobile manufacturing. Boots and shoes. Car building and repairing. Cigar manufacturing. Clothing, men's ready-made. Cotton finishing. Cotton manufacturing. Hosiery and underwear. Iron and steel. Leather manufacturing. Paper making. Silk. Woolen.	37 69 50 55 45 16 57 62 93 33 57 50 47	l week	89, 846 58, 738 62, 279 18, 363 19, 117 8, 394 50, 115 28, 559 147, 521 16, 448 31, 126 17, 667 18, 252	126, 149 63, 760 52, 373 16, 581 28, 710 12, 787 57, 374 32, 344 149, 904 18, 444 32, 449 21, 279 41, 042	$\begin{array}{c} + & 8.5 \\ - & 15.9 \\ - & 9.7 \\ + & 50.2 \\ + & 52.3 \\ + & 14.5 \\ + & 13.3 \end{array}$	\$2,591,511 1,177,502 3,544,944 286,980 401,517 145,676 709,971 402,594 10,043,797 365,081 646,732 594,993 291,152	\$4,065,361 1,462,796 3,072,663 331,662 955,048 286,824 1,175,401 593,178 11,073,588 479,031 837,179 987,223 1,026,052	+ 56.9 + 24.2 - 13.3 + 15.6 + 137.9 + 96.9 + 65.6 + 47.3 + 10.3 + 31.2 + 29.4 + 65.9 + 252.4		

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Comparative data for February, 1920, and January, 1920, appear in the following table. The figures show that in 3 industries there was an increase in the number of persons on the pay roll in February as compared with January and in 10 industries a decrease. Several factors contributed to produce a decrease in employment in February. The most important were seasonal reductions, the tie-up of transportation during the first part of the month on account of snowstorms, lack of raw material, and much sickness among employees during the influenza epidemic. The increases in the number of persons employed are 1.7 per cent in automobile manufacturing, 1.6 per cent in men's ready-made clothing, and 1.6 per cent in iron and steel. The greatest decrease—4.5 per cent—is shown in cigar manufacturing.

In comparing February with January, 2 industries show an increase in the amount of money paid to employees, while 11 show a decrease. The increases are 5.9 per cent in iron and steel and 2.2 per cent in silk; the largest decreases—10.4, 7.9, and 6.7 per cent—are shown in cotton finishing, cigar manufacturing, and boots and shoes.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN JANUARY AND FEBRUARY, 1920.

lish- meni repor ing fe Janu ary au Febri	Estab-		Num	ber on pa	y roll.	Amount of pay roll.		
	lish- ments report- ing for Janu- ary and Febru- ary.	Period of pay roll.	Janu- ary, 1920.	February, 1920.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	January, 1920.	February, 1920.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Automobile manufacturing. Boots and shoes. Car building and repairing. Cigar manufacturing. Clothing, men'sready-made. Cotton innishing. Cotton manufacturing. Hosiery and underwear. Iron and steel. Leather manufacturing. Paper making. Silk. Woolen.	38 68 49 55 48 16 53 61 86 32 55 50 47	1 weekdo ½ month. 1 weekdodododo dododo	17, 522 28, 372 13, 128 46, 248 32, 295	116, 534 62, 791 47, 020 16, 732 28, 838 12, 787 45, 132 31, 993 147, 151 17, 959 31, 781 21, 279 40, 767	+1.7 -1.6 4 -4.5 +1.6 -2.6 -2.4 9 +1.6 -2.9 -1.5	\$3,818,650 1,540,661 2,853,315 364,246 996,048 320,070 966,617 614,905 10,298,643 478,525 821,961 965,692 1,076,118	\$3,726,551 1,438,081 2,772,315 335,608 960,785 286,824 927,479 587,952 10,902,358 465,833 818,942 987,223 1,042,128	- 2. - 6. - 2. - 7. - 3. - 10. - 4. + 5. - 2. - 2. + 2. - 3.

In addition to the data presented in the above tables as to the number of employees on the pay roll, 80 plants in the iron and steel industry reported 120,388 employees as actually working on the last full day of the pay period reported for February, 1920, as against 120,262 for the reported pay-roll period in February, 1919, an increase of 0.1 per cent. Figures given by 77 establishments in the iron and steel industry for February, 1920, and January, 1920, show that 119,171 employees were actually working on the last full day of the pay period reported for in February, 1920, as against 120,693 for the period in January, 1920, a decrease of 1.3 per cent.

Changes in Wage Rates.

DURING the period January 15 to February 15, 1920, in 10 of the 11 industries which reported changes in wage rates, only increases were reported; in 1 industry 1 establishment reported a decrease. Two establishments reported no change. Of the establishments reporting, many did not answer the inquiry relative to this item, but in such cases it is not likely that changes were made.

Automobile manufacturing: Two establishments reported an increase of 2 per cent, affecting 40.4 per cent of the force in one plant and 4 per cent of the employees in the other concern. One firm granted an increase of 8 per cent to 11.8 per cent of the men, and 4½ per cent of the workers in one factory were given a 4 per cent increase.

Boots and shoes: Two establishments gave a 25 per cent increase, affecting 50 per cent of the employees in one plant and 40 per cent of the men in the other concern. About 32 per cent of the force in one firm were granted an increase of 22 per cent. A 15 per cent increase, affecting 15 per cent of the employees, was reported by one plant. One establishment gave a 10 per cent increase to 35 per cent of the force while another factory reported an increase of about 10 per cent, affecting 4 per cent of the force. One concern granted 5 per cent of the men a 6 per cent increase. One firm reported an increase but made no further statement. The 10 per cent bonus was discontinued by one firm.

Cigar manufacturing: A 14 per cent increase, affecting 90 per cent of the employees, was given by one firm. All the force in one concern received a 10 per cent increase, while 90 per cent of the men in another factory were given a wage rate increase of approximately 10 per cent. One establishment reported a $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent increase, affecting 85 per cent of the employees.

Men's ready-made clothing: All of the employees in one establishment received a 10 per cent increase.

Cotton finishing: One firm reported a 14 per cent increase, affecting 9 per cent of the employees.

Cotton manufacturing: All the employees in two plants received a wage rate increase of 10 per cent, while another firm granted an increase of approximately 10 per cent to the entire force. One establishment gave a 7 per cent increase to all the men and one factory reported an increase of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, affecting all of the force.

Hosiery and underwear: One establishment reported an average increase of about 13.2 per cent to about 8 per cent of the employees. All of the employees in one firm received a wage rate increase of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Three concerns granted a 10 per cent increase, affecting all of the force in two factories and 25 per cent of the men in the third establishment. Twenty per cent of the employees in one mill were granted an increase of approximately 8 per cent.

Iron and steel: All of the employees in one plant received an increase of 14 per cent. Twenty-nine establishments granted a 10 per cent increase; in 11 of these all employees were affected; in 8, practically all; in 1, 90 per cent; in another, 75 per cent: in 2, 663 per cent; and in the remaining 6, 65 per cent, 60 per cent, about 60 per cent, 50 per cent, 3 per cent, and all the day men. respectively. An increase of approximately 10 per cent was reported by three mills, affecting all the employees in one concern, about 96 per cent of the force in the second firm, and 90 per cent of the men in the third establishment. Another plant reported a 10 per cent increase but made no further statement. One plant changed the bonus from 55 to 65 per cent. One concern granted increases ranging from 7 to 10 per cent, to 70 per cent of the employees. All of the employees in one establishment were given an increase of 9½ per cent, while all the men in another mill were granted a 9 per cent increase. An increase of 8.9 per cent, affecting 90.3 per cent of the force, was reported by one concern. Three establishments gave an 8 per cent increase, affecting all the men in two concerns, and 50 per cent of the employees in the third mill. All of the force in one plant were given an increase of 6.9 per cent, and the entire force of another firm were granted a 5 per cent increase. Six firms reported an increase of 2.3 per cent but made no further statement. An increase of 2 per cent, affecting 10.8 per cent of the employees, was reported by one plant.

Leather manufacturing: One establishment gave an increase of 15 per cent to 25 per cent of the employees, and one-third of the men in another plant received a $11\frac{1}{2}$ per cent increase. Practically all the men in one concern were given an increase of approximately $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Paper making: One establishment gave a 10 per cent increase to all of the employees and another firm reported an increase of 10 per cent but failed to state the number of persons affected. Two mills granted an increase of approximately 10 per cent, affecting all the employees in one plant and 75 per cent of the force in the other. One concern gave increases ranging from 4 to 10 per cent to the entire force. An increase of 8 per cent, affecting 13.4 per cent of the men, was reported by one mill. Approximately 40 per cent of the employees in another establishment received an increase of 6 per cent, while 17.7 per cent of the employees in another plant received an increase of 5.8 per cent. One concern reported an increase to all the force but did not state the amount of the increase, while another plant reported a general advance in wages but made no further statement.

Silk: An increase of 20 per cent, affecting 50 per cent of the employees, was reported by one concern, while the entire force in

one establishment received an increase of about 17 per cent, and about 79 per cent of the employees in another mill were granted a 15 per cent increase. An increase of 12½ per cent, affecting about 9 per cent of the men, was reported by one firm, while another concern gave a 12 per cent increase to 30 per cent of the force. Five establishments reported a 10 per cent increase, affecting all of the employees in two mills, 60 per cent of the men in another plant, 50 per cent of the employees of the fourth firm, and 20 per cent of the force in the fifth concern. Ninety per cent of the force in one establishment were given a wage increase of about 10 per cent. One concern reported an increase of 8 per cent, affecting 40 per cent of the employees, while another plant reported a 6 per cent increase, affecting 45 per cent of the employees. Twenty per cent of the men in one mill were given a 5 per cent increase. All of the men in one mill received an increase of \$2 a week and all the women an increase of \$1 a week. One establishment gave the weavers, or about 60 per cent of the force, an increase of 5 cents per hour.

Finding Employment for Disabled Civilians in the United States.

By GERTRUDE R. STEIN.1

HE Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men, 101 East Twenty-third Street, New York City, formerly the Red Cross Institute, has recently compiled tables to show what jobs men with certain disabilities have secured through its bureau. Most of the claims made as to the working ability of crippled men have been speculative. The institute now has records of about 2,200 cases of men and boys suffering from orthopedic difficulties. There is a great deal of statistical information in these records which might be of use to others undertaking work with disabled civilians. The institute is anxious to make these facts of use to any organization interested, and welcomes inquiries.

The institute secured 1,800 positions for crippled men and boys during its first two years. It does not maintain a general bureau for the handicapped, but studies opportunities for orthopedic cases only. The institute realized early in its history that the orthopedic cases were only a small part of the general problem. It felt, however, that in as technical and experimental a subject as this it was better to try to do a small job thoroughly rather than to attempt to cover the whole field superficially.

¹ Employment secretary, Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men.

When the institute started its employment bureau the secretaries found difficulty in persuading employers to take disabled men. The whole idea of having crippled workmen was a new one to many. Even some of the workmen were surprised that the world expected them to "carry on" again. Applicants came to the bureau who had not worked in 10 or 15 years. Their friends and relatives had treated them as though there was no possibility of their ever again being among the employed. It has been very gratifying, as the bureau has progressed, to see the increasing variety of positions open to the handicapped, and the increasing number of cripples who have started out for a second time on their industrial careers.

In placement work for the handicapped it is difficult to lay down rules. For one cripple it is essential that he get work near home. He may secure congenial and a very good paying position, but if it is necessary for him to travel by subway he will be irregular and unpunctual. A man with spinal trouble frequently can stand or sit at work, but these postures must be varied. If he keeps in one position for any length of time the pain becomes excessive. Another man is so foreign that he can not work in a factory where the foreman is not of his nationality. There are many other complicating circumstances, such as hours, sanitary conditions, wages, etc. In placing cripples we have all the difficulties of the placement of the normal man plus many others.

The fact that the institute has placed 1,800 men is not so encouraging as it appears. There are many errors in these placements. Some of these men would have received more satisfactory positions if the secretaries had possessed the information they have since obtained. We are only in the very beginning of this science of rehabilitation. We have much to learn, and, unfortunately for those with whom we

work, we have to learn through our errors.

One result of this survey is the discovery of how few men with arm amputations (only 165) have been placed. Many of these placements have unfortunately not been constructive. This has certainly been the hardest task the institute has had before it. A one-armed man can not place himself without almost superhuman effort. Although the institute bureau has concentrated its greatest efforts on this problem of the arm case the results have not been large. A few very constructive placements however, were made, such as those of painter, welder, insurance investigator, milling machine tender, electrical engineer, nickel plater, etc. The bureau is always on the search for jobs for which men with arm disabilities can be trained.

Occupations of Disabled Civilians.

Right arm amputated (84 men).

Building maintenance: Nun	nber.	Trade workers: Num	aber
Door man	4	Button sorter	
Elevator operator	7	Machine tender	
Fireman	1	Novelties	
Porter	7	Rubber sorter	
Switchboard operator	3	Toys	
Watchman	11	Varnisher, painter, etc	
Clerical work:		Welder	
Checker	1	Woodworker	
Clerk	7	Miscellaneous:	
Stock clerk	2	Machine tender	
Technical workers:		Messenger	20
Draftsman	4	News stand	4
Left arm o	атри	tated (80 men).	
Building maintenance: Num	nber	Num	ber
Door man	2	Professional and technical—Concl'd.	
Elevator operator	5	Insurance inspector	1
Handy man	1	Recreation director	
Laborer	1	Social worker	
Porter.	5	Trade worker:	
Relief man, subway	1	Buttons	
Stable man	1	Metal	
Switchboard operator	4	Nickel plater	
Watchman	10	Packer.	
Clerical work:	10	Painting.	-
Office boy	1	Pencils (milling, drilling, etc.).	
Salesman or collector	3	Polishers, metal	-
Professional and technical:	U	Welder.	
Building inspector	1	Miscellaneous:	
Draftsman	3		0.
Electrical engineer	1	Messenger	21
	ally d	lisabled (217 men). ²	
Building maintenance: Num	ber.	Clerical workers: Num	ber.
Caretaker	1	Cashier	2
Door man	5	Charge of records	1
Elevator operator	22	Checker	
Fireman, assistant	1	Clerk	1
Gateman	1	Errand boy	4
Handy man	3	Office boy	
House man	3	Post-office clerk	
	25	Salesman	
Porter			6
	1	Shipping clerk	
Sweeper	1	Shipping clerk	
SweeperSwitchboard operator	1	Stock and time clerk	2
Sweeper. Switchboard operator Watchman.	$\begin{vmatrix} 1\\26 \end{vmatrix}$	Stock and time clerk Technical:	2
SweeperSwitchboard operator	1	Stock and time clerk	

² Including paralysis, fractures, finger amputations, deformed arms, etc.

Addressing				
Biscuit factory		-		
Button factory				
Cabinet worker	Biscuit factory	1		
Chemical factory	Button factory	1		
Drill press. 2 Repairing vacuums 1	Cabinet worker	1	Pencil factory	3
Dye factory	Chemical factory	1	Piano factory	3
Dye factory	Drill press	2	Repairing vacuums	1
Electric specialties.			Shoe factory	1
Film inspector. 5 Furniture (loring machine) 1 Wire machine. 1 Glass lapping 1 Woodworker. 3 Machine shop. 2 Machine shop. 2 Machine shop. 2 Machine shop. 2 Miscellaneous: Miscellaneous: 1 Millinery factory 1 Millinery factory. 1 Farm laborer. 1 Millinery factory. 2 Guard duty. 3 Novelty factory. 2 Miscellaneous: 1 Optical (learner). 1 Messenger. 26 Packer. 1 Messenger. 26 Packer. 1 Trucking. 1 Truck				4
Furniture (boring machine)		-		1
Machine shop.	*			1
Machine shop. 2 Miscellaneous: 1 Mathress factory. 1 Car cleaner (taxi). 1 Millinery factory. 1 Farm laborer. 1 Motion-picture operator. 2 Guard duty. 3 Novelty factory. 2 Kitchen man. 5 Operator, ladies' waists. 1 Laborer. 1 Optical (learner). 1 Messenger. 26 Packer. 1 Trucking. 1 Both legs amputated or paralyzed (84 men). Building maintenance: Number. Number. Autogovernor. 1 Elevator operator. 6 Switchboard operator. 3 Bindery. 1 Elevator operator. 6 Switchboard operator. 3 Bindery. 1 Clerical and technical: 1 Checker. 1 Buitons. 2 Clerical and technical: 2 Dolls. 2 Checker. 1 Electrical specialties. 4 Clerical. 2 <td></td> <td></td> <td></td> <td>3</td>				3
Machine welding. 10 Car cleaner (taxi). 1 Mattress factory. 1 Chauffeur. 1 Millinery factory. 2 Chauffeur. 1 Motion-picture operator. 2 Guard duty. 3 Novelty factory. 2 Kitchen man. 5 Operator, ladies' waists. 1 Laborer. 1 Optical (learner). 1 Messenger. 26 Packer. 1 Messenger. 26 Trucking. 1 Messenger. 26 Switchboard operator. 6 Switchboard operator. 6 Switchboard operator. 3 Bindery. 1 Cashier. 1 Bulttons. 2 2 Cashier. 1 Bulttons. 2 Cashier. 1 Bulttons. 2 Cashier. 1 Bulttons. 2 Clerical and technical: 2 Dolls. 2 Clerical and technical: 2 Film inspector. 1				
Mattrees factory				1
Millinery factory				
Motion-picture operator 2 Guard duty 3 Novelty factory 2 Kitchen man 5 Operator, ladies' waists 1 Laborer 1 Optical (learner) 1 Messenger 26 6 Packer 1 Trucking 1 Trucking				
Novelty factory				
Novely set Comparison Com				
Doptical (learner)				
Both legs amputated or paralyzed (84 men).				
Building maintenance: Number. Elevator operator. 6 Switchboard operator. 3 Bindery. 1 Buitons. 2 2 Cashier. 1 Checker. 1 Electrical specialties. 4 Clerical. 2 Film inspector. 1 Electrical specialties. 4 Electrical specialties.				
Building maintenance: Number. Elevator operator. 6 Switchboard operator. 3 Bindery. 1 Buttons. 2 Cashier. 1 Checker. 1 Electrical specialties. 4 Clerical 2 Film inspector. 1 Electrical specialties. 4	Packer	1	Trucking	1
Elevator operator	Both legs an	nputated	or paralyzed (84 men).	
Elevator operator.	Building maintenance:	Number.	Other trade work: Numb	oer.
Switchboard operator			A safe organization on	1
Buttons 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2			Bindery	
Cashier 1 Dolls 2 Checker 1 Electrical specialties 4 Clerical 2 Film inspector 1 Draftsman 2 Fire extinguisher 2 Stenographer 3 Flags 2 Typist 1 Fountain pens 8 Jewelry, etc.: Furrier 1 Gilding 1 Gold pens 1 Silversmith (learner) 1 Hardware polishing 1 Stone setter 1 Jewelry cases 1 Watch repairing 1 Mechanic 1 Metals 3 Paper fasteners 4 Novelties 4 A Soldering 3 Press clippings 5 Woodworking and furniture: Rubber 1 Air-brush worker 2 Thermometers 2 Mirror polishing 1 Tools 1 Piano actions 3 Toys 5 Wick			Buttons	
Checker 1 Electrical specialties 4 Clerical 2 Film inspector 1 Draftsman 2 Fire extinguisher 2 Stenographer 3 Flags 2 Typist 1 Fountain pens 8 Jewelry, etc. 5 Furrier 1 Gilding 1 Gold pens 1 Silversmith (learner) 1 Hardware polishing 1 Stone setter 1 Jewelry cases 1 Watch repairing 1 Mechanic 1 Metals and machinery 1 Novelties 4 Metals 3 Paper fasteners 1 Soldering 3 Press clippings 5 Woodworking and furniture 2 Thermometers 2 Mirror polishing 1 Tools 1 Piano actions 3 Toys 3 Wicker furniture 1 Typewriter assembling 1 Woodworking		1	Dolls	2
Clerical			Electrical specialties	4
Draftsman			Film inspector	1
Stenographer 3 Flags 2 Typist 1 Fountain pens 8 Jewelry, etc.: Furrier 1 Gilding 1 Gold pens 1 Silversmith (learner) 1 Hardware polishing 1 Stone setter 1 Jewelry cases 1 Watch repairing 1 Mechanic 1 Metals and machinery: Novelties 4 Metals 3 Paper fasteners 1 Soldering 3 Press clippings 5 Woodworking and furniture: Rubber 1 Air-brush worker 2 Thermometers 2 Mirror polishing 1 Tools 1 Piano actions 3 Toys 5 Wicker furniture 1 Typewriter assembling 1 Woodworking 1 Whistles 1 One leg amputated (368 men) 1 Gateman 1 Domestic 1 House man 1 <td></td> <td></td> <td>mit 1</td> <td>2</td>			mit 1	2
Typist.			931	2
Jewelry, etc.: Gilding			-	8
Gilding. 1 Gold pens. 1 Silversmith (learner) 1 Hardware polishing. 1 Stone setter. 1 Jewelry cases. 1 Watch repairing. 1 Mechanic. 1 Metals and machinery: Novelties. 4 Metals. 3 Paper fasteners. 1 Soldering. 3 Press clippings. 5 Woodworking and furniture: Rubber. 1 Air-brush worker. 2 Thermometers. 2 Mirror polishing. 1 Tools. 1 Piano actions. 3 Toys. 5 Wicker furniture. 1 Typewriter assembling. 1 Woodworking. 1 Whistles. 1 Done leg amputated (368 men). 1 Building maintenance: Number. Gateman. 1 Door man. 1 House man. 1 Elevators. 21 Kitchen man. 2 Fireman. 2 Night man.<				1
Silversmith (learner) 1 Hardware polishing 1 Stone setter 1 Jewelry cases 1 Watch repairing 1 Mechanic 1 Metals and machinery: Novelties 4 Metals 3 Paper fasteners 1 Soldering 3 Press clippings 5 Woodworking and furniture: Rubber 1 Air-brush worker 2 Thermometers 2 Mirror polishing 1 Tools 1 Piano actions 3 Toys 5 Wicker furniture 1 Typewriter assembling 1 Woodworking 1 Whistles 1 Done leg amputated (368 men) 1 Building maintenance Number Gateman 1 Door man 1 House man 1 Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Fireman 2 Night man 1		4	0.11	1
Stone setter			77 7 12 12 13	1
Watch repairing				
Metals and machinery: Novelties. 4 Metals			37 3 1	
Metals 3 Paper fasteners 1 Soldering 3 Press clippings 5 Woodworking and furniture: Rubber 1 Air-brush worker 2 Thermometers 2 Mirror polishing 1 Tools 1 Piano actions 3 Toys 5 Wicker furniture 1 Typewriter assembling 1 Woodworking 1 Whistles 1 One leg amputated (368 men) 1 Building maintenance—Con Number Domestic 1 Gateman 1 Door man 1 House man 1 Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Fireman 2 Night man 1				
Soldering 3 Press clippings 5	Metals and machinery:		m 1 .	
Woodworking and furniture:	Metals			
Air-brush worker	Soldering			
Mirror polishing	Woodworking and furniture:			
Piano actions 3 Toys. 5 Wicker furniture 1 Typewriter assembling 1 Woodworking 1 Whistles. 7 One leg amputated (368 men). Building maintenance: Number. Building maintenance—Con. Number. Domestic 1 Gateman 1 Door man 1 House man 1 Elevators 21 Kitchen man 5 Fireman 2 Night man 1	Air-brush worker	5	2 Thermometers	
Piano actions 3 Toys 3 Wicker furniture 1 Typewriter assembling 1 Woodworking 1 Whistles 1 One leg amputated (368 men) Building maintenance Number Building maintenance—Con Number Domestic 1 Gateman 1 Door man 1 House man 1 Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Fireman 2 Night man 1	Mirror polishing		Tools	1
Wicker furniture. 1 Typewriter assembling. 1 Woodworking. 1 Whistles. 1 One leg amputated (368 men). Building maintenance: Number. Building maintenance—Con. Number. Domestic. 1 Gateman. 1 Door man. 1 House man. 1 Elevators. 21 Kitchen man. 2 Fireman. 2 Night man. 1	Piano actions		Toys	3
Woodworking. 1 Whistles. One leg amputated (368 men). Building maintenance: Number. Building maintenance—Con. Number Gateman. Door man 1 House man 1 House man 1 Kitchen man 2 Night man 1			Typewriter assembling	1
Building maintenance: Number Building maintenance—Con. Number Gateman Door man 1 House man Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Night man 1			WWW 1 13	1
Building maintenance: Number Building maintenance—Con. Number Gateman Door man 1 House man Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Night man 1			utated (368 men).	
Domestic 1 Gateman 1 Door man 1 House man 1 Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Fireman 2 Night man 3				ber.
Door man 1 House man Elevators 21 Kitchen man Fireman 2 Night man			~	1
Elevators 21 Kitchen man 2 Fireman 2 Night man 1				1
Fireman 2 Night man				2
Fireman				1
[880]	Fireman			1
		I	980]	

Building maintenance-Concl'd. Num	ber.	Trade work—Concluded. Num	aber.
Pantry helper	1	Foot press	1
Switchboard operator	9	Fountain pens	14
Watchman	4	Gas iron	1
Clerical, professional, and technical:		Gold pens	1
Addresser	2	Handkerchiefs (cutting)	1
Bookkeeper	2	Hospital supplies (bench)	1
Caretaker, truant school	1		
		Kitchen utensils (bench)	2
Checker	1	Lace and nettings	1
Clerk	13	Lacquering switchboard	2
Draftsman	2	Lamps	1
Engraver	3	Lapidary	1
Filing clerk	1	Leather (punching)	3
Hotel clerk	2	Light factory	1
Information clerk	1	Machinist	11
Night clerk	2	Mechanic's helper	1
Post-office clerk	2	Millinery	4
Shipping clerk	4	Motor brushes.	1
Stenographer	1	Novelties.	10
Stock clerk	2	Nuts (shelling)	1
Time keeper	2		2
Trade work:	4	Packer, department store	
	7	Paper	2
Air brush	1	Pasting clippings	6
Ammunition	1	Patterns (machinist)	1
Artificial limbs	10	Pencils	2
Auto governors	1	Pianos (assembling)	16
Automobiles	1	Picture frames (painting)	3
Auto radiators	2	Polishing hardware	8
Batteries	1	Post cards	2
Bindery	1	Printing machine	2
Book covers	2	Shoes	5
Braids	1	Solderer	1
Brass	3	Surgical	1
Brushes	15	Talking machines	1
Buttons	17		
Cabinet maker	1	Thermometers	1
		Toys	8
Candy	4	Typewriters	2
Cans (soldering)	1	Typewriter repairer	3
Celluloid (buffer)	1	Watches (learners)	2
Cigar rolling	1	Welding	26
Clothing	1	Whistles	1
Combs	4	Willow work	1
Crating furniture	1	Wire factory	3
Dictograph assembling	1	Woodworking	1
Dies, lathe	1	Miscellaneous:	
Dolls.	4	Chauffeur, department store	1
Drill press	4		2
Electrical specialties	14	Drivers	
Expansion bolt (emery wheel).	2	Farm	1
Feathers	1	Film inspector	8
	-	Locksmith	1
Filling cans	1	Plumber's assistant	1
Fire extinguishers	8	Salesman	2
FlagsFlowers (varnishing)	1	Waiter	1

Paralysis of right or left side (90 men).

Building maintenance:	Number.	Trade work—Concluded. Num	iber.
Domestic	1	Buttons	1
Door man	2	Dolls	1
Elevator operator	14	Drill press	1
Kitchen man		Electric novelties	1
Porter	6	Film inspector	4
Switchboard operator		Gold pens	2
Watchman		Metal worker	4
Clerical and technical:		Painting flowers	1
Assistant shipping clerk	1	Painting furniture	1
Clerk		Pencils	1
Draftsman, maps		Polishing hardware	2
Electrical inspector		Toys	
Index room clerk		Woodworker	3
Information clerk	1	Miscellaneous:	
Salesman	1	Delivery man	1
Time clerk		Embroiderer	1
Trade work:		Messenger	14
Blue prints	1	News stand	2
Bookbinder	7	Ticket agent	1

Spinal injuries and Potts disease (84 men).

Building maintenance:	Number.	Trade work—Concluded: Num	aber.
Door man		Film inspector	3
Elevator operator	3	Fire extinguishers	5
Floor man		Flags	
Gate keeper	1	Fountain pens	8
Hall man	1	Gilding	
Kitchen man	1	Glass blower (learner)	1
Switchboard operator	1	Hardware	1
Watchman		Jeweler (learner)	1
Clerical and technical:		Leather	2
Addressing clerk	1	Machinist	2
Clerk		Metal	
Draftsman	2	Motion-picture operator	1
Errand clerk		Nut cracker	1
Receiving clerk	1	Pianos	2
Shipping clerk	3	Post cards	1
Trade work:		Shoes	4
Brass (helper)	1	Solderer	1
Brushes		Talking machines	1
Clippings	6	Туре	1
Electric batteries		Woodworking	1
Electric irons (repairer)	1	Miscellaneous:	
Electric specialties	5	Messenger	1
Factory			

Locomotor ataxia (14 men).

Building maintenance:	Gateman	Locomot	tor at	axia (14 men).	
Door man.	Door man	Gateman. Clerical: Adding-machine operator. Cashier. Night clerk. Salesman	1 1 1 1 1	Buttons Dolls (painting) Factory Fountain pens Pianos Polishing metal. Power press (hair wavers). Typewriter repair.	2 1 1 1 1 1 1
Door man	Door man	Her	mia (19 men).	
Building maintenance: Number. Clerical, etc.—Concluded. Number. Assistant janitor. 3 Index clerk. 1 Coal passer. 1 Night clerk. 9 Domestic. 1 Receiving clerk. 1 Door man. 7 Shipping clerk. 6 Elevator operator. 73 Stock clerk. 5 Engineer, apartment. 2 Timekeeper. 3 Gateman. 1 Typist. 1 Guard. 1 Electric specialties: 1 Handy man. 1 Batteries. 1 House man. 5 Electric repairer (vacuums). 2 Kitchen assistant. 12 Electric specialties: 41 Porter. 30 Flash-lights. 1 Telephone operator. 17 Wiring fixtures. 5 Jewelry and watches: 1 Watchman. 30 Polisher and learner. 15 Gerical, etc.: Watch repairer. 4	Building maintenance:	Door man Elevator operator Engineer, apartment Engineer, wire works Porter Clerical: Errands	1 6 1 1 3	Hardware. Paper fasteners. Miscellaneous: Candy stand.	1 1
Assistant janitor 3 Index clerk 1 Coal passer 1 Night clerk 9 Domestic 1 Receiving clerk 1 Door man 7 Shipping clerk 6 Elevator operator 73 Stock clerk 5 Engineer, apartment 2 Timekeeper 3 Gateman 1 Typist 1 Guard 1 Electric specialties: 1 Handy man 1 Batteries 1 House man 5 Electric repairer (vacuums) 2 Kitchen assistant 12 Electric specialties: 41 Porter 30 Flash-lights 1 Telephone operator 17 Wiring fixtures 5 Usher 1 Flash-lights 1 Waiter 1 Polisher and learner 1 Watchman 30 Polisher and learner 15 Clerical, etc.: Watch repairer 4 Addressograph	Assistant janitor	Lameness	(774	men and boys).	
		Assistant janitor Coal passer Domestic Door man Elevator operator Engineer, apartment Gateman Guard Handy man House man Kitchen assistant Porter Telephone operator Usher Waiter Watchman Clerical, etc.: Addressograph Billing clerk Bookkeeper and stenographer Cashier Charge of office Checker Clerk Draftsman Errand boy	3 1 7 733 2 1 1 1 5 12 30 17 1 1 1 30 2 6 6 12 5 6 6 2 1 2 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	Index clerk. Night clerk. Receiving clerk. Shipping clerk. Stock clerk. Timekeeper. Typist. Electric specialties: Batteries. Electric repairer (vacuums). Electric specialties. Flash-lights. Wiring fixtures. Jewelry and watches: Optician (learner). Polisher and learner. Watch repairer. Metal and machinery: Assembling. Bench work. Drill press. Foot press. Grinder. Inspector. Machinist. Metal worker	1 9 1 6 5 3 1 1 2 41 1 5 1 1 5 4 6 8 8 2 2 1 6 1 8

Metal and machinery—Concl'd. Num	ber.	Other trade work—Concluded. Num	
Solderer	8	Laundry folder	2
Surgical instruments	1	Lead	1
Tinsmith	1	Leather belts	8
Tool-room clerk	1	Magnetos (assembling)	2
Welder	17	Mattresses	2
Woodworking and furniture:		Millinery	1
Air brush work	2	Mitts	2
Artificial-limb maker	4	Multicolor	1
Picture frames	2	Nickel plating (buffing)	1
Scraping varnish	1	Novelties	14
Woodworking	6	Packer	11
Other trade work:		Paint manufacturing	1
Airplanes	1	Paper boxes	2
Auto governors	4	Pattern making (bronze)	1
Baking powder	1	Pencils	8
Ball bearing	1	Perfumes	1
Bindery	1	Pianos (bench work)	20
Bird cages	2	Pillows	1
Brush factory	20	Plate washing (engraving)	2
Button factory	12	Pocketbooks	1
Chain manufacturing	1	Polishers, hardware	8
Changeable signs (assembling).	1	Printing (feeder)	1
Clipping bureau	13	Razor blades	1
Combs	2	Shoe lasts	5
Cord and tassels	1	Stenciling post cards	1
Cork manufacturing	1	Tailor	1
Doll factory	5	Thermometers	3
Dress forms	1	Toy factory	12
Film examiner	9	Type manufacturing	1
Fire extinguishers	14	Typewriter factory	11
Flags	1	Umbrella handles	5
Flowers	1	Whistles	1
Flowers (painting)	3	Wire work (florists')	1
Fountain pens	51	Miscellaneous:	
Furs	1	Chauffeur	1
Gas masks	1	Driver	9
Glass lappers	2	Gardener	1
**	1	Messenger	9
Hardware	1	Salesman	1
Indexes.	3	Soda fountain clerk	1
Lace (assorting)	6	Ticket agent	2
Lamp factory	0	TICKET agent	4

Reabsorption of Labor and Unemployment in the United Kingdom.

Compiled by N. C. ADAMS.

HE total number of men demobilized from the forces in the United Kingdom as of February 18, 1920, was 4,187,709, of which number 197,713 were officers and 3,989,996 were of other ranks. On the same date 102,147 women had been demobilized from the several women's auxiliary branches of the service. Presumably all women in these branches of the service will be demobilized, in which case some 5,000 are yet to be released.

Table 1.—DEMOBILIZATION OF HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES, BY SERVICE AND RANK, UP TO FEBRUARY 18, 1920.

Strength at signing of armistice.1	Numbers to be demo- bilized. ²	Numbers demobilized or discharged up to Feb. 18, 1920.
37, 196	21,719	24, 328
375, 973	171,814	247, 804
167, 118	114, 600	147, 209
3, 816, 242	2, 373, 284	3 3, 499, 346
29, 696	20, 218	26, 176
276, 809	180, 721	242, 846
234, 010	156, 537	197, 713
4, 469, 024	2, 725, 819	3, 989, 996
	37, 196 375, 973 167, 118 3, 816, 242 29, 696 276, 809	signing of armistice.1 to be demo-bilized.2 37, 196 21, 719 171, 814 167, 118 114, 600 2, 373, 284 29, 696 20, 218 276, 809 180, 721 234, 010 156, 537

Plus subsequent additions.
 Original expectations.

There was a continuous week-to-week reduction in unemployment in the United Kingdom from the beginning of May, 1919, up to the last of September, when the railway strike took place and the long-drawn-out molders' strike began.

The total number of persons on the live registers of employment exchanges April 25, 1919, was 1,257,160, which number had decreased to 530,336 on September 19, but up to the end of January, 1920, the total had not again been so low, while twice during the period the weekly live register totals exceeded 600,000. Following the molders' strike settlement, January 22, 1920, the week-to-week reduction was resumed, and February 6, 1920, the September 19, 1919, total was lowered for the first time. On February 13 the total had fallen below a half million, the figures being 493,273.

² On Mar. 5, 1920, the total had fallen to 425,157.

³ In addition about 150,000 are still to be demobilized.

¹ Unless otherwise indicated, the figures used in this article are copied from the weekly reports on demobilization and resettlement prepared under the direction of the Controller of Statistics of the British Ministry of Labor.

For previous reports see Monthly Labor Review for May, 1919, pp. 85 to 100, and September, 1919, pp. 135 to 161.

To illustrate the amount of unemployment caused by the iron molding and core making trades' strike the Weekly Report for November 25, 1919, says: "After more than nine weeks' duration the number on strike is between 40,000 and 50,000. The number of men and boys with policies lodged in shipbuilding, engineering, and iron and steel trades is 118,794, or an increase of nearly 50,000 over the figures of September 19, the donation week preceding the strike." This strike was settled on January 22, 1920, and work was resumed four days later. The strike had lasted more than four months, and it is estimated that at some time during that period 100,000 in allied trades were thrown out of employment, in addition to the 50,000 on strike."

The out-of-work donation scheme under which benefits were payable to those demobilized from the forces for a period of 26 weeks was, in May, 1919, extended for a second period of 26 weeks, and, again, in November, 1919, a further extension was made under

modified terms for the period ending March 31, 1920.4

The highest point in civilian unemployment was reached on March 7, 1919, when 790,519 policies were lodged. From that date the number rapidly fell to 100,730 on September 26, and the reduction would doubtless have continued but for the combined effect of the railway strike and the iron molders' dispute. The scrutiny by employment committees had resulted in the refusal of 40,700 original civilian policies, 70,400 extended policies to November 21, nearly 70 per cent of these refusals being in respect of women. It should also be noted that more than 53,000 men and women had exhausted the full extended period of donation.

Reabsorption—His Majesty's Forces.

THE resettlement reports of the Ministry of Labor are now presenting reabsorption statistics for ex-service men on the basis of the difference between the number demobilized whose furlough has expired and the number drawing unemployment benefit. "This method gives a more accurate figure than the method formerly used 5 but is still an understatement of reabsorption in view of the fact that the men discharged prior to the armistice who have been issued with His Majesty's Forces policies are omitted from the total available for donation, their number being at present not ascertainable, though policies lodged by such men are included." The reabsorption of women is still calculated only for those women to whom policies have been issued, a number less than 20 per cent of the total demobi-

³ The molders finally accepted a 5s. (\$1.22, par) increase in place of the 15s. (\$3.65, par) demanded, on the understanding that a joint inquiry into working conditions of the trade would be held forthwith.

<sup>See Monthly Labor Review, February, 1920, pp. 228, 229.
See Monthly Labor Review, September, 1919, pp. 136-138.</sup>

lized. A large proportion of the remaining 80 per cent either are not customarily employed or are trained workers such as nurses, motor drivers, etc., who have little or no difficulty in placing themselves.

The original plan to demobilize by industries and in accordance with industrial needs was not strictly followed, and after September 30 the publication of the analysis of the dispersal certificates by industrial groups was discontinued, as it was found by investigation to be unsafe to assume that all demobilized men had returned to the industries in which they were grouped under the army classification.

Table 2 shows the progress of the reabsorption in industry of demobilized members of the Forces, both men and women. It will be seen that only 8.9 per cent of the demobilized men whose furlough had expired were without employment February 6, 1920, while 21.9 per cent of the demobilized women to whom policies had been issued were still unemployed.

TABLE 2.-PROGRESS OF REABSORPTION OF HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES INTO INDUSTRY.

			J	Demobilized	men.				
		Furlough expired.							
Date.	On furlough.	Unemp	loyed.	Reabsorb indust		m 1	Total.		
		Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	Total.			
Jan. 17. Feb. 7. Mar. 7. Apr. 4. May 2	842, 155	40,400 63,277 200,686 336,570 402,151	18.7 15.4 16.0 16.9 17.3	175, 855 347, 161 1,051, 907 1,656, 543 1,921, 870	81.3 84.6 84.0 83.1 82.7	216, 255 410, 438 1, 252, 593 1, 993, 113 2, 324, 021	558, 308 1, 252, 593 1, 993, 113 2, 324, 021 2, 501, 534		
June 6. July 4 Aug. 1. Sept. 5. Sept. 16.	156, 121 143, 241 92, 495 134, 692 204, 104	383, 570 363, 926 264, 570 324, 786 300, 251	14.4 12.9 12.3 10.5 9.5	2, 276, 930 2, 452, 695 2, 595, 292 2, 746, 973 2, 847, 361	85.6 87.1 87.7 89.5 90.5	2,660,500 2,816,621 2,959,862 3,071,759 3,147,613	2,816,621 2,959,862 3,052,357 3,206,451 3,351,716		
Oct. 3 and 10. Oct. 17. Nov. 7. Nov. 14. Nov. 21.	226, 232	(1) 334,616 336,523 342,000 348,955	(1) 10. 2 9. 9 9. 9 9. 9	(1) 2,959,125 3,054,662 3,105,343 3,155,958	(1) 89.8 90.1 90.0 90.0	(1) 3,293,741 3,391,185 3,447,343 3,504,913	(1) 3,447,343 3,617,417 3,652,789 3,695,081		
Nov. 28. Dec. 5 Dec. 12. Dec. 19. Dec. 26.	173, 811 137, 070 107, 397 80, 762 (2)	353,868 344,741 356,069 365,435 (2)	9.9 9.6 9.7 9.9 (2)	3,192,200 3,257,480 3,296,720 3,329,646 (2)	90.1 90.4 90.3 90.1 (2)	3,545,868 3,602,221 3,652,789 3,695,081 (2)	3,719,679 3,739,291 3,760,186 3,775,843		
Jan. 2 Jan. 9 Jan. 16 Jan. 23	63,459 53,626 49,850 43,842	377, 957 388, 139 391, 422 380, 293	10.1 10.3 10.3 10.1	3,361,334 3,372,047 3,384,421 3,409,863	89. 9 89. 7 89. 7 89. 9	3,739,291 3,760,186 3,775,843 3,790,156	3,802,750 3,813,812 3,825,693 3,833,998		
Jan. 30 Feb. 6 Feb. 13 Feb. 20	37,163	372,173 339,294 323,725 306,284	9. 8 8. 9	3,430,577 3,486,935	90. 2 91. 1	3,802,750 3,826,229	3,840,352 3,863,392		

¹ No report owing to railway strike.

170775°-20-11

[987]

² No report; next report covers 2 weeks.

TABLE 2.—PROGRESS OF REABSORPTION OF HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES INTO INDUSTRY—Concluded.

		Totalreabs indust					
Date.	Policies	Policies	Per cent	Reabsor		Number.	Per
	issued.	lodged.	ployed.	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	cent.
Jan. 17	1,595 2,236 2,992 3,877 5,325	131 380 1,025 961 1,316	8. 2 17. 0 34. 1 24. 8 24. 7	1,464 1,856 1,967 2,916 4,009	91.8 83.0 65.9 75.2 75.3	177, 319 349, 017 1, 053, 874 1, 659, 359 1, 925, 879	81.9 84.0 83.9 83.0 82.3
June 6. July 4 Aug. 1. Sept. 5. Sept. 26.	6,584 7,304 8,070 8,794 9,442	2,082 2,271 2,101 1,965 2,021	31.6 31.1 26.0 22.4 21.4	4,502 5,033 5,969 6,829 7,421	68. 4 68. 9 74. 0 77. 6 78. 6	2,281,432 2,457,728 2,601,261 2,753,802 2,854,782	85.6 86.0 87.6 89.3 90.5
Oct, 3 and 10 Oct, 17 Nov. 7 Nov. 14 Nov. 21	(3) 11,029 12,903 13,482 14,079	(3) 3,332 4,164 4,591 4,954	(3) 30. 2 32. 2 34. 0 35. 2	(3) 7,697 8,739 8,891 9,125	(3) 59.8 67.8 66.0 64.8	2,966,822 3,063,401 3,114,234 3,165,083	(3) 89, 9 90, 0 90, 0
Nov. 28 Dec. 5 Dec. 12 Dec. 19 Dec. 26	17,057 17,935 18,563 19,475 (4)	5,155 5,303 5,566 5,245	30. 2 29. 5 29. 9 27. 0 (4)	11,902 12,632 12,997 14,230 (4)	69.8 70.5 70.1 73.0 (4)	3,204,102 3,270,112 3,309,697 3,343,876 (4)	89. 9 90. 3 90. 4 90. 0 (4)
1920. Jan. 2. Jan. 9. Jan. 16. Jan. 23.	20,484 20,875 21,181 21,497	5,138 5,007 5,073 5,072	25. 0 24. 0 23. 9 23. 6	15,346 15,868 16,108 16,425	75.0 76.0 76.1 76.4	3,376,680 3,387,915 3,490,529 3,426,288	89. 8 89. 6 89. 6
Jan. 30. Feb. 6. Feb. 13. Feb. 20.	21,746 21,955	4,943 4,800 4,548 4,314	22. 7 21. 9	16,803 17,155	77.3 78.1	3,447,380 3,504,090	90. 1 91. 0

³ No report owing to railway strike.

Reabsorption—Civilians.

TABLE 3 shows for civilians the cumulative number of policies issued, the number remaining lodged at specific dates, and the number of unemployed persons reabsorbed into industry as indicated by the difference between policies issued and policies lodged at a given date.

The publication of these statistics was not resumed after the interruption caused by the strikes which focused in September, at which time 95 per cent of the unemployed civilians had been reabsorbed into industry.

⁴ No report; next report covers 2 weeks.

		1	Men.				W	omen.				1	Boys.					Girls.			Total cireabsor	
Date.	Policies issued.	Policies lodged.	Per cent un- em- ploy- ed.	Reab- sorbed.	Per cent reab-sorb-ed.	Policies issued.	Policies lodged.	Per cent un- em- ploy- ed.	Reab- sorbed.	Per cent reab-sorb-ed.		Policies lodged.	Per cent un- em- ploy- ed,	Reab- sorbed.	Per cent reab-sorb-ed.		Policies lodged.	Per cent un- em- ploy- ed.	Reab- sorbed.	Per cent reab-sorb-ed.	Num- ber.	Per cent.
1919. Jan. 10. Feb. 7. Mar. 7. Apr. 4. May 2. June 6. July 4. July 11. July 18. July 25. Aug. 1. Aug. 8. Aug. 15. Aug. 22. Aug. 29. Sept. 5. Sept. 12.	294, 556 391, 586 483, 387 558, 753 621, 675 663, 339 661, 100 667, 776 678, 665 692, 992 703, 834 712, 662 720, 429 726, 115 732, 447	194, 915 201, 188 199, 223 122, 900 91, 980 88, 092 84, 831 86, 872 93, 840 92, 522 89, 858 87, 710	53. 2 49. 8 41. 6 35. 7 19. 8 14. 0 13. 3 12. 7 12. 8 13. 5 13. 1 12. 4 10. 7 9. 3	77, 491 137, 871 196, 671 282, 199 359, 530 498, 775 561, 359 573, 008 582, 945 591, 793 599, 152 611, 312 622, 804 632, 719 647, 360 664, 511 675, 599	46. 8 50. 2 58. 4 64. 3 80. 2 86. 0 86. 7 87. 3 87. 2 86. 5 86. 9 87. 4 87. 6 89. 3 90. 7	552, 835 699, 901 846, 603	469, 089 461, 363 414, 135 164, 000 93, 559 85, 345 77, 986 68, 351 57, 917 56, 043 50, 855 44, 738 36, 612	73. 1 67. 1 54. 5 43. 2 15. 9 8. 8 0 7. 3 6. 3 5. 3 5. 0 4. 6 4. 1 3. 3	114, 810 148, 754 230, 812 385, 240 546, 128 866, 811 997, 904 1, 006, 674 1, 018, 468 1, 035, 422 1, 043, 870 1, 063, 698 1, 075, 054 1, 081, 973	26. 9 32. 9 45. 5 56. 8 84. 1 91. 2 92. 0 92. 7 93. 7 94. 7 95. 0 95. 4 95. 9	48, 091 66, 369 85, 541 188, 767 107, 642 111, 242 112, 176 112, 884 114, 453 116, 716 118, 221 119, 653 120, 695 121, 240 121, 916	22, 632 25, 151 25, 845 22, 704 10, 173 5, 714	47. 1 37. 9	25, 459 41, 218 59, 696 76, 063 97, 469 105, 528 106, 975 108, 068 109, 385 110, 307 112, 106 113, 110 114, 517 116, 324 117, 985	52. 9 62. 1 69. 8 77. 0 90. 5 94. 9 95. 4 95. 7 95. 6 94. 5 94. 5 94. 9 96. 0 96. 8	47, 792 60, 862 75, 844 88, 789 97, 202 100, 883 101, 603 102, 350 103, 014 105, 138 106, 404 107, 638 108, 380 108, 745 109, 194	25, 231 33, 050 29, 757 28, 700 9, 543 5, 692 5, 846 5, 351 4, 988 5, 401 5, 786 4, 941 3, 844 2, 735	52. 8 54. 3 39. 2 32. 4 9. 8 5. 6 5. 7 5. 2 4. 8 5. 6 5. 1 4. 6 3. 5 2. 5	87, 659 95, 191 95, 757 96, 999	47. 2 45. 7 60. 8 67. 6 90. 2 94. 4 94. 3 94. 8 95. 2 94. 4 94. 9 95. 5 97. 5	216, 312 334, 615 496, 513 773, 222 1, 041, 810 1, 550, 714 1, 727, 043 1, 755, 346 1, 779, 916 1, 805, 878 1, 887, 224 1, 889, 433 1, 881, 636 1, 905, 052 1, 993, 283 1, 983, 793	36. 4 40. 8 51. 8 61. 1 83. 5 89. 6 90. 5 91. 0 91. 5 91. 3 91. 9 92. 2 92. 6 93. 6 94. 5

According to the final published report 1,983,793, or 95 per cent of all unemployed civilians in Great Britain to whom unemployment donation policies had been issued from November 25, 1918, to September 12, 1919, had been reabsorbed into industry. Of this number 675,599 were men, 1,081,973 were women, 119,073 were boys, and 107,148 were girls. The highest percentage of unemployment was among men—8.5 per cent; among women, boys, and girls, 2.9, 2.6, and 2.1 per cent, respectively, were unemployed. During the period policies had been issued to 738,350 men, 1,114,514 women, 122,367 boys, and 109,445 girls—a total of 2,084,676.

The out-of-work donation scheme for civilian workers terminated on November 24; therefore the last full week for which figures for civilian out-of-work donation policies published is the week ending November 22.

At that date of the 137,637 civilians who were on donation 72,137 were in insured occupations, and of these latter about 70,000 claimed unemployment insurance on the 28th of November. The total number of civilians claiming unemployment insurance on November 28, 1919, was 102,684.

The number of unemployment books remaining lodged under the 1911 and 1916 national insurance (unemployment) acts is shown by industries in Table 4, from the week following the termination of the out-of-work donation scheme to February 20, 1920.

The effect of the iron molders' strike is easily traced in this table in the steady increase of the figure for males in engineering and allied trades. When the strike terminated (Jan. 22, 1920) nearly 60 per cent more books were lodged for males (total, all insured trades) than at the end of November, while in the same period the number of women's books lodged had decreased over 15 per cent. Four weeks after the termination of the strike the number of men's books had decreased over 30 per cent, showing the very rapid resumption of employment. In the engineering and iron-founding trades alone (males) the decrease in unemployment was over 40 per cent. These figures, of course, relate to civilians only. The effect of this strike and its settlement upon ex-service men's unemployment is shown on pages 166 to 169.

⁶ These had already been insured under unemployment insurance acts of previous years. A new bill to establish general compulsory unemployment insurance was introduced in Parliament by the Minister of Labor on February 16, 1920.

TABLE 4.—NUMBER OF UNEMPLOYMENT BOOKS REMAINING LODGED AT ALL LOCAL OFFICES UNDER THE 1911 AND 1916 NATIONAL INSURANCE (UNEMPLOYMENT) ACTS.

Week ending—	Build- ing and works of con- struc- tion.	Ship- build- ing.	Engineering and iron founding.	Construc- tion of vehi- cles.	Saw-mill- ing, pack- ing- case man- ufac- tur- ing, etc.	Am- muni- tion.	Chemicals.	Iron, steel, and metal pro- duc- tion.	Metal manu- fac- ture,		Other in- sured indus- tries.	Total.
1919. Nov. 28: Males Females	13,067 221	7,658 483	34, 842 14, 692	2,357 601	865 792	2,331 5,703	890 1, 236	1,776 631	1,818 3,024	185 226	2, 105 7, 181	67, 894 34, 790
Total	13,288	8,141	49,534	2,958	1,657	8,034	2,126	2,407	4,842	411	9,286	102,684
Dec. 5: Males Females Total	14,894 239 15,133	7,353 428 7,781	42, 154 14, 492 56, 646	3, 925 666 4, 591	1,069 777 1,846	2,609 5,780 8,389	980 1,126 2,106	2, 233 592 2, 825	1,977 3,129 5,106	216 252 468	2,503 7,109 9,612	79, 913 34, 590 114, 503
Dec. 12: Males Females	16,477 238 16,715	7,654 486 8,140	43, 968 13, 166 57, 134	4,013 590 4,603	1,094 737 1,831	2, 497 5, 691 8, 188	951 1,112 2,063	1,879 568 2,447	2, 155 2, 843 4, 998	209 262 471	2,588 6,282 8,870	83, 485 31, 975 115, 460
Dec. 19: Males Females	17,043 212	7, 745 441	46, 487 13, 007	4, 125 571	1,158 664	2, 540 5, 166	1, 121 1, 100	1,939 552	2,176 2,687	238 300	2,729 5,669	87, 301 30, 369
Doc 24*	17, 255 ===================================	8,186 8,115 494	59, 494 51, 855 12, 415	4, 696 4, 176 558	1,822 1,191 642	7, 706 2, 627 4, 537	2, 221 1, 180 1, 013	2,491 2,515 496	2, 245 2, 538	225 209	8,398 2,943 5,412	94, 805 28, 539
Total	17,958	8,609	64, 270	4,734	1,833	7,164	2,193	3,011	4,783	434	8,355	123, 344
Males Females	18,518 223 18,741	8,876 436 9,312	58, 667 12, 025 70, 692	5, 114 573 5, 687	1,305 660 1,965	2,619 4,507 7,126	1,179 1,177 2,356	3,349 485 3,834	2, 215 2, 524 4, 739	223 242 465	2,926 5,456 8,382	104, 991 28, 308 133, 299
Females	19, 885 195	8, 857 460	56, 218 11, 965	5, 292 542	1,318 739	2, 801 4, 761	1, 204 1, 069	2, 731 475	2,337 2,738	238 250	2,979 5,551	103, 860 28, 745
Jan. 16:	20, 080 ===== 20, 462 205	9,317 9,086 439	68, 183 57, 647 12, 071	5, 834 5, 442 543	2,057 1,399 632	7,562 2,833 4,753	2,273 1,262 1,094	3, 206 2, 638 482	5, 075 2, 485 2, 849	235 260	8,530 2,974 5,445	132, 608 106, 463 28, 773
Total Jan. 23:	20,667	9,525	69,718	5,985	2,131	7,586	2,356	3,120	5,334	495	8,419	135, 336
Females	20,636 207 20,843	8, 728 428 9, 156	57, 642 12, 271 69, 913	5, 409 535 5, 944	1,431 778 2,209	2,800 4,806 7,606	1, 282 1, 083 2, 365	2,580 506 3,086	2, 489 2, 925 5, 414	243 272 515	2,972 5,613 8,585	106, 212 29, 424 135, 636
Females	20,028	8,393 436	50, 345 12, 607	5,036 515	1,367 768	2, 920 4, 719	1,156 1,033	2,827 536	2, 408 2, 853	270 282	3,023 5,735	97, 773 29, 703
Feb. 6:	20, 247	8, 829 8, 145	62, 952 42, 010	4, 265	2, 135 1, 408	7,639 2,718	2,189 1,172	2,519	2, 288	260	2,848	87,127
Total Feb. 13:	238	450 8,595	12, 886 54, 896	480	761 2,169	4, 756 7, 474	2,115	3,106	2, 825	265 525	5, 474 8, 322	29, 665
Total	18,670 207 18,877	7,576 418 7,994	36,378 12,626 49,004	3,803 484 4,287	1,315 771 2,086	2,799 4,642 7,441	1,218 864 2,082	2,029 633 2,662	2,101 2,808 4,909	275 269 544	2,855 5,403 8,258	79, 019 29, 125 108, 144
Females	17,476 214 17,690	7,141 434 7,575	32, 906 12, 905 45, 811	3,476 509 3,985	1,360 775 2,135	2,792 4,683 7,475	1,191 874 2,065	1,798 653 2,451	2,111 2,712 4,823	260 257 517	2,864 5,434 29,450	73, 378 29, 450 102, 828

Action of Employment Committees with Regard to Civilian Policies.

THE week ending November 28 was also the last week for which there are reports of action taken on civilian out-of-work policies by employment committees, juvenile employment committees, and port labor committees. The total original applications (civilians only) dealt with to November 22 was 377,365, of which 10.8 per cent had been refused; and the total applications for extended donation (civilians only) was 154,412, of which 12.2 per cent had been refused. Table 5 shows the work of the committees specified for the last week that out-of-work donations were paid.

TABLE 5.—ACTION TAKEN ON CIVILIAN POLICIES BY EMPLOYMENT COMMITTEES, JUVENILE EMPLOYMENT COMMITTEES, AND PORT LABOR COMMITTEES FOR WEEK ENDING NOV. 22, 1919.

Item.	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Total.
Applications for original policies: Applications granted Applications refused.	12,686	1,054	3,338	295	17, 373
	566	92	629	48	1, 335
Total cases dealt with	13,252	1,146	3,967	343	18,708
Percentage of refusal.	4.3	8.0	15.9	14.0	7.1
Application for extended policies: Applications granted Applications refused.	2,789 186	64 17	998 100	36 9	3,887
Total cases dealt with. Percentage of refusal.	2,975	81	1,098	45	4,199
	4.7	21.0	9.1	20.0	7.4

The reasons for refusal of applications are shown in Table 6.

 $\begin{array}{c} {\bf TABLE} \,\, {\bf 6.} \\ {\bf -NUMBER\,AND\,PER\,CENT\,OF\,ORIGINAL\,AND\,EXTENDED\,\,POLICIES\,REFUSED} \\ {\bf FOR\,\,SPECIFIED\,\,\,REASONS.} \end{array}$

Reason for refusal.		policies sed.	Extended policies refused.	
	Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.
Not normally employed. Not genuinely seeking work. Not employed for 20 weeks in 1918. Other reasons.	338 565 18 414	25.3 42.3 1.4 31.0	40 145 127	12.8 46.5 40.7
Total	1,335	100.0	312	100.0

Action Taken on Out-of-Work Donation Policies.

THE volume of work of the appeals officers and courts of referees on out-of-work donation policies is shown in Table 7.

TABLE 7.—NUMBER (CUMULATIVE) AND DISPOSAL OF CASES REFERRED TO APPEALS OFFICERS AND COURTS OF REFEREES (GREAT BRITAIN ONLY).

	Number.	Nu	mber of case	es—
Period ending—	of cases referred to appeals officers.	Allowed by appeals officers.	Heard by courts of referees.	Outstand- ing.
Dec. 12	4,400	833	970	2,597
Jan. 2 Feb. 6 Mar. 6 Apr. 4 May 1 June 5 July 3 Aug. 7 Sept. 4 Oct. 3 Nov. 7 Dec. 5	12, 622 40, 483 74, 509 112, 607 152, 077 212, 672 240, 277 272, 500 299, 792 324, 108 357, 815 378, 709	2,067 5,158 7,710 9,529 11,377 13,372 14,181 15,488 16,403 17,176 18,335 18,960	5,768 23,160 53,042 91,553 128,581 187,142 216,922 247,628 274,476 296,969 328,826 350,989	4,529 11,442 12,892 10,319 11,214 19,507 6,251 6,093 5,247 5,918 6,022 3,556
Jan. 2 Jan. 9 Jan. 16 Jan. 23 Jan. 30 Feb. 6 Feb. 13	390, 134 392, 632 395, 850 399, 135 402, 182 405, 079 407, 051	19, 274 19, 325 19, 378 19, 437 19, 487 19, 558 19, 601	362,790 365,222 367,936 370,921 374,045 376,802 378,730	2,585 2,570 2,954 3,164 3,002 3,048 2,938

Of the cases heard by courts of referees 365,674 have been analyzed, and of these 96,553 were allowed, 532 were compromised, and 268,589, or 73.5 per cent, disallowed. Table 8 shows the grounds for disallowance.

TABLE 8.—NUMBER AND PER CENT OF CLAIMS FOR OUT-OF-WORK DONATIONS DISALLOWED BY COURTS OF REFEREES, AND GROUNDS FOR DISALLOWANCE.

Grounds for disallowance.	Number.	Per cent.
Employment left voluntarily Refusal to accept suitable employment Dismissal for unsatisfactory conduct. Trade dispute. Other grounds.	78, 730 119, 052 37, 789 19, 761 13, 257	29. 3 44. 3 14. 0 7. 4 5. 0
Total	268, 589	100.0

Up to February 14, 1920, prosecutions for alleged fraud in connection with out-of-work donation had resulted as follows: Out of 1,251 prosecutions, 207 cases were dismissed, 734 individuals were fined, 222 imprisoned, and 88 admonished and bound over.

Duration of Unemployment.

SOME indication of the duration of unemployment is given in Tables 9 and 10 in which the policies lodged are analyzed according to the period for which payments were made, during the week ending November 22, 1919, for civilians (the last full week of their out-of-work donation) and the week ending February 20, 1920, for His Majesty's Forces.

TABLE 9.—NUMBER OF CIVILIANS' POLICIES LODGED ON WHICH PAYMENTS FOR EACH CLASSIFIED PERIOD WERE MADE FOR THE WEEK ENDING NOV. 22, 1919.

	Policies lodged	Original		0 1			
Item.	but no payments made.	policies— 1 to 78 days.	79 to 138 days.	139 to 155 days.	156 days.	Total.	Grand total.
MenBoysWomenGirls	7, 967 566 2, 074 178	74,838 7,160 19,404 1,870	13,832 244 4,106 198	2,749 21 1,104 29	934 9 342 12	17, 515 274 5, 552 239	100, 320 8, 000 27, 030 2, 287
Total	10, 785	103, 272	18,380	3,903	1, 297	23, 580	137, 637

TABLE 10.—NUMBER, AND PER CENT OF GRAND TOTAL, OF HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES, POLICIES LODGED ON WHICH PAYMENTS FOR EACH CLASSIFIED PERIOD WERE MADE FOR THE WEEK ENDING FEB. 20, 1920.1

	Polic		Origi	nal			F	Extended	policie	es.		
Item.	no payr mad	nents	policie	policies— to 156 days.		157 to 198 days.		199 to 234 days.		o 276	Total.	
•	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Pe					Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.
Men Women	14, 122 222	4.60 5.14	229, 249 4, 001	74.8		287 5.3 56 1.3	2 10,69	3.49 15 .35	5,335	1.74	32, 319 71	10.55
Total	14,344	4.62	233, 250	75.1	0 16,	343 5.2	6 10,7	12 3.45	5, 335	1.71	32, 390	10.42
				Spec	ialexte	ension pe	eriod.					
Item.	lodg no pa	olicies ged bur aymen nade.		53 (lays.	54 d	ays.	To	otal.		Grand t	otal.
	Num ber.				Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per		lum- ber.	Per cent.
Men Women	2,54		83 25, 06	918 15	8.46 .35	2,134	0.70	30, 594		99 30	06, 284 4, 314	100 100
Total	. 2,54	5 .	82 25,	933	8.35	2, 136	. 69	30,614	9.1	85 3	10,598	100

¹ These statements do not include figures for persons in part-time employment.

Short-Time Policies.

THE decline in the number of short-time policies was rapid up to the time of the railway strike at the end of September, the total number of civilians and His Majesty's Forces' policies having decreased from 100,000 on May 23, 1919, to 60,000 on June 13, 1919, and so on to 26,984 on September 19, 1919. But on October 10 there were 30,804, on October 24, 37,471, on October 31, 38,092, and on November 28, the date of the last report containing figures for civilian donations, there were 42,899 short-time policies lodged. This increase which was started by the railway strike was maintained by the molders' strike—the number of policies lodged by short-time workers in engineering and iron-founding industries having mounted from 186 men on September 19 to 3,735 on October 17 and to 16,074 on November 21.

Considering His Majesty's Forces' short-time policies only there were 4,687 lodged on November 28 (of which 3,833 were in engineering and iron-founding industries) and 5,241 on December 5. The number has since declined, as shown in Table 11, to 2,070 on February 13.

The molders' strike has been a long-drawn-out one, and as will be noticed, in its final week, ending January 23, the industries affected took over 98 per cent of the short-time policies lodged.

Table 11.—NUMBER OF HIS MAJESTY'S FORCES' POLICIES LODGED BY SHORT-TIME WORKERS AT EACH SPECIFIED DATE, BY INDUSTRY.

		Week er	nding—	
Industry.	Jan. 23, 1920.	Jan. 30, 1920.	Feb. 6, 1920.	Feb. 13, 1920.
Insured industries: Engineering and iron founding	4,330 13 66	3,683 1 150	3,251 1 169	1,813 1 132
Total	4,409	3, 834	3,421	1,946
Uninsured industries: Conveyance of men, goods, and messages Mines and quarries. Textiles:	10 95	5 48	4 30	3 32
Cotton. Woolen and worsted. Flax, linen, jute, and hemp Dyeing, bleaching, and finishing Other textiles.	11 14 35	17 21 36	14 14 56 25	12 13 40 6
Commercial	32 17 1	1 22 1	12 19 1	4 5 1
General laborers, factory workers, etcOther uninsured industries	6 7	6 6	9 2	7
Total	229	163	186	124
Grand total	4,638	3,997	3,607	2,070

Review of the Employment Situation.

TABLES 12 and 13 show the numbers of unemployment donation policies remaining lodged at specified dates and numbers of persons on live registers of employment exchanges on the same dates.

Both are indications of the amount of unemployment, but neither can be accepted as absolutely indicative of the exact amount of unemployment.

A fall in unemployment as indicated by a decrease in the live register of employment exchanges is not always accurate, for while it may be due to an increase of employment it is likely to be partially at least due to a well-known disinclination to register at an employment exchange when the worker being in an uninsured industry is not entitled to draw payment.

The Weekly Report for December 16 states with reference to a recent 16 per cent drop in the live register for women: "The decreases chiefly occur in the uninsured industries, particularly domestic offices and services. This is an effect previously observed, that when payment of donation stops the persons concerned cease to register for employment."

The weeks following January 22 showed a reduction in the number of people on out-of-work donation of 22 per cent, from 396,495 January 23 to 310,598 on February 20. Nearly 10 per cent of the latter were drawing donation under the special extended period scheme.

Industrially the improvements in employment came from the further resumption of work in engineering and iron founding and iron and steel work and from a considerable impetus given to building and works of construction.

TABLE 12.—UNEMPLOYMENT DONATION POLICIES REMAINING LODGED, BY TYPE OF POLICY.

		Men.				Women.			
Week ending—	Civil- ians.	His Maj- esty's Forces.	Total.	Boys.	Civil- ians.	His Maj- esty's Forces.	Total.	Girls.	Grand total.
1918. Nov. 29. Dec. 6. Dec. 13. Dec. 20.	16,336 31,768 43,989 63,413	4,698 11,264 15,547 18,604	21,334 43,032 59,536 82,017	2,088 4,801 8,015 11,128	45, 107 77, 824 122, 228 167, 009	11 62 81 37	45, 118 77, 886 122, 309 167, 046	1, 263 2, 864 6, 909 9, 170	69, 803 128, 583 196, 769 269, 361
1919. Jan. 3	101, 390 119, 315 139, 113 156, 671 177, 361	23, 938 31, 543 40, 400 47, 209 53, 316	125, 328 150, 858 179, 513 203, 880 230, 677	16, 988 16, 462 18, 131 20, 543 22, 562	224, 955 265, 479 303, 813 343, 742 399, 864	50 88 131 170 238	225,005 265,567 303,944 343,912 400,102	13, 374 16, 365 18, 018 22, 259 25, 362	380, 698 449, 252 519, 606 590, 594 678, 703
Feb. 7	191, 371 212, 205 218, 278 227, 836	63, 277 84, 298 132, 471 165, 429	254, 648 296, 503 350, 749 393, 265	24, 538 26, 752 28, 195 28, 019	427, 734 452, 810 470, 294 494, 471	380 394 841 828	428, 114 453, 204 471, 135 495, 299	26,790 28,183 31,544 32,037	734, 090 804, 642 881, 623 948, 620
Mar. 7 Mar. 14 Mar. 21 Mar. 28	234, 402 208, 540 207, 973 209, 486	200, 686 233, 737 264, 257 305, 251	435, 088 444, 277 472, 230 514, 737	27, 356 26, 327 27, 567 26, 461	494, 365 485, 784 474, 452 488, 655	1,025 1,161 995 1,012	495, 390 486, 945 475, 447 489, 667	34,398 31,070 28,082 29,380	992, 23 988, 61 1, 003, 32 1, 060, 24

TABLE 12.-UNEMPLOYMENT DONATION POLICIES REMAINING LODGED, BY TYPE OF POLICY-Concluded.

		Men.				Women			
Week ending—	Civil- ians.	His Maj- esty's Forces.	Total.	Boys.	Civil-	His Maj- esty's Forces	Total.	Girls.	Grand total.
Apr. 4	217, 538 210, 119	336, 570 347, 895 369, 992 379, 799	550, 833 565, 433 580, 111 595, 486	26, 148 26, 093 23, 882 23, 679	469, 555 457, 446 452, 144 443, 941	961 917 1,013 1,258	470, 516 458, 363 453, 157 445, 199	30, 189 30, 134 29, 279 28, 964	1,077,68 1,080,02 1,086,42 1,093,32
May 2 May 9 May 16 May 23 May 30	191,651	402, 151 408, 491 401, 753 400, 097 384, 919	616, 912 600, 142 580, 037 564, 666 535, 169	23,040 10,175 16,845 14,988 12,912	422, 890 366, 536 312, 373 250, 010 207, 897	1,316 1,468 1,603 1,939 2,002	424, 206 364, 604 313, 976 251, 949 209, 899	29, 242 20, 871 17, 023 14, 869 13, 231	1,093,40 1,008,19 927,88 846,47 771,21
June 6 June 13 June 20 June 27.	123, 134	383, 570 376, 735 379, 139 370, 696	518, 887 499, 869 495, 297 477, 357	10,405 8,439 7,551 6,615	169, 621 146, 578 132, 649 113, 462	2,082 2,033 2,108 2,147	171, 703 148, 611 134, 757 115, 609	9,880 7,910 7,491 6,544	710, 87, 664, 82, 645, 09, 606, 12,
July 4. July 11. July 18. July 25.	100, 270 96, 472 92, 762 93, 828	363, 926 363, 564 360, 792 361, 457	464, 196 460, 036 453, 554 455, 285	5, 905 5, 341 4, 985 5, 226	100, 576 91, 413 83, 755 72, 813	2,271 2,204 2,190 2,206	102,847 93,617 86,945 75,019	6,077 6,155 5,707 5,354	579, 02, 565, 14, 550, 19, 540, 88
Aug. 1	100, 228 98, 298 94, 863 92, 345 83, 035	364, 570 360, 585 359, 778 348, 660 334, 925	464,798 458,883 454,641 441,005 417,960	6, 529 6, 245 6, 669 6, 267 5, 006	73,878 64,029 61,065 55,526 49,038	2, 101 2, 156 2, 055 2, 095 2, 027	75, 979 66, 185 63, 120 57, 621 51, 065	6, 176 5, 673 6, 093 5, 182 4, 053	553, 485 536, 986 530, 523 510, 073 478, 084
Sept. 5	72, 113 66, 686 63, 557 62, 435	324, 786 310, 024 303, 348 300, 251	396, 899 376, 710 366, 905 362, 686	4,008 3,230 3,111 3,151	40,701 36,230 34,448 32,915	1,965 1,935 1,905 2,021	42,666 38,165 36,353 34,936	3,041 2,471 2,334 2,230	446, 61 420, 583 408, 703 403, 003
Oct. 3	(1) (1) 70,589 86,036 94,058	(1) (1) 334, 616 339, 911 340, 244	(1) (1) 405, 205 425, 947 434, 302	(1) (1) 4,371 6,551 7,349	(1) (1) 29,622 30,396 30,940	(1) (1) 3,332 3,761 3,998	(1) (1) 32, 954 34, 157 34, 938	(1) (1) 2,586 2,672 2,838	(1) (1) 445, 116 469, 327 479, 427
Nov. 7 Nov. 14 Nov. 21 Nov. 28 1	·99,013 101,522 100,320	336, 523 342, 000 348, 955 353, 668	435, 536 443, 522 449, 275	7,460 8,130 8,000	30, 323 28, 893 27, 030	4, 164 4, 591 4, 954 5, 155	34, 487 33, 484 31, 984	2,641 2,404 2,287	480, 124 487, 540 491, 546 358, 823
Dec. 5		344, 741 356, 069 365, 435				5, 303 5, 566 5, 245			350, 044 361, 635 370, 680
1920. Jan. 2. Jan. 9. Jan. 16. Jan. 23. Jan. 30.		377, 957 388, 139 391, 422 380, 293 372, 173				5, 138 5, 007 5, 073 5, 072 4, 943			383, 095 393, 146 396, 495 385, 365 377, 116
Feb. 13		339, 294 323, 725 306, 284				4,800 4,548 4,314			344, 094 328, 273 310, 598

Table 13.—NUMBER OF PERSONS ON LIVE REGISTERS OF EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES ON SPECIFIED DATE.

Date.	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Total.
Dec. 6	60,582	10,756	109, 269	8,663	189, 27
Jan. 10	183,335	26,391	327, 715	26, 451	563,892
Feb. 7. Feb. 14. Feb. 21. Feb. 28.	303, 477 335, 911 376, 952 416, 150	32, 448 34, 837 35, 907 35, 476	479, 328 503, 704 533, 837 549, 261	34, 243 37, 208 36, 203 35, 958	849, 496 911, 666 982, 899 1, 036, 848

No report, owing to railway strike.
 On November 24, civilian donation for both men and women ceased.

Table 13.—NUMBER OF PERSONS ON LIVE REGISTERS OF EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGES ON SPECIFIED DATE—Concluded.

Date.	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Total.
Mar. 7	449, 365	34, 010	558, 572	33, 891	1,075,868
	486, 555	34, 541	561, 392	36, 016	1,118,504
	527, 559	33, 429	565, 740	35, 482	1,162,210
	563, 368	33, 304	563, 190	35, 756	1,195,618
Apr. 4	579, 373	33,909	559, 379	36,365	1, 229, 026
	613, 129	32,000	539, 311	35,159	1, 219, 599
	630, 999	30,500	547, 735	35,164	1, 244, 398
	657, 804	31,243	533, 430	34,683	1, 257, 160
May 2	665, 099	30, 474	513, 143	33, 957	1, 242, 673
May 9	653, 270	26, 834	449, 145	29, 154	1, 158, 403
May 16	637, 573	24, 845	400, 080	25, 103	1, 087, 601
May 23	616, 992	22, 464	343, 636	21, 936	1, 005, 027
May 30	592, 665	19, 072	300, 768	18, 804	931, 309
June 6	569, 098	17, 026	256, 038	16,544	858, 706
	563, 934	15, 821	229, 660	14,573	823, 988
	547, 531	15, 012	213, 206	14,393	790, 142
	525, 215	13, 973	194, 157	13,123	746, 468
July 4	516, 263	14, 444	182,998	14,125	727, 830
	507, 663	13, 778	175,388	13,449	710, 178
	505, 389	13, 874	163,424	13,198	695, 888
	504, 681	15, 493	151,323	13,393	684, 890
Aug. 1. Aug. 8. Aug. 15. Aug. 22. Aug. 29.	517, 443 513, 966 502, 867 488, 491 457, 148	17,300 18,414 17,388 15,404	149, 464 143, 447 133, 740 127, 173 111, 888	15, 248 15, 871 14, 444 12, 860	670, 892 647, 496 597, 300
Sept. 5 Sept. 12. Sept. 19. Sept. 26.	433, 591 418, 843 407, 307	14,398 13,420 13,359 (¹)	105,565 100,213 96,623 (1)	13,007 12,391 13,047 (¹)	566, 56 544, 86 530, 33 (1)
Oct. 3	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)	(1)
	453,347	17,131	97,057	14,762	582, 297
	461,801	17,107	94,552	13,996	587, 456
	475,865	17,784	92,870	13,719	600, 238
	479,520	18,597	89,252	13,305	600, 674
Nov. 7	478, 638	18,009	85, 498	12,371	593, 510
Nov. 14.	486, 157	17,653	79, 326	11,702	594, 833
Nov. 21.	490, 251	16,690	73, 925	11,073	591, 933
Nov. 28.	484, 344	14,526	66, 242	10,029	575, 143
Dec. 5	474, 314	12, 089	55, 427	8,882	550, 61:
	473, 180	11, 575	52, 538	8,476	545, 76:
	473, 000	11, 650	48, 126	8,231	541, 00
Jan. 2 ² . 1920. Jan. 9 Jan. 16. Jan. 23. Jan. 30	503, 658 508, 879 510, 743 501, 020 478, 173	15, 133 16, 529 17, 286 16, 717 15, 329	46, 863 49, 482 51, 541 52, 966 52, 479	9,738 11,610 12,685 12,760 12,227	575, 39 586, 50 592, 25 583, 46 558, 20
Feb. 6	443, 085	13,831	51,899	11,666	520, 48
Feb. 13	416, 892	12,996	51,791	11,594	493, 27
Feb. 20.	392, 604	12,092	53,902	11,340	469, 93

¹ No report owing to railway strike. ² Report for January 2, 1920, covers two weeks, owing to the Christmas holiday.

Table 14 classifies out-of-work donation policies lodged by industries and shows for specified dates the per cent policies lodged formed of the total number of workers in the industries. The figures may be taken as indicating approximately, but not absolutely, the unemployment in the several industries.

September 19 immediately preceded the railway and molding trades strikes, the effects of which are evident in the reports for subsequent dates.

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TABLE 14.—PER CENT WORKERS REPRESENTED BY OUT-OF-WORK DONATION POLICIES REMAINING LODGED AT SPECIFIED DATES FORMED OF TOTAL WORKERS IN EACH INDUSTRY.

Industry.	Total workers.1								Total workers.3	Per cent workers represented by policies remaining lodged in each industry form of total workers on—							
		Mar. 7, 1919.	Apr. 4, 1919.	May 2, 1919.	May 30, 1919.	June 20, 1919.	July 18, 1919.	Aug. 15, 1919.	Sept. 19, 1919.	Oct. 17, 1919.	Nov. 21, 1919.	Nov. 21, 1919.4		Nov. 21, 1919.	Dec. 19, 1919.	Jan. 16, 1920.	Feb. 20, 1920.
Insured industries: Building and works of construction. Shipbuilding. Engineering and iron founding. Construction of vehicles. Sawmilling, packing-case manufacturing, etc Ammunition. Chemicals, etc. Iron, steel, and other metal production. Metal manufactures. Bricks, tiles, etc. Other insured industries.	89, 583 253, 913 104, 915 207, 790 280, 157	11.10 6.52 14.00 8.66 10.28 13.24 6.47 3.01 6.21 4.75 5.27	10.73 5.97 12.11 8.30 8.96 6.04 5.42 4.30 6.53 5.92 5.18	10.65 6.15 10.39 7.39 7.72 2.50 4.97 3.74 6.15 6.44 4.89	7.86 5.17 7.63 4.64 5.81 .89 3.40 2.41 4.04 4.00 3.20	6.40 4.61 6.21 3.63 4.85 .51 2.76 2.99 3.31 3.22 2.47	5. 25 4. 56 5. 24 2. 79 3. 96 .30 2. 16 2. 54 2. 53 2. 13 1. 67	4.28 4.52 5.15 2.64 3.60 .19 1.82 5.79 2.66 3.93 1.53	3.41 4.29 3.89 2.29 2.84 .12 1.31 2.21 1.71 1.42 1.03	3.83 4.85 5.00 2.98 3.03 .13 1.34 2.98 1.71 1.74 1.27	4.76 5.95 7.16 3.06 2.92 .10 1.17 2.12 1.82 1.59 1.23	3.13 3.09 3.83 1.91 2.16 .05 .71 1.09 1.23 1.18 .78	749, 818 283, 688 1, 156, 733 196, 289 75, 277 117, 642 100, 072 214, 666 260, 795 36, 396 251, 280	2.48 2.89 4.68 1.63 2.57 .10 .74 1.05 1.32 1.02 .48	2.64 2.91 5.32 1.82 2.86 .11 .73 1.07 1.43 1.06	2.95 3.18 5.89 2.08 2.93 .14 .75 .96 1.54 1.12	2.01 2.14 3.97 1.42 2.33 .08 .56 .58 1.17
Total	3, 561, 710	10.81	9.42	8.33	5.98	4.87	4.05	4.02	2.98	3.63	4.67	2.65	3,442,656	2.74	3.02	3.32	2.2
Uninsured industries: Agriculture Conveyance of men, goods, and messages Mines and quarries Textiles:	975,000	1.15 7.88 1.34	.88 10.42 1.75	1,03 12,14 1,71	.96 11.22 1.36	.91 10.45 1.31	.86 9.61 .96	. 85 9. 06 . 92	.70 7.86 .66	.77 8.17 .73	1.12 8.02 .64	1.03 7.03 .47	1,175,000 975,000 1,030,000	1.03 7.03 .47	1.29 6.91 .41	1.40 7.33 +46	1.22
Cotton. Woolen and worsted. Other (including printing, dyeing, etc.). Commercial. Food, drink, and tobacco. Workers in dress Domestic offices and services. General laborers, factory workers, etc. Other uninsured industries.	360,000 1,700,000 480,000 750,000 2,500,000 1,000,000 1,350,000	12.31 2.04 9.73 2.23 4.00 4.58 3.09 13.87 6.91	19.88 2.86 14.61 3.07 5.22 4.86 3.84 15.07 6.84	22.09 3.03 16.76 2.43 5.70 4.48 4.03 15.47 7.02	8.64 1.68 8.20 3.04 3.88 2.49 2.54 11.89 5.55	6.17 1.15 7.74 2.57 2.96 1.89 1.87 10.68 4.30	5.62 .87 6.29 2.27 2.17 1.43 1.45 9.52 3.56	2.86 6.48 5.55 2.15 1.86 1.31 1.25 9.45 3.45	1.41 .77 2.42 1.91 1.60 1.09 1.07 8.05 2.75	1.16 .67 2.10 2.02 1.86 1.30 1.07 8.65 2.83	1.13 .72 1.79 2.18 1.61 1.37 1.07 9.21 2.90	.71 .50 1.18 1.50 1.26 .94 .77 7.55 2.32	500,000 270,000 360,000 1,700,000 480,000 750,000 2,500,000 1,000,000 1,350,000	.71 .50 1.18 1.50 1.26 .94 .77 7.55 2.32	.74 .50 1.23 1.54 1.44 1.14 .74 7.72 2.43	.74 .54 1.27 1.60 1.55 1.23 .75 8.20 2.57	.57 .38 .98 1.31 1.37 1.05 .61 6.67 2.19
Total	12,090,000	5.02	6.14	6.59	4.62	3.90	3.36	3.20	2.48	2.61	2.69	2.14	12,090,000	2.14	2.21	2.33	1.98
Grand total	15, 651, 710	6.34	6.89	6.99	4,93	4.12	3.52	3,39	2.62	2.84	3.14	2.26	15, 532, 656	2.28	2.38	2.55	1.9

¹ For insured trades, number of books current January, 1919; for uninsured trades, Board of Trade returns for July, 1918, and census figures for 1911. ² Both civilian and His Majesty's Forces. ³ For insured trades, number of books current October, 1919; for uninsured trades, Board of Trade returns for July, 1918, and census figures for 1911. ⁴ Civilian out-of-work donations ceased on Nov. 24. The figures under this head are for His Majesty's Forces only.

The number of civilian extended policies remaining lodged on November 21, 1919, are classified by industries in Table 15.

Table 15.—NUMBER OF EXTENDED-DONATION POLICIES, GRANTED TO CIVILIANS, REMAINING LODGED UP TO NOV. 21, 1919, BY INDUSTRY.

Industry.				n policies regranted to—	
	Men.	Boys.	Women.	Girls.	Total.
Insured industries: Building and works of construction. Shipbuilding. Engineering and iron founding. Construction of vehicles. Sawmilling, packing-case manufacturing, etc. Ammunition. Chemicals, etc. Iron and steel and other metal production. Metal manufactures. Brick, tile, etc. Other insured industries.	1,971 985 4,912 341 131 23 98 248 177 19	9 14 117 4 3 1 2 7 1	7 1 276 12 15 15 18 10 123 10 51	1 124	1,988 1,000 5,317 357 149 39 118 265 305 29
Total	8,975	158	538	18	9,689
Uninsured industries: A griculture. Conveyance of men, goods, and messages. Mines and quarries Textiles: Cotton. Woolen and worsted. Other (including printing, dyeing, etc.). Commercial. Food, drink, and tobacco. Workers in dress. Domestic offices and services. General laborers, factory workers, etc. Other uninsured industries.	111 2,168 224 309 79 332 1,074 165 120 354 2,924 707	5 20 4 11 14 9 1 1 41 11	26 102 14 298 222 554 737 180 554 1,288 620 619	3 3 5 5 29 64 3 32 20 12 50	142 2, 293 245 623 101 929 1, 857 348 707 1, 662 2, 597 1, 387
Total	8,540	116	5,014	221	13,891
Grand total	17,515	274	5,552	239	23,580

Resettlement.

Training and Placement of Disabled Ex-Service Men.

TABLE 16 shows, by industries, the actual results in placing disabled ex-service men who have been trained under the training schemes of the Ministry of Labor.

Table 16.—NUMBER OF REGISTRATIONS AND PLACEMENTS OF DISABLED SOLDIERS, SAILORS, AND AIRMEN, GREAT BRITAIN, BY INDUSTRY.

durin		New registrations during month	Placements du		ber lapsed,				
Nov. 7, 1919.	Dec. 5, 1919.	, 1919. ended Jan. 9, ling month ended Jan. 9, 1920.		U" nom	celed, etc.				
38, 648	36, 503	13, 476	4, 90	60	10, 197	34, 824			
		Industry		Placem	ents ¹ durin ended—	g month	Total place-		
Industry.					Dec. 5, 1919.	Jan. 9, 1920.	ments up to Jan. 9, 1920.		
Shipbuild Engineeri Construct Sawmillir Chemicals Iron and s ufacture	and works of ling	founding	te	240 88 481 37 65 69 45	212 30 500 45 35 75	246 52 361 61 37 37 58	4,177 1,093 8,774 579 619 1,268		
Total				1,025	963	852	17, 447		
Mines and Textiles: printing Commerci Workers i Domestic General la	re	ervices	other (including	66 767 77 215 1,086 73 137 562 774	65 699 90 234 1, 245 46 92 617 685	26 825 61 173 1,012 24 158 576 812	1, 103 10, 496 732 1, 745 10, 365 559 2, 097 8, 133 7, 747		
Total				3, 757	3,773	3,667	42, 977		
Grand t	otal		4,782	4,736	4,519	60, 424			

 $^{^1}$ First placements only. Subsequent placements amount to 4,494 for the whole period, 426 for the month ended Dec. 5, 1919, and 441 for the month ended Jan. 9, 1920.

Apprenticeship Schemes.

Up to February 9, 1920, 25,328 agreements as to the completion of interrupted apprenticeships had been submitted to employers, completed, and sent to the training department of the Ministry of Labor. Up to September 8, 1919, reports were published showing the number of interrupted apprenticeship applications received from employers and from employees, and at that date 14,635 had been received from employers, 17,297 from employees, while 12,685 agreements had been submitted to employers for completion, and 11,172 completed agreements had been sent to the training department. In other words, 18 per cent more employees than employers had made application, and agreements for completion were submitted to 86 per cent as many employers as made application, while 88 per cent of the agreements submitted had been completed and sent to the training department.

Comparing this report with earlier reports it is found that the employers had been making application in an increasingly greater pro-

portion to the number of employees, that about the same proportion of agreements had been submitted to employers, and a rapidly increasing proportion of completed agreements had been sent to the training department. Since September these details have not been published.

The total number of completed agreements sent to the training department since the commencement of the interrupted apprentice-

ship scheme, classified by industries, is shown in Table 17.

TABLE 17.—NUMBER OF COMPLETED AGREEMENTS UNDER EACH SPECIFIED SCHEME UP TO FEB. 9, 1920, UNITED KINGDOM.

Industry.	Completed agreements sent to training department.	Industry.	Completed agreements sent to training department.
Engineering. Furniture. Shipbuilding. Coach, motor body, van, etc. Scottish baking. Printing and allied trades. Iron founding. Electric contracting Building. Brush making. Printing (Scotland). Silk. Blookbinding, etc. Blacksmiths and farriers. Cooperage. Baking. Engraving in calico and paper printing. Pottery. Dental mechanics. Music trades. Clothing industry. Bobbin and shuttle making industry.	10,402 1,105 1,783 651 3,24 3,434 432 469 4,804 45 767 6 481 203 69 83 75 21 247 177 694 43	Made-up leather goods Woolen and worsted Hairdressing industry Lace and embroidery Surgical-instrument making. Basket making. Optical-instrument making Giove making. Diesinking and engraving General scheme Gold, silver, horological, and allied trades. Iron founding and light casting industry Sheet and plate glass industry. Linen industry (Ireland). Bespoke boot and shoe making and repairing. Hydraulic packing industry. Not yet analyzed.	1 34 12 12 15 16 16 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18 18

In the statement following, are shown, cumulatively, the numbers of completed agreements sent to the training department at specified dates:

1919:		1919—Concluded.
May 5	9	Nov. 3 17, 487
May 19	237	Nov. 17 19, 117
June 2	1,078	Dec. 1
June 16		Dec. 15
June 30	3, 587	Dec. 29
July 14	5, 306	1920:
July 28	6,875	Jan. 5
Aug. 11	8, 161	Jan. 12 24, 673
Aug. 25	9, 748	Jan. 19 25, 328
Sept. 9	11, 172	Jan. 26 26, 428
Sept. 22	12, 704	Feb. 2 27, 369
Oct. 6	(1)	Feb. 9 28, 071
Oct. 20	15, 484	

1 No report.

Training of Unemployed Women.

The scheme for the training of unemployed women does not appear to have attracted those for whom it was intended in anywhere near the proportion which might have been expected. Up to February 21, 1920, only 5,641 woman applicants had been interviewed and of these 1,007 had been definitely registered, 1,180 had completed their training and 2,644 were in training. The remainder of those who had been accepted ostensibly either were waiting opportunity for training, or had not yet decided to accept the opportunity offered. Table 18 indicates the occupations in which women are being trained.

TABLE 18.—NUMBER OF WOMEN TRAINED OR IN TRAINING IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN UP TO FEB. 20, 1920.

Occupation.	Number trained or training.	Occupation.	Number trained or training.
Domestic service. Nursery nurses. Waitresses. Laundry. Millimery. Dressmaking. Tailoring. Velvet weaving. Blouse making. Glove making. Towel weaving.	1, 153 43 59 72 63 891 894 25 25 30 15	Upholstery and earpet making Burling and mending Hairdressing Buffing and burnishing Boot closing Clerical Hosiery Assembling of speedometers. Harness weaving. Total	56 66 1 86 40 206 77 12 8

Training of Widows and Dependents of Ex-Service Men.

Statistics of the training department's scheme for bettering the condition of widows and dependents of ex-service men by giving them industrial training appear in the following statement:

During the week ending February 14, 1920, 21 applications were received, 16 applications were sanctioned, while 21 were rejected or the applicants withdrew before training was commenced, and 6 completed training. The total numbers to date were 1,909 applications received, 989 sanctioned, and 772 rejected or withdrawn before training; 736 widows or dependents commenced training, 23 withdrew from training, 410 had completed training, and 303 were under training; while 254 applicants were awaiting decision, and 147 applicants, sanctioned, were awaiting training.

National Scheme for the Employment of Disabled Ex-Service Men.

The following statement shows the results obtained up to February 13, 1920, of the scheme inaugurated in September, 1919, for a more rapid absorption into industry of disabled ex-service men through a closer cooperation of employers:

During the week ending February 13, 1920, 438 undertakings (proposals by firms) were accepted by the employment committee,

⁷ See Monthly Labor Review, January, 1920, pp. 205-207.

making a total accepted to date of 12,251, while 540 were awaiting decision. At the end of that week 119,675 disabled men were already employed by the 12,251 enrolled firms, leaving 4,797 vacancies to be filled to complete the quota (124,382) for whom employment had been guaranteed.

Appointments Department.

The following statements exhibit the results of the work of the appointments department of the Ministry of Labor. This department was inaugurated in April, 1918, to advise, arrange technical training for, and satisfactorily place ex-service men in commerce and the professions—at first disabled officers only, but after the armistice demobilized men in general and civilians as well.

Table 19 gives information as to the actual placing of men in positions for which they have been trained, and this is followed by statements as to the training grants scheme for business, professional, and university training.

TABLE 19.—STATEMENT OF THE WORK OF THE APPOINTMENTS DEPARTMENT.

Item.	Week ended—										
		June	6, 1919.		February 13, 1920.						
	Offi- cers.	Other ranks.		Total.	Offi- cers.	Other ranks.	Civil- ians.	Total.			
Registrations during week On live register at end of week Placings during week Placings to date Vacancies notified during week Vacancies carried forward at end of week	408 7,856 186 5,	470 5,845 133 798	59 2,520 14 847	937 16, 221 333 6, 645 718 23, 573	486 7,428 270 21,	599 8,389 356 743	31 2,575 9 1,435	1,116 18,392 635 23,178 816 3,198			

Up to February 13, 1920, 91,322 ex-service men (officers and other ranks) had applied for grants for business, professional, or university training and 17,813 of these applications had been canceled, leaving 73,509 to be considered. Of this number 43,488 had been sanctioned and 9,719 definitely rejected, while 33,745 were actually in training in courses averaging, according to class of course, from 15 months to two years and four months.

The total financial commitments up to the end of January, 1920, were £8,777,551,8 and of this amount payment had actually been made of £1,453,853. The average cost for maintenance and fees per trainee are given as £129 for courses averaging 15 months, £252 16s. for courses averaging two years (agricultural), and £312 for educational courses averaging two years and four months.

⁸ Owing to fluctuations in rates of exchange conversions are not made into United States money. Normally the par value of the pound is \$4.8665, and of the shilling 24.3 cents.

Report of Employment Exchanges in the United Kingdom.

A S REPORTED by the British Labor Gazette for February, 1920, the operations of the employment exchanges for the five weeks ending January 9, 1920, are summarized as follows:

The average daily number of registrations, of vacancies notified, and of vacancies filled during the five weeks was 14,132, 4,793,

and 3,257, respectively.

Compared with the previous month, the daily average of registrations showed a decrease of 2.4 per cent, while the daily average of vacancies notified and vacancies filled showed decreases of 7.9 per cent and 8.4 per cent, respectively. The decrease in the number on the register at the end of this period shows recovery from the seasonal decline.

In the principal occupational groups the daily average number of applications from adults was 12,415—10,244 men and 2,171 women. There were 3,798 vacancies reported—2,028 men and 1,770 women. The average daily number of positions filled, when compared with the previous month, showed a decline of 11 per cent among men and 15 per cent among women.

The occupational groups in which there were the largest number of positions filled by men were: Building and construction of works, 24 per cent; engineering and iron founding, 16 per cent. Fifteen per cent were general laborers. Sixty-six per cent of the women were placed in domestic service and 6 per cent in the dressmaking trades.

As regards juveniles, the daily average of registrations was 1,717, while that of vacancies notified was 995. The daily average number of vacancies filled during the month as compared with the previous month showed an increase of 10 per cent.

Of the total vacancies filled for juveniles, 36 per cent were filled by applicants who obtained their first situation since leaving school.

Volume of Employment in the United Kingdom in January, 1920.

HE following figures as to the condition of employment in Great Britain and Ireland in January, 1920, as compared with December, 1919, and January, 1919, have been compiled from figures appearing in the British Labor Gazette for February, 1920. Similar information for October was published in the January Monthly Labor Review.

In January, 1920, as compared with December, 1919, relative to the number of persons employed, the largest increase, 7.2 per cent, appears among seamen, while respective increases of 5.2 and 4.5 per cent are shown in wholesale mantle, costume, blouses, etc., in London, and the same trade in Manchester. The largest decreases—1.9 and 1 per cent—appear in the food preparation trade and the printing trades.

Comparing January, 1920, with December, 1919, on the question of earnings of employees, increases of 6.6 and 5.9 per cent are shown in the jute trade and the lace trade, respectively. Percentage decreases of 2.2, 1.9, and 1.7 are shown in the food preparation, brick, and printing trades, respectively.

In comparing January, 1920, with January, 1919, as to the number of persons employed, dock and riverside labor shows an increase of 69.2 per cent; the cement trade, an increase of 68.2 per cent; and the glass trade, the printing trades, and the brick trade, respective increases of 46.7, 37.6, and 36.8 per cent. The only decreases shown are 1.3 per cent in the linen trade and 0.4 per cent in the printing trades.

The aggregate earnings of employees in January, 1920, as compared with January, 1919, show important changes, all of which are increases. Respective increases of 101.7, 74.5, and 73.9 per cent are shown in the cement, glass, and lace trades. Fourteen trades show increases ranging from 37.3 per cent in the cotton trade to 69.5 per cent in the printing trades, while the shirt and collar trade shows an increase of 33.6 per cent.

VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRE-LAND) IN JANUARY, 1920, AS COMPARED WITH DECEMBER, 1919, AND JANUARY, 1919.

[Compiled from figures in the Labour Gazette, London, February, 1920.]

Industry, and basis of comparison.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in January, 1920, as compared with—		Industry, and basis of comparison.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in January, 1920, as compared with—		
	December, 1919.	January, 1919.	0032-p.11.10011	December, 1919.	January 1919.	
Coal mining:			Shirt and collar trade:			
Average number of days worked Number of employees	+0.7 + .2	+ 3.1 +13.0	Number of employees Earnings of employees Other clothing trades:	$+1.3 \\ +1.9$	+ 15. + 33.	
Iron mining: Average number of days worked	7	- 1.0	Dressmaking and millinery— Number of employees Wholesale mantle, costume,	+1.4	+ 23.	
Quarrying: Average number of days	8	+ 6.6	blouses, etc.—Number of employees— London.	+5.2	+ 14.	
worked Number of employees Pig iron: Number of furnaces in	2 5	$^{+\ 3.6}_{+33.8}$	Manchester	+4.5	+ 4.:	
Iron and steel works:	+5.5	-10.8	ployees	+2.1	+ 15.0	
Number of employees Number of shifts worked	6 4	$+8.3 \\ +4.8$	Number of employees Brick trade:	+ .1	+ 1.	
Tin plate, steel, and galvanized sheet trades: Number of mills in operation.	+1.4	+34.5	Number of employees Earnings of employees Cement trade:	-1.9	+ 36. + 67.	
Cotton trade: Number of employees Earnings of employees	+2.0	+24.1	Number of employees Earnings of employees	$^{+1.7}_{+3,6}$	+ 68. +101.	
Woolen trade: Number of employees. Earnings of employees.	+2.0 $+1.1$	+37.3 +10.2	Paper, printing, and bookbinding trades: Paper trades—			
Worsted trade:	+1.0	+38.5	Number of employees reported by trade-unions.	(1)	(1)	
Number of employees Earnings of employees Hoisery trade:	$+1.4 \\5$	$+12.7 \\ +44.8$	Number of employees reported by employers.	+2.4	+ 25.	
Number of employees Earnings of employees Jute trade:	$^{+2.0}_{2}$	$^{+\ 7.1}_{+38.2}$	Earnings of employees reported by employers Printing trades—	+1.8	+ 59.	
Number of employees Earnings of employees	6 +6.6	$+3.5 \\ +17.2$	Number of employees re- ported by trade-unions ² Number of employees re-	+ .1		
Linen trade: Number of employees Earnings of employees	$3 \\ +2.3$	-1.3 + 5.4	ported by employers Earnings of employees re-	-1.0	+ 37.	
Silk trade: Number of employees	+1.4	+13.6	ported by employers Bookbinding trades— Number of employees re-	-1.7	+ 69.	
Earnings of employees	+ .1	+41.1	ported by trade-unions ² Number of employees re-	(3)	(3)	
Number of employees Earnings of employees	$+1.5 \\ +3.6$	$^{+29.4}_{+60.7}$	ported by employers Earnings of employees re-	+1.2	+ 26.	
Number of employees Earnings of employees	$+3.2 \\ +5.9$	$+31.4 \\ +73.9$	ported by employers Pottery trade: Number of employees	+2.6 +1.2	+ 57.	
Bleaching, printing, dyeing, and finishing:			Earnings of employees Glass trades:	8	+ 40.	
Number of employees Earnings of employees Boot and shoe trade:	+1.6	$^{+19.4}_{+54.6}$	Number of employees Earnings of employees Food preparation trades:	$^{+2.6}_{+.9}$	+ 46. + 74.	
Number of employees Earnings of employees eather trades: Number of em-	$^{+1,0}_{+.9}$	$^{+16.8}_{+40.8}$	Number of employees Earnings of employees	$ \begin{array}{c} -1.9 \\ -2.2 \end{array} $	+ 33. + 57.	
ployees ²	(3)	+ .6	Dock and riverside labor: Number of employees. Seamen: Number of employees.	$2 \\ +7.2$	+ 69.5 + 9.5	
Number of employees Earnings of employees	$\begin{array}{c c} + .4 \\ +1.9 \end{array}$	$+1.9 \\ +15.1$				

¹ No report.

² Based on unemployment.

³ No change.

CHILD LABOR.

Employment of Children Under Federal Child Labor Tax Law.

HE National Child Labor Committee (105 East Twenty-second Street, New York City) has recently issued a statement directing attention to the fact that the decision of Judge James E. Boyd, of the Western Judicial District of North Carolina, granting an injunction preventing an employer from discharging or limiting the hours of work of a child subject to the Federal child labor tax law applies to one specific case only. It had been generally thought that Judge Boyd's decision affected the employment of minors in the entire western judicial district of the State. It is announced that so far this is the only instance of record where a child may be legally employed for more than 8 hours a day. The National Child Labor Committee states:

In a letter to the National Child Labor Committee, Miss Nila F. Allen, head of the Child Labor Tax Division of the Treasury Department, says:

Unlike the situation under the Federal child labor law, declared unconstitutional June 3, 1918, the injunction secured in the case of the Federal child labor tax law applied only to the employment of one child in the Atherton Mills, Charlotte, N. C. The child labor tax has been and is being enforced in all sections of the country, including the Western Judicial District of North Carolina.

It should be remembered that the Federal child labor tax law applies only to mines, quarries, factories, and similar establishments. It is estimated that 85 per cent of the working children in this country are in industries not covered by the law.

Regulation of Child Labor in Czecho-Slovakia.

N JULY 17, 1919, the National Assembly of the Czecho-Slovakian Republic passed a child labor law which was promulgated on July 28, 1919, and became effective three months after its promulgation.

The law defines as children all boys and girls who have not completed their fourteenth year of age. Child labor within the meaning of the law is the regular employment of children at whatever labor for or without compensation. The performance of work by children

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¹ Amtliche Nachrichten des Deutschösterreichischen Staatsamtes für Soziale Verwaltung. Vol. I, No. 19. Vienna, Oct. 15, 1919, pp. 774–777.

for purposes of training or instruction, as well as the employment of children at casual jobs, and the employment of own children at light, although regular, household work, is not to be considered child labor. Own children within the meaning of the law are children living in common household with the employer, who are related to him by blood or marriage up to the third degree, or live with him as foster children or wards.

The employment of children at manual labor or other occupations is permissible only in so far as it does not endanger their health, their physical and mental development, or their morals, and in so far as it does not interfere with their attendance at school.

The employment of children who have not completed their twelfth year of age is prohibited. Children over 10 years of age may, however, be employed at light agricultural or household work.

On school days children may not be employed at labor in excess of two hours. Their employment at labor before the morning session of school and during the two hours preceding the afternoon session is prohibited. With respect to agricultural and household work this prohibition is limited by the law to two hours preceding the school session. A period of recreation of one hour is to be granted after school hours. On school holidays children may not be employed at labor in excess of 4 hours, except that in agricultural and household work employment may not exceed 6 hours.

The employment of children at labor on Sundays and church holi-

days is prohibited.

Children employed in agriculture and at household work must be allowed an uninterrupted night rest of 10 hours from 8 p. m. to 6 a. m. In all other fields of child labor the employment of children between 8 p. m. and 7 a. m. is prohibited.

The law provides for the granting of exemptions from the provisions regulating the hours of labor and the Sunday and holiday rest

in the case of work of an urgent nature.

In restaurants, saloons, cafés, etc., children may not be employed at dispensing drinks or serving patrons. Neither may they be employed in taking part in public performances, unless such performances are of an educational, artistic, or scientific nature. In addition the law prohibits the employment of children in a number of establishments and occupations specified in a list appended to the present article.

If an employer employs other than his own children for compensation in money he may deduct from their wages only lodging, board, clothing, and school supplies furnished by him and the prices charged therefor may not exceed the actual cost. Children may not be given alcoholic beverages as compensation for their work. Whoever employs other children than his own must without delay report their employment to the communal authorities of his place of residence, indicating the nature of his establishment and of the employment of the children. He must also keep a correct list of the children employed and, on request, submit this list to the proper

supervisory officers.

Anybody intending to employ other children than his own must previously apply to the communal authorities for a work card for each child. For children already employed on the coming in force of the present law a work card must be procured within three days. The cards are to be issued for one year and must be renewed on their expiration. They are to be issued free of charge by the communal authorities of the place of residence of the child after a hearing of the legal representative of the child and of the competent school authorities. If the communal or school authorities doubt the physical or mental fitness of the child for the labor in question the child must be examined by the communal physician at the expense of the employer. The issuance of a work card must be refused if in the opinion of the physician or the school authorities the labor in question would endanger the morals or the physical or mental development of the child.

The law charges the political authorities of the first (lowest) instance with the enforcement of its provisions. In addition, it provides for the appointment of special supervisory officials whose principal duty shall be the inspection of those establishments which

employ children.

Contraventions of the law, if not subject to severer penalties in accordance with other laws, are punishable with fines up to 1,000 crowns or imprisonment up to three months. Illegal employment of own children is punishable by a reprimand, or in case of aggravating circumstances, with a fine up to 300 crowns or imprisonment up to 14 days. Persons convicted of a contravention of the law may temporarily or permanently be enjoined by the political authorities from employing children.

The law authorizes the Minister of Social Welfare to conclude agreements with foreign countries for assuring the application

abroad of the principles of the present law.

Establishments and Occupations in which Employment of Children is Prohibited.

FOLLOWING is presented a list of the industrial establishments and occupations in which the employment of children is prohibited:

I. Establishments.

Retail sale of alcoholic beverages, distilleries, beer and wine cellars, breweries.

Establishments manufacturing articles made of slate, with the exception of shops merely effecting the dyeing, painting, pasting, and packing of slate pencils and the dyeing, ruling, and framing of slates.

Stone quarries and pits.

Establishments of stonemasons, rock borers, and stone polishers.

Brick kilns, street paving, and carpenters' establishments.

Lime and gypsum burning.

Manufacture and painting of pottery, tile, and flagstones.

Glass blowing, etching, polishing, frosting and painting, with the exception of glassworks in which the blowing is done exclusively at the lamp.

Mirror silvering establishments.

Establishments in which objects are being enameled, electrogalvanic plated or electrolytic reproductions manufactured.

Establishments in which lead and tin toys are being painted, lead, copper, tin, and brass works.

Establishments for metal bronzing.

Establishments in which lead, copper, zinc, or alloys of these metals are being worked up or used.

Establishments for metal polishing, manufacture of files, harness making.

Establishments using mercury.

Establishments producing, working up, or using lead or lead compounds.

Establishments for the manufacture of explosives, fireworks, matches, and other inflammables.

Establishments manufacturing celluloid articles.

Chemical establishments.

Dead animal recovery plants.

Chemical bleaching and dyeing works.

Rag sorting establishments.

Establishments for the salting, dressing, and tanning of skins and hides.

Manufacture of rubber and gutta-percha articles.

Horsehair spinning mills, rabbit-hair cutting establishments, and other establishments in which animal hair is worked up.

Establishments for the cleaning and dressing of hair and bristles, brush factories.

Mother-of-pearl goods factories.

Bakeries.

Butcher shops, establishments for the cleaning of feathers for bedding.

Chemical laundries.

Establishments of painters, decorators, and lacquerers.

Liveries and teaming establishments.

Turners' shops.

Flour mills.

Chimney-sweeping establishments.

II. Occupations.

Attendance of power engines and all machines operated by power, power transmission, elevators.

Attendance of machines operated by hand, with the exclusion of ordinary hand winding-off machines, bobbin reels, and so-called spinning machines for the manufacture of artificial flowers.

Attendance of gins or similar dangerous engines.

Attendance of straw and feed-cutting machines.

Building and excavating work.

Employment at apparatus in which are contained fluids, steam, or gases under pressure.

Furnace and open-hearth work.

Employment at work involving the generation of dust or gases.

Collection and assorting of rags, junk, etc.

Mixing or milling of paint.

Work in beer, wine, and other cellars.

Setting up of pins in bowling alleys.

Breaking of stones.

Lifting, carrying, or moving of heavy burdens

Woodcutting or chopping.

Thrashing.

Mowing.

Beater of game at battues.

Drawing in of nets in fishing.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND HYGIENE.

Use of the Geophone for Mine Rescue Work.

A CCORDING to Safety, the bulletin of the Safety Institute of America, for November-December, 1919,¹ the United States Bureau of Mines has been developing the geophone, or listening instrument used in war operations, for peace-time uses in mines. It is suggested by the bureau that this instrument will be of value to mine-rescue crews who may be entering mines for exploration, and for locating miners who have been entombed after a disaster. The instrument was invented by the French during the war for the purpose of detecting enemy sapping and underground mining operations and for the location of enemy artillery.

During the same period, according to the account in Safety, engineers of the mining division of the United States Bureau of Mines were engaged in experiments for the purpose of determining the distance that the various mining machines could be heard through clay, shale, coal, and the mine cover. Measurements were also made of the energy required to make blows heard for definite distances through clay, shale, and coal, as well as of the distances at which the shock waves resulting from the discharge of various explosives could be heard. The factors influencing the transfer of energy from a mining tool to the clay and coal were also investigated, in order that recommendations could be made as to the type of mining machine which could be used to accomplish the greatest amount of work with a minimum of noise.

The mechanism and operation of the geophone are described as follows:

The instrument, though small, is essentially a seismograph, since it works on the same principle as the ponderous apparatus with which earthquake tremors are recorded. It consists of an iron ring about $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, within the center of which is suspended a lead disc which is fastened by a single bolt through two mica discs, one of which covers the top and the other the bottom of the ring. There are two brass cap pieces, the top one having an opening in its center to which is fastened a rubber tube, leading to a stethoscopic earpiece. These cap pieces are fastened with bolts to the iron ring and serve also to hold the mica discs in place.

We then have nothing but a lead weight suspended between two mica discs cutting across a small air-tight box. If the instrument is placed on the ground and a person is pounding or digging in the vicinity, energy is transmitted as wave motion to the earth, and the earth-waves shake the geophone case. The lead weight, on account of its mass and because it is suspended between the mica discs, remains comparatively motionless. There then is produced a relative motion between the instrument case

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 $^{^{1}}$ Safety. Bulletin of the Safety Institute of America. November-December, 1919. New York. Pp. 206-208.

and the lead weight. The result is that a compression and rarefication of the air in the instrument takes place. Since the rubber tube leading to the stethoscopic earpiece is connected with this space in the geophone, this rarefication and compression is carried to the eardrum.

As usually two instruments are used, one for each ear, it has been found that the sound is apparently louder from the instrument nearer the source of the sound. By moving the instruments properly, however, a point can be found where the sound will be of the same apparent intensity in both ears. The direction of the sound is then on a perpendicular to the line connecting the centers of the two instruments either in front of or behind the observer. Further observation will show which side. Direction of sound is quite accurately determined in this way.

An Occupational Dermatosis Observed in the Leather Trade.

A SKIN complaint which attacks certain employees engaged in fellmongers' yards is discussed by Dr. R. Prosser White in The Journal of Industrial Hygiene (Boston) for February, 1920. He assigns the condition to a hitherto unreported cause and says:

In the first stage of the leather trade fresh skins, called pelts, are cured, and the epidermis with its appendages removed. In the case of sheep and the smaller animals this is done in fellmongers' yards. The skins of cattle, horses, deer, pigs, etc., required to make other varieties of leather are cured and unhaired at different establishments or in the annexes to tanyards. The treatment is very much the same in both.

In the fellmongers' yard, if the hair or wool is intended to remain on the pelt, this is steeped in brine. If the wool requires removing, the fleshy sides of fresh or salt-free sheepskins are laid against each other, having previously been liberally brushed over with a thick cream containing an excess of slaked lime and 5 per cent sodium sulphide. They are then lifted into the floods or vats by men called jobbers or washers. After remaining there for a sufficient time the pelts are carried to the washing pits by the curers.

Gloves are invariably worn for the first removal, particularly in the foreign pelt trade, where a very strong solution of sodium or calcium hydrosulphide is used as a quick unhairer.

In the second removal, and also during inspection, the hands are bare, and the beginner or careless worker suffers great discomfort owing to redness, tenderness, and cracks which appear on the hands from these chemicals. In these workmen as many as four to a dozen small ulcers, the size of a split pea, will be seen on the sides of the knuckles and on the interdigital skin of the fingers. The knuckles are swollen and inflamed.

The pelts are then conveyed to the unhairing room and placed, hair uppermost, on the pulling beam. The pullers scrape off the hair or wool by rubbing down the woolly skin with the balls of the naked thumbs and the ulnar edges of the palms of both hands. The characteristic rash and holes appear on these parts in the pullers. An expert puller will unwool 1,000 sheep in a week.

The interaction of sodium sulphide with milk of lime produces calcium hydrosulphide and caustic soda. These cause the mischief in this perticular trade. If neglected, the ulcers penetrate deeply, the sores easily becoming infected, causing inability to work.

An effective trade-shop remedy is a drop of Stockholm tar applied to each hole. This appears to act as a protective, enabling the men to "carry on." Frequent washings of the hands in a weak solution of vinegar and water, followed by the thorough rubbing in of an ointment, are helpful preventives.

The author gives the formula for an ointment which he has found effective in such cases.

Minister of Hygiene for France.

N INNOVATION has been made by Premier Millerand in the organization of the new French cabinet by the creation of the office of Minister of Social Hygiene, Social Insurance, and Social Provision (Ministère de l'hygiène, de l'assurance et de la prévoyance sociales), as noted in the foreign correspondence of the Journal of the American Medical Association (Chicago) for March 6, 1920. The question of appointing a special minister of public health has been considered since 1902, and the present action consists in giving permanent form to the temporary organization, under the chairmanship of M. Clemenceau, of a ministerial conference which grouped together all the services having to do with health and hygiene that had been previously scattered through five ministerial departments. The new office of minister of hygiene has been conferred upon J.-L. Breton, whose experience as chemical engineer, adviser to the Chamber of Deputies in matters of social hygiene, and author of the bill to suppress the use of white lead in building paint made him the "logical choice for the new post."

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

Workmen's Compensation Law of Virginia Amended.

THE Workmen's Compensation Commission of Virginia secured the cooperation of employers and employees in the enactment of a law amending in several respects the compensation act of the State. The fact of this cooperation is regarded as a reflection of "the true spirit that underlies legislation of this character—the bringing together into closer relationship of all employers and employees."

The first amendment provides for the subrogation of the employer to any right an injured workman may have to sue in damages a third party legally liable for the injury. Any excess recovered by the employer in the suit shall be for the benefit of the injured person or his beneficiaries, and no compromise settlement may be made by the employer or insurance carrier in such a case without the approval of the industrial commission.

The second amendment extends the time for the furnishing of medical service from 30 days to 60 days; while the third provides payment of compensation for the two weeks' waiting time in case of a disability continuing more than six weeks. The maximum weekly payment for disability or death is increased from \$10 to \$12 and the maximum total from \$4,000 to \$4,500.

Instead of the loss of an eye the loss of vision entitles to compensation, and a permanent partial loss is to be proportionately compensated. A new subsection provides for compensation for the permanent loss of use of any member as for the loss of the member, and a permanent partial disability loss or loss of use is to be proportionately compensated.

The salaries of the members of the commission are increased from \$3,600 per annum to \$4,200 and of the secretary from \$2,000 to \$3,000. The commission is also given authority in its own right to enforce the attendance of witnesses and the production of books and papers without having to call on a court to render this service for it, as under the original act.

There was considerable activity in behalf of a State insurance fund, which had strong support but failed of enactment. It is said that a competitive fund might have been provided for, but was not desired

by the friends of the measure.

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Compensation Table for Visual Losses of One Eye.

By Frank Allport, M. D.

THIS is a table for the estimation of compensation to be paid workmen who have suffered partial or complete loss of vision of one eye through accident or occupation. At present no recognized standard of compensation conclusions exists. Chaos and uncertainty abound, and apparently one medical expert's guess is as good as another's. Several compensation tables have been proposed, but none have proven acceptable. No table can be perfect, because of varying conditions accompanying each case. Some reasonable standard is, however, essential, as a working basis, by which litigation may be guided. Everyone recognizes that the old Snellen test type fractions are incorrect and misleading. For instance, 20/40 does not mean a one-half loss of vision, nor 20/50 a three-fifths loss of vision, etc., and yet this is the method of estimating lost vision prevailing in our courts. The Chicago Opthalmological Society (the largest local eye society in the United States) at its meeting November 10, 1919, adopted the following table as its official expression of opinion as to what constitutes a fair basis of settlement of visual losses in one eye following accidents, etc. This matter has been under consideration by the society for two or three years and this table voices its deliberate opinion, and it is fair to presume can be safely recommended for general adoption. There are, of course, other features concerning visual losses that must always be considered, such as injuries to both eyes, vision after cataract operations, progressive optic atrophy, corneal scars, etc. Personal medical expert opinion will always be necessary, table or no table, but some standard is essential as a basis for settlements. Such a standard should not be the opinion of one man, but should be the thoroughly considered sentiment of a scientific, well-recognized organization of eye surgeons. The table submitted has the indorsement of the Chicago Ophthalmological Society, and is probably as fair and equitable as a table can be made at this time.

Basis of settlement of visual losses in one eye.

20/	20	indicates	100	per	cent	of	visual	efficiency	and	no	loss	of	vision.
20/	30	"	94.5	per	cent	66	6.6	4.6	66	5.5 per cent	"	66	66
20/	40	66	89.0	per	cent	66	66	66	66	11.0 per cent	66	6.6	44
20/	50	66	83.5	per	cent	66	66	66	64	16.5 per cent	66	"	6.6
20/	60	66	78.0	per	cent	66	66	66	66	22.0 per cent	66	66	6.6

20/ 70	indicates	72.5 per cent of	visual	efficiency	and	27.5 per cent	loss	of	vision.
20/80	11	67.0 per cent "	11	11	44	33.0 per cent	6.6	66	4.6
20/ 90	1.1	61.5 per cent "	44	11	4.6	38.5 per cent	1.4	1.4	14
20/100	14	56.0 per cent "	66	"	16	44.0 per cent	44	11	"
20/110	14	50.0 per cent "	- 66	6.6	11	50.0 per cent	6.6	2.6	"
20/120	44	41.0 per cent "	11	4.4	4.6	59.0 per cent	44		4.6
20/130	44	36.5 per cent "	66	66	66	63.5 per cent	66	"	
20/140	44	32.0 per cent "		4.6	4.4	68.0 per cent	6.6	66.	66
20/150	44 .	28.5 per cent "		16	44	71.5 per cent			66
20/160	4.6	23.0 per cent "		"	16	77.0 per cent	4.6	4.6	4.6
20/170		18.5 per cent "		11	4.6	81.5 per cent	11	11	66
20/180	66	14.0 per cent "		6.6	44	86.0 per cent	6.6	4.6	11
20/190		12.0 per cent "		44	6.6	88.0 per cent		"	66
20/200		10.0 per cent "	1.1	4.6	44	90.0 per cent		66	1.6

Snellen's test letters are used and should be hung in a good light 20 feet from the applicant. The uninjured eye should be covered during the test. Vision is expressed in fractions. The distance of the applicant from the letters constitutes the numerator of the fraction; the smallest line seen constitutes the denominator. Thus, if the applicant is seated 20 feet from the letters and can see the line marked 20, his vision is 20/20 or normal. If he can only see the 50-foot line, his vision is 20/50, etc. The applicant should be given credit for a line if he can read a majority of the letters in the line.

This table assumes that if an injured applicant can see the 200 line while sitting 20 feet away, in other words, if he has still a vision of 20/200, he is not industrially blind—his visual efficiency is 10 per cent and his visual loss is 90 per cent. If his vision is worse than 20/200 he is industrially blind. From 20/200 vision is gradually scaled up to 20/20 or normal, by fractions of 10, as will be seen on the table, and estimations of visual efficiency and visual losses deducted thereby. Such estimations and the financial awardings will, of course, have to be governed by the laws in the various States.

My advice, therefore, in the interest of harmony, uniformity, and equity, and because the above table has been officially adopted by the Chicago Ophthalmological Society, and will receive its indorsement and support, is to abandon all other tables and endeavor to secure the adoption of the above table by industrial commissions, courts of justice, corporations, accident companies, attorneys, abaricione etc.

physicians, etc.

SOCIAL INSURANCE.

Report of the Illinois Pension Laws Commission, 1918–19.

HE Report of the Illinois Pension Laws Commission, 1918-19, is the title of a volume of 379 pages issued by a commission created by an act of the Illinois Legislature, bearing date of June 14, 1917. This commission of four persons was charged with the duty of investigating the operation of existing pension laws in the State and of gathering information as to cost of maintenance and other details of operation. Similar laws of other States and countries were also to be studied. A commission of like function had been appointed in 1916 and the present commission was largely a continuation of the earlier one. A number of pension laws were enacted in 1917, and at present there are 15 pension laws on the statute books of the State. The funds now in existence relate to policemen, firemen, teachers, and a few other classes of municipal employees. There are separate laws for Chicago and for other sections of the State. The general charge is made that the existing funds are financially insecure and that the laws lack uniformity and comprehensiveness.

The commission presents "a proposed standard plan for a comprehensive and permanent system of pension funds to replace the unsound systems under the present pension laws for public employees in Illinois." The plan provides for compulsory contributions, with certain exceptions. The proposed plan has for its central feature the accumulation of a sufficient amount to provide an annuity at the age of retirement equal to a definite percentage of the highest salary of the retiring employee. "These accumulations would accrue from contributions made by the public as employer and by the employee at a fixed ratio." Provision is also contemplated for the widows of employees dying before attaining the age of retirement, and for survivorship annuities for the widows of retired employees. Withdrawal from service is also provided for under a variety of conditions. The scheme covers old age inefficiency, death, sickness, and accidents.

A standard retirement age of 55 years is fixed for policemen and firemen and 60 years for all other employees, with a minimum age of retirement of five years lower. Policemen and firemen are to retire on 50 per cent of their salary and others on 40 per cent, if their

accumulations are sufficient to pay so much. The ratio of contribution between the employer and the employee is three to one for policemen and firemen and two to one in other branches of the public service, contributions by the employee being limited to 4 per cent of salary and by the employer to 12 per cent of salary in the case of policemen and firemen and to 8 per cent in the case of other employees. No amount of salary in excess of \$2,500 is to be considered as the basis of either contributions or annuities. Interest at 4 per cent is compounded annually on contributions made by or in behalf of employees, and refunds prior to retirement are to be made at that rate.

The foregoing provisions relate to retirement annuities only. Life insurance is a separate provision, the public and the employee to bear the expense equally, employee's contributions not to exceed 2 per cent of his salary. The amount of the insurance is limited to 175 per cent of the annual salary in the case of policemen and firemen, and 125 per cent in other cases. Sickness and accident insurance are likewise sustained by equal contributions of the public and employee, where the misfortune is not the direct result of the performance of duty, the benefits to be paid in monthly installments equal to 30 per cent of employee's salary, unless the employee attains the standard age of retirement before recovery. Where disability results directly from the service, the expense is borne entirely by the employer. In this case the monthly payment to the employee is 75 per cent of his salary, payments to be continued during disability unless employee attains, before recovery, an age five years beyond standard age of retirement.

The claim is made that the system is worked out on a sound actuarial basis, and illustrative tables are provided to demonstrate its operation in its various lines. A complete draft of a bill is presented, the administration to be in the hands of retirement boards for each of the 11 groups of employees provided for in the measure.

A survey of the various positions in the public service of the State, statistics of ages, years of service and salaries of certain classes of employees, the effect of pension legislation of 1917, court decisions on pension systems, and a digest of the laws enacted in 1917 make up the remainder of this study in so far as the State is concerned. Other chapters discuss recent developments in pension legislation in other States of the Union, and the world's experience in the operation of public service pension systems. Industrial and institutional pension systems are also briefly considered.

Regulation of the Employment Service and Unemployment Insurance in Italy.

MMEDIATELY upon the signing of the armistice, consideration was given by the Italian Government to the question of providing relief against the involuntary unemployment which would be the natural result of the transformation of industry from a war to a peace basis and of the demobilization of the army, and by a decree of November 17, 1918, an appropriation of 100,000,000 lire (\$19,300,000, par) was made for this purpose.2 By additional decrees, provision was made for the establishment of an elaborate system of employment offices in conjunction with existing governmental agencies and private organizations and also for the payment of unemployment grants.

Establishment of Central Employment Office.

NDER the terms of the decree of November 17, 1918, a central employment office for manual workers was established in the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor, which was given supervision over the activities of all local bodies engaged in the placing of labor, and whose duty it should be to study questions relating to the employment of labor both in Italy and abroad. In connection with the central employment office, a consulting and advisory commission was appointed, composed of representatives of industrial and agricultural employers and workers, and representatives of the Government departments concerned. It was further provided that in each prefecture or provincial government a provincial labor commission (commissione di avviamento al lavoro), charged with the collection of requests for and offers of labor transmitted by the communal commissions, should be established.

The State railway administration is authorized to grant the special military rates to groups of five or more workers of either sex who travel third class at their own expense to the same locality for employment, provided such groups hold a certificate from an employment office or labor commission.

In every commune where a properly constituted employment office has been established, a labor commission is provided for, composed of a representative of the communal government, who shall be neither of the employing class nor of the working class, and of a representative of each of these classes. These communal commissions are charged with gathering and registering requests for and

² See Monthly Labor Review, Apr., 1919, p. 225.

¹ This summary is based on the following sources:

Italy: Ufficio Nazionale per il Collocamento e la Disoccupazione. Il Mercato del Lavoro. Vol. 1, No. 1.

Rome, Dec. 1, 1919. Gazzetta Ufficiale, Rome, Dec. 10, 1919.
United States: Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Commerce Reports, Dec. 11, 1919, pp. 1440 ff.; Dec. 29, 1919, pp. 1765 ff., and a communication from the commercial attaché at Rome to the director of this bureau, dated Jan. 12, 1920.

offers of labor presented by residents of the commune. Where municipal labor offices exist, the commissions and committees established by such offices may be authorized to act as communal labor commissions, provided they are composed of an equal number of employers and workers.

Provision is made for the extension of financial aid by the Government to employment offices for manual workers of the following classes:

1. Those established by the Provinces and communes;

2. Those established jointly by agreement between employers and workers:

3. Those established by labor organizations and recognized by the corresponding employers' organizations, or vice versa, for placing workers in particular industries.

4. Those established by charitable institutions or similar bodies.

Aid may also be granted to other organizations which promote the establishment of employment offices on a proper financial and administrative basis.

With the exception of those established by labor organizations, the management of employment offices is confined to a commission consisting of two members representing the employers and two representing the workers. These members nominate the president. Employment offices established or registered under this decree assume no responsibility for the exact fulfillment of labor contracts concluded through their mediation. In the case of disputes regarding labor agreements the employment office suspends the placing of labor in the establishment in question either directly or so far as other offices are concerned, until a settlement has been reached.

Decree of February 9, 1919.

For office workers and others who do not perform manual labor, provisions similar to the above are made by the decree of February 9, 1919. Financial aid is extended by the State to employment offices established in this connection, which are placed under the supervision of the central employment office, and provision is made for representation on the central advisory committee. In place of establishing separate employment offices for nonmanual workers, separate departments may be provided for them in the general employment offices. In addition to granting aid to employment offices for nonmanual workers, the State makes contributions to professional and welfare associations for this class of workers, which grant unemployment relief to their members.

Recent Changes in Plan of Organization—Unemployment Insurance.

As A result of the experience gained by the Italian Government since the signing of the armistice in November, 1918, in combating unemployment, new measures were recently enacted in a

decree dated October 19, 1919, and published in the Gazzetta Ufficiale of December 10. These measures make radical changes in the plan of organization and the provisions for the payment of unemployment grants established by the decrees of November 17, 1918, and January 5, 1919, and should produce more satisfactory results. In addition to modifying the administrative organization previously established in such a way as to centralize and coordinate more effectively all the activities of the Government with regard both to employment and to unemployment, provision is made for the establishment of a permanent system of unemployment insurance which will be maintained through a fund to which not only the State but also the employers and the workers will contribute.

The decree of October 19, 1919, consists of 56 articles grouped

under four titles. Its provisions are summarized below.

Changes in Administrative Organization.

A single office, called National Employment and Unemployment Office (Ufficio Nazionale per il Collocamento e la Disoccupazione), is to be established in the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor, which will replace the two offices created by the former decrees, i. e., the central employment office and the office which had charge of the distribution of unemployment grants.

The local direction and supervision of the services coming under the administration of the National Office are to be exercised by newly established provincial employment and unemployment commissions (giunte provinciali per il collocamento e la disoccupazione), and supervisory commissioners. These commissions will supervise not only all the activities of the authorized employment offices, as was formerly the case, but also the offices which will be established for administering in their districts the provisions relating to unemployment insurance.

So far as the communal organizations for the placing of labor are concerned, the decree does not provide radical changes. In place of disbursing unemployment grants through these employment offices, however, there will be established in each Province an "office for insurance against unemployment," which will be administered by the provincial commission.

Agreements as to wage and working conditions having a general character for a specified labor market, industry, or occupation must through the prefects, mayors, and employers' and workers' organizations be deposited with the employment offices and the labor commissions.

Employers, inclusive of public administrations, who do not directly or through their own representatives hire labor required by them are obligated by the decree to have recourse to the authorized employment offices and must indicate the number of workers required, the trade or occupation which these are to exercise, and the working and wage conditions offered.

The decree prohibits the operation of employment offices for gain

and provides heavy fines for violators of this prohibition.

The placing of workers in employment involving their working in foreign countries is to be effected under the supervision of the Emigration Commission.

Financial Provisions.

Authority is granted in the decree for the inclusion in the budget of the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor of the sum of 50,000,000 lire (\$9,650,000, par), which may be used by the National Office for placing labor or for making advances to local bodies for

combating unemployment.

In addition to the above, a permanent national fund will be provided for placing labor and combating unemployment, which will be made up of the balance remaining from funds already appropriated for this purpose, part of the contributions required in connection with the new compulsory unemployment insurance, and an annuity from the State, which is fixed at 40,000,000 lire (\$7,720,000, par) for the first three years.

Unemployment Insurance.

The decree provides for the establishment in each Province of a general unemployment insurance fund administered by the provincial employment and unemployment commission. Insurance against unemployment through occupational funds established by trade organizations or by agreement of employers and workers is also to be permissible.

Unemployment insurance is made compulsory for all manual workers of both sexes and for those salaried employees whose monthly earnings do not exceed 350 lire (\$67.55, par). All workers under 15 years or over 65 years of age, home workers, domestic servants, and persons permanently employed by public authorities, are exempted.

Beginning with January 1, 1920, the following contributions to

the fund against unemployment have been required:

CONTRIBUTIONS PER WORKER TO UNEMPLOYMENT FUND. [One lira at par equals 19.3 cents.]

To the constant	C	Contribution.				
Daily earnings.	Fortnightly	Weekly.	Daily.			
4 lire and less. Over 4 lire to 8 lire. Over 8 lire.	Lire. 0.70 1.40 2.10	Lire. 0.35 .70 1.05	Lire. 0.06 .12 .18			

One-half of the contribution for each worker is to be paid by the employer and one-half by the worker himself. The employer is held responsible for the payment of the worker's share of the contribution. Unemployed workers are not required to make contributions during the period of their involuntary unemployment.

The new schedule of unemployment grants is a very simple one and is based entirely upon the earnings of the worker. In general it is somewhat higher than the schedule hitherto in effect. The daily

grants will be as follows:

	Daily unemployment benefit.
4 lire and less	
Over 4 lire to 8 lire	
Over 8 lire	. 3.75 lire.

The decree provides that in no case shall the daily unemployment

benefit paid exceed one-half of the worker's daily wage.

The payment of the above unemployment benefit is to begin with the eighth day of unemployment, and its maximum duration within one calendar year is limited to 120 days. Unemployment benefits

will not be paid for holidays.

The right to receive unemployment grants is confined exclusively to those who are involuntarily unemployed. Seasonal workers are not entitled to receive such grants during off seasons, though such workers may be granted unemployment benefits if they make higher contributions, the amount of which is to be determined in the by-laws of each fund. Unemployment due to labor disputes does not entitle to unemployment grants.

The disbursement of unemployment grants will as a rule be effected through the employment offices and other agencies authorized by the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor. The post offices may also be authorized to act as disbursing agencies. Occupational funds may through their own agencies effect the disbursing of unemployment grants, but in such case must adopt the rules laid down by the

above ministry for a proper accounting.

An unemployed worker must present himself for registration at an employment office on the day following that on which he was discharged, unless he intends to procure work for himself directly, in which case he forfeits the right to receive an unemployment grant until he has presented himself for registration. In such a case he becomes entitled to an unemployment grant five days after his registration, provided that the seven days waiting time have elapsed. Private salaried employees must register with an employment office immediately after having received notice of discharge and without letting elapse the period of notice.

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No unemployment grants will be allowed to unemployed workers for whose account at least 24 fortnightly payments, or the equivalent in weekly or daily contributions, have not been made during the two years preceding. When 24, but less than 36, fortnightly contributions have been paid, the worker is entitled to the receipt of an unemployment benefit for 90 days; and when 36 or more fortnightly contributions have been made he may receive the unemployment benefit for the maximum period of 120 days.

An unemployed worker who, without justifiable reasons, refuses suitable employment in his own or a related trade offered him by one of the employment offices, forfeits his right to receive an unemployment grant. Habitual loafers and drunkards are also excluded from the benefits of the decree.

Supervision and Penal Provisions.

The supervision of the application of the decree is to be exercised by the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor through its National Employment and Unemployment Office, which is authorized to have its officers make inspections of the provincial and trade unemployment funds and all other agencies established for the carrying out of the decree, as well as of the establishments in which persons subject to the decree are employed. Employers refusing to assist the inspectors in their investigations and to furnish data and papers requested by them are liable to a fine not to exceed 1,000 lire (\$193, par).

Employers who fail to make their own contributions and those of their employees and workers are liable to a fine equal to double the amount of the unpaid contributions, but not to exceed 10,000 lire (\$1,930, par), and in addition must pay the delinquent contributions. Persons trying to obtain unemployment grants fraudulently are to be deprived of the benefits of the decree for a period of one year and fined double the amount wrongfully secured by them, without prejudice to their further punishment in accordance with the criminal code.

A special decree of the Ministry of Industry, Commerce, and Labor is to establish rules for the control of actual unemployment, under which employers will keep the Government and the unemployment funds always informed as to the workers included in the insurance and their wages.

Construction of Public Works.

POSITIVE action will be taken by the State toward removing the causes of unemployment by undertaking the immediate construction of public works. The Ministry of Industry, Commerce,

and Labor recently announced that approval has been given to projects involving an expenditure of about 1,300,000,000 lire (\$250,900,000, par), to be carried out within the next four years, which will include general reclamation work, road construction, post and inland waterway improvement, etc. The most important single line of activity will be that of railway construction, for which it is estimated that 400,000,000 lire (\$77,200,000, par), will be expended during the next four years.

Unemployment Statistics.

THE first issue of Il Mercato del Lavoro (The Labor Market), a bulletin published by the Italian National Employment and Unemployment Office, contains two tables showing the extent of unemployment in Italy at the end of each month during the period March to August, 1919, by districts and by industry groups. The table showing the state of unemployment by districts (regioni) indicates that unemployment was much more extensive in the northern districts, where most of the Italian industries are located, than in the central and southern districts, which have a pronounced agricultural character. The second table, showing the extent of unemployment by industry groups, is here reproduced:

UNEMPLOYMENT IN ITALY, MARCH TO AUGUST, 1919, BY INDUSTRY GROUPS.

Industry group.	Number of unemployed at the end of the following months of 1919:							
	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.		
Mining. Rural industries and agriculture. Manufacturing industries. Metallurgical industries. Chemical industries. Production of motive power, light, and heat Printing industry. Building and road construction. Transportation. Miscellaneous.	2,019 13,896 77,327 21,198 74 266 902 131,113 2,826 18,972	3, 201 54, 988 92, 714 40, 404 556 139 2,059 138, 913 7,091 55,329	4,592 24,307 86,036 32,713 545 117 1,542 175,983 8,262 47,200	4, 903 17, 993 88, 317 31, 304 387 152 1, 595 168, 972 9, 142 32, 990	3, 824 17, 713 89, 931 28, 004 1, 127 400 1, 645 135, 071 8, 331 40, 605	5,734 16,036 73,958 28,130 365 152 2,182 133,747 9,072 57,704		
Total	268, 593	395,394	1 375, 297	1 356, 165	1 326, 451	322, 080		

¹ This is the total as shown in the original table; it is not the sum of the items.

According to the table unemployment during the six months ending August 31, 1919, was most extensive in April, the total number of unemployed in that month having been 395,394. In the next four months unemployment steadily decreased. Of all industry groups, building and road construction had the largest number of unemployed. In May, 1919, the unemployed in this industry group numbered 175,983, or approximately 47 per cent of the total number of unemployed. The manufacturing industries had the next largest number of unemployed.

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The monthly disbursements of the Government for unemployment grants, February to October, 1919, were the following:

	Lire.		Lire.
February	9, 795, 000	July	17, 061, 600
		August	
April	9, 590, 000	September	9, 165, 000
		October	
June	15, 570, 000		

Social Insurance in Switzerland.1

A CCORDING to a report recently issued by the Swiss Insurance Department there were 74 new insurance funds authorized by the Government during the year 1917. The number of authorized societies in operation at the close of the year was 777, in which 629,927 persons were insured.

The number of men, women, and children insured and the kind of insurance carried is shown in the following table:

NUMBER OF INSURANCE FUNDS IN SWITZERLAND AT THE END OF 1917, BY CLASS OF INSURANCE CARRIED, AND NUMBER OF PERSONS INSURED THEREIN.

200000000000000000000000000000000000000	Number	Number of persons insured.				
Class of insurance carried.	of funds.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	
Medical attention and medicines only	46	31,384	52,964	47,612	131,960	
Medical attention, medicines, and unemployment benefits. Medical attention and medicines (less than provided	478	173,232	88,824	18,089	280,145	
by law) and unemployment benefits	10 243	7,564 166,859	576 42,823		8,140 209,682	
Total	777	379,039	185,187	65,701	629,927	

These funds vary as to their composition. In some of them membership is limited to an occupation, a religious or political organization, or a business establishment, but in the majority of cases there are no such restrictions. They vary also in regard to the age and sex of persons eligible to membership.

The following table shows the number of men, women, and children in the various classes of funds:

NUMBER OF INSURANCE FUNDS IN SWITZERLAND AT THE END OF 1917, BY COMPOSITION OF FUND, AND NUMBER OF PERSONS INSURED THEREIN.

	Number	Number of insured persons.				
Composition of fund.	of funds.	Men.	Women.	Children.	Total.	
Children only. Men, women, and children. Women and children Men and women Women only Men only	8 208 1 478 5 77	2 278 116,151 221,264 41,346	2 250 105,690 162 77,504 1,581	10,521 54,802 378	11,049 276,643 540 298,768 1,581 41,340	
Total	777	379,039	185,187	65,701	629, 92	

¹ Rapport du Departement Susse de l'Economic Publique, 1918.
² Insured before reaching 14 years of age, with a right to remain members of the fund until they reach the age of 20 years.

A Federal subsidy is paid annually per member, but not more than once for each member even though the member on whose account it is paid is insured in more than one fund. The membership upon which subsidies were based for the year 1917 was 311,508 men, 164,842 women, and 55,453 children, or 531,803 persons. This subsidy varies with the fund's compensation schemes—whether one or more kinds of compensation are paid, and the amount. The Federal subsidy to those paying only for medical attention and medicines varies from 3.5 to 4.5 francs (67.6 cents to 86.9 cents, par), for unemployment benefits alone from 3.5 to 4.5 francs, while those funds paying both kinds of benefits received from 5 to 5.5 francs (96.5 cents to \$1.06, par) per year per insured person. sidies paid in 1917 amounted to 2,399,852.5 francs (\$463,171.53, par). In addition to this the State paid 114,000 francs (\$22,002, par) as maternity benefits, and 87,200 francs (\$16,829.60, par) as benefits to mothers nursing their children.

Of funds in operation on January 1, 1917, the assets of 528 funds had increased 1,526,164 francs (\$294,549.65, par) and of 169 funds had decreased 223,963 francs (\$43,224.86, par) a net increase of

1,302,201 francs (\$251,324.79, par).

Provisions for Unemployment Relief in Switzerland.¹

ROM August 5, 1918, to April 5, 1919, five decrees of an emergency character were issued by the Swiss Federal Council, regulating the grant of assistance to unemployed workers. Two of these related to unemployment in private industry arising out of war conditions, the third to unemployment among workers employed by the Federal Government, the fourth to unemployment of Swiss subjects returning from abroad, while the fifth laid down conditions for the relief of all workers not covered by the preceding measures. These have now been repealed and replaced by a single decree dated October 29, which went into force on November 16, 1919, but which is still to be regarded as a provisional measure, to be replaced ultimately by an unemployment insurance law.

The main lines followed in the granting of unemployment relief, pending the enactment of such a law, may be stated as follows:

Assistance is granted both for total and for partial unemployment, subject to the fulfillment of conditions laid down in the decree. Such assistance is paid by the communal authorities in the former

and by employers in the latter case.

¹ Reprinted from British Labor Gazette, Source: Recueil des Lois Suisse, Nov. 5 and 19, and Feuille Fédérale Suisse, Nov. 18, 1919.

The amount of relief granted in case of total unemployment is 60 per cent of the normal earnings, or 70 per cent where the person out of work has others legally dependent upon him; but the daily rate of pay must not in any case exceed certain maximums laid down in the decree. The maximum amount varies according to whether or not there are dependents and also according to the cost of living in the commune in which the unemployed worker resides.² Where short time is worked the relief paid by the employer is equal to half the loss of wage or salary.

Unemployment relief must not be paid, as a rule, for more than 60

working days in any one year.

The cost of relief is covered by grants from the Federal Government, the Cantons, and communes, and by contributions levied upon the employer, either by his trade association (should he belong to one), or by the government of the Canton in which his business is carried on. The share which an individual employer may be called upon to pay will be fixed by his association or by the cantonal authority as the case may be, and will be, (1) in respect of nonmanual workers, an amount which is not less than the total salary bill for half a month and not more than the total salary bill for three months, and (2) in respect of manual workers an amount which is not less than one week's wages bill and not more than the wages bill for six weeks. In computing the amount of the pay roll for the purpose of assessing an employer no account is taken of salary paid to a nonmanual worker in excess of 500 francs (\$96.50, par) per month, or of wages to a manual worker in excess of 84 francs (\$16.71, par) per week.

Where the reduction of the working hours resulting in partial unemployment is 40 per cent or under, the cost of relief is borne entirely by the employers; if it is more than 40 per cent the employer will

pay one-third of the cost of the relief provided.

Disputes are to be referred to the cantonal conciliation offices or to arbitration boards upon which these offices are represented. Unemployment relief under this decree is not to count as poor relief.

Special arrangements are made to cover the case of unemployment relief for aliens domiciled in Switzerland and for workers in

seasonal trades.

The Federal Department of Public Economy is authorized to dispense with certain provisions of this decree in the case of certain classes of undertakings in which no unemployment exists or where there are organizations granting benefits equivalent to those conferred by the present measure.

² Communes are divided into three classes, viz.: "dear," "moderately dear," and "relatively cheap." In the second of these, for example, a person out of work may not receive more than 5 francs [96.5 cents, par] per day, or, if he has dependents, $7\frac{1}{2}$, 8, $8\frac{1}{2}$ or 9 francs [\$1.45, \$1.54, \$1.64, or \$1.74, par], according to their number, with an additional 50 centimes [9.7 cents, par], for each dependent in excess of four.

Regulations for the carrying out of the decree were issued on November 10. These show that an unemployment office is to be set up in each commune, and that where possible the duties of such office are to devolve upon the public employment exchange.

State Assistance for the Unemployed in Poland.

A CCORDING to the British Labor Gazette for February (p. 64), the Polish Official Gazette for November, 1919, contains the text of a temporary Government measure which provides the following immediate arrangements in aid of the unemployed pending the passing of a law dealing with this subject:

Able-bodied workers of either sex in trade, commerce, or transport who, through no fault of their own, are out of work, are entitled to State assistance, to be administered by the district unemployed assistance commission under the control of the Ministry of Labor and Public Welfare. One-half of the membership of the above commission will be composed of workers' representatives. The rate of daily assistance to be given varies according to the population of the locality. Where the population is less than 50,000 it will be 4 marks for the head of the family, with 2 marks for his wife (if she is not earning a separate wage), and 1 mark for each dependent child, the total not to exceed 10 marks a day; in places with 50,000 inhabitants or more and in all industrial centers the daily allowance is 5 marks for the head of the family, 3 marks for a worker's wife not earning money independently, and 1 mark for each dependent child, the total not exceeding 12 marks a day. This donation may be in kind. It is to begin within 14 days after the unemployed worker has been registered in the labor office, the maximum number of weekly donations in any one year being 13, though in exceptional cases it may be 17.

The donation will be forfeited if the applicant has ceased work for inadequate reasons; if he has obtained work for at least a fortnight; if he has made a false statement in his application; if he fails to comply with certain regulations; and finally, if he declines to accept work in establishments not affected by a strike or boycott, at trade-union rates, or at current local rates, when such work is offered to him by the labor office.

LABOR LAWS AND REGULATIONS.

Legislation as to Rehabilitation of Injured Workers.

By LINDLEY D. CLARK.

A N INDUSTRIAL result of the Great War was the maiming or otherwise disabling of large numbers of men drawn from the ranks of the workers of the country. To minify this loss, and to save the injured man from a life of dependence and consequent loss of self-respect, Congress, in common with other national legislatures, passed a law (June 27, 1918, 40 Stat. 617), entitled the Vocational Rehabilitation Act. (See Monthly Labor Review, July, 1918, p. 29.) The purpose of this act is to provide for the retraining of disabled persons discharged from the military or naval forces of the United States, and their "placement in suitable or gainful occupations."

The subject of equipping and retraining men injured in industry and disabled to pursue their former vocations had been discussed by those interested in social welfare for a number of years, and attention had been directed to the notable results attained in some European countries. However, it seemed to require a special impetus to secure public effort and action, and this the war has evidently afforded. First to act was the State of Massachusetts, which by a statute of 1918 (chap. 231, approved May 28) created a division in its industrial accident board, with the duty of training and instructing persons incapacitated for earning a livelihood through industrial accident. The benefits of the act are limited to persons who were residents of the State at the time of becoming incapacitated.

A previous act (chap. 230), approved the same day, made corresponding provision for soldiers and sailors in the then current war disabled or diseased in the service. Both acts contemplate cooperation with the Federal Government in any way available and approved by the State agencies intrusted with carrying out their provisions. The machinery provided for in the first act is an advisory board consisting of the commissioner of education, the surgeon general, and others, ex officio, including the chairman of the industrial accident board, and nine other persons appointed by the governor.

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Other States taking similar action are California (chap. 183, May 2, 1919), Illinois (act of June 28, 1919), Minnesota (chap. 365, Apr. 23, 1919), Nevada (chap. 182, Mar. 28, 1919), New Jersey (chap. 74, Apr. 10, 1919), North Dakota (chap. 162, Mar. 5, 1919), Oregon (chap. 435, Mar. 4, 1919), Pennsylvania (No. 418, July 18, 1919), and Rhode Island (chap. 1737, Apr. 19, 1919), and Virginia (1920).

The enforcement of the industrial law is placed in the hands of the newly formed division of the industrial accident board without suggestion of methods or limitation on procedure, but it "may act in such manner as it may deem necessary to accomplish the purposes of the act." The division is charged not only with the duty of training the injured worker, but also with securing him employment.

Considerable variety is shown in the nature and scope of the various laws. Some of them are administered as a part of the workmen's compensation system of the State, and are in the hands of the State accident commission or board. Thus, in California where a fatal injury occurs and there is no surviving beneficiary the sum of \$350 is to be paid into an industrial rehabilitation fund. This fund is to be used by the industrial accident commission to promote vocational education and rehabilitation. An act (chap. 418) of this same legislature (1919) that may be mentioned in this connection appropriated \$8,500 for the treatment and rehabilitation of men rejected for military service during the war on account of physical defects.

In North Dakota the only provision made is contained in a section of the workmen's compensation act. The bureau in charge is to undertake "to restore to industry those injured in the course of employment." To this end it may assist the industrial cripples to obtain training, education, and employment, and may cooperate with the Federal Board for Vocational Education for this purpose.

The Oregon statute is somewhat broader than the foregoing, since it provides for the care and reconstruction of workmen injured in industrial pursuits, and also that the funds appropriated may be used "for such other purposes as may be deemed advisable by the commission." The work is intrusted to the industrial accident commission, which is authorized to set aside from the industrial accident fund the sum of \$400,000 to construct and equip an industrial and reconstruction hospital.

Liberal Provisions in New Jersey Law.

To New Jersey must be given the credit of enacting the most liberal law of this type up to the date of its approval. The New Jersey act provides for a commission consisting of the commissioners of education, labor, and charities and corrections, with three nonsalaried commissioners appointed by the governor. One of these last is to represent employers, and one, organized labor. It is the duty of this commission to seek to train and qualify for remunerative employment every "disabled person in the State, resident therein for one year or more, whether his disqualification is due to accident, disease, or congenital defect." Excluded from the operations of the law are the aged and infirm, blind or deaf persons

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under the care of the State, epileptics, feeble-minded persons, and those not susceptible to rehabilitation. The work is to be immediately in the hands of a director to be appointed by the commission, who shall himself employ the necessary staff and special assistants. Reports of disabled persons are to be obtained through public and private hospitals and from the commissioner of labor, who receives accident reports. Applications will also be received from persons desiring training, and a survey of the State is to be made to discover persons requiring assistance of this kind. Arrangements may be made with suitable institutions for the treatment of disabled persons, and they may be furnished artificial limbs and orthopedic appliances at cost and on easy payments. A school of rehabilitation is to be established in a principal city, with branches at other places thought necessary. Arrangements for suitable education and training may be made also with local school authorities and educational institutions, and with commercial, industrial, or agricultural establishments. Recipients of such training may be maintained during the period of training at an expense of not over \$10 per week for 20 weeks, though the length of time may be extended in the discretion of the commission. No person is to be trained against his or her will. Cooperation with the department of labor in the matter of placements and with the State or Federal Government or any private agencies for the carrying out of the purpose of the act is provided for.

The Illinois Legislature enacted in June, 1919, a law practically identical with the New Jersey law, while the Pennsylvania Assembly enacted similar legislation in July. The Illinois law provides for its administration by the department of public welfare, its scope and methods being practically as in the State of New Jersey. In Pennsylvania the law is intrusted to a bureau of rehabilitation to be created in the department of labor and industry, whose chief is charged with the duty of directing the rehabilitation of residents of Pennsylvania whose capacity to earn a living is in any way destroyed or impaired through industrial accidents in the State. The scope of the act is therefore much more limited than is the case in New Jersey and Illinois, but its methods of procedure are much the same as laid down in the New Jersey act; however, artificial limbs and appliances may be furnished gratis, and the maintenance fund may be as high as \$15 weekly, the law in these two points being more liberal than in

New Jersey and Illinois.

In Minnesota ² the work of rehabilitation is intrusted to a division of the State board of vocational education. The beneficiaries are to be those whose capacity to earn a living has been impaired or destroyed

 $^{^2}$ An account of the Minnesota plan was published in the Monthly Labor Review for January, 1920 (pp. 184–189).

"through industrial accident or otherwise," and who are residents or citizens of Minnesota. Cooperation with the administration of the compensation act is authorized, as well as with Federal agencies. Courses of education and training may be established, or the board may cooperate with local boards of education in establishing and maintaining suitable courses, as may be deemed most expedient in carrying out the purposes of the act. The board is also to seek to obtain employment for the persons trained.

Quite similar to the foregoing are the provisions of the Rhode Island statute, in which the commissioner of public schools is authorized to make any industrial cripple resident in the State, injured in employment therein, and a fit subject for rehabilitation and education, a State beneficiary. Such person may be trained in any suitable school or institution at the expense of the State for not more than one year, though in approved cases this term may be extended. Artificial limbs may be furnished wholly or partly free of charge or at cost on installment payments.

The Nevada statute takes no initiative, but appropriates \$10,000 for the use of the State board of education in cooperating with any activity of the United States "for the promotion of vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industry or otherwise, and their return to safe employment." The instruction may be carried on within the State, or in other States with the approval of the governor in writing.

Rehabilitation Law of Virginia.

THE Legislature of Virginia at its session just closed enacted a law providing for the vocational training and rehabilitation of employees coming under the provisions of the State workmen's compensation act. The law applies to those whose capacity to earn a living has been destroyed or greatly impaired as a result of an industrial accident and who apply for the training contemplated. A condition is that the applicant must be without sufficient means to provide for his own rehabilitation, and preference is to be given to those whose disabilities are greatest and who were residents of the State at the time of the injury. If the commission thinks the applicant a fit subject for the training in view, he may be appointed a beneficiary at any suitable institution or school, either within or without the State, for a period of not more than one year; but if the institution especially recommends a longer period and the governor approves, an extension may be made not to exceed six months.

When an earning capacity equal to that prior to the injury has been regained no further compensation awards shall be paid except those under the schedule for specific injuries; and if more than 50 per cent of the average prior wage can be earned, a readjustment

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shall be made, subject to the same limitation. The sum of \$10,000 is provided to carry out the act, to be taken from the surplus amounts standing to the credit of the administrative fund. If at any time these credits are not adequate, appropriations are to be made. The commission may accept gifts, etc., for this work and is authorized to cooperate with the Federal Government in any work of a similar nature.

No Federal statute on the subject is yet in being, though the Senate passed a bill, June 21, 1919, providing for cooperation with the States in the vocational rehabilitation of persons disabled in industries and otherwise. The House passed a similar measure October 17, 1919, which it sent to the Senate. The Senate committee to which it was referred proposed to amend the House bill by substituting the Senate measure for its provisions, and such action was taken on April 12, 1920, and a conference with the House requested.

It can not escape notice that there is considerable range in the liberality of the provisions of the various acts. The laws of California, North Dakota, and Oregon are closely tied up with the accident funds of their respective States, while in the first two States there is also a strict limitation to industrial injuries. In New Jersey and Illinois, on the other hand, a much broader problem is recognized, and a duty is assumed with regard to citizens and residents physically subnormal, regardless of the origin of their disability. Admitting the desirability and effectiveness of rehabilitation work for any group of citizens, it is difficult to discriminate against any other group likewise exposed to the possibility of becoming a public charge but capable of being made self-supporting and self-respecting. There is a commendable absence of limits to the discretion of the administrative authorities as to the methods to be pursued and the instrumentalities of which they may make use. The whole subject is in an experimental stage; but there are ample financial provisions in most States, and a variety of methods and conditions sufficient to afford a thorough test of the possibilities of such an undertaking.

Retirement Law for Railroad Employees in Argentina.¹

A LAW providing for a national retirement and pension fund for employees on Government-controlled railroads was passed in Argentina April 16, 1919, the various provisions of the law to become effective three months after its promulgation. This law, which superseded all previous laws, provided for a census of the

¹ Boletin del Instituto de Reformas Sociales, Madrid, August, 1919, pp. 243-247; September, 1919, pp. 338-345. [1036]

employees included in its provisions and for a mathematical study on an actuarial basis within the first three years of its going into effect for the purpose of making such modifications as might seem to be advisable.

Purpose and Beneficiaries.

THE employees subject to the operation of the law include all those employed on Government-owned railroads, including the posts now in existence or those which may be established, either by public or private enterprises, in the future, and also employees of the cable road from Chilecito to Mejicana, as well as employees of confectioners' shops operated by concessionaires of the railroads. The pensions also apply to persons who were discharged prior to January 1, 1913, except those discharged for certain specified causes such as drunkenness, dereliction of duty, crimes, etc., and to beneficiaries of deceased employees who prior to the same date would have been entitled to a pension. Employees or laborers engaged in temporary or casual work are not included. Six months' continuous service determines an employee as permanent.

Administration of the Fund.

A DIRECTORATE formed of a president appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate, and three representatives each of the railroads and the employees, has charge of the administration of the fund. In case of a tie the president has the deciding vote. He also has charge of the execution of orders and is the legal representative of the committee, though he does not have the power of appointment or removal of other members. The directorate is required to determine annually the amount of the budget necessary for the following year and to submit the estimate to the President for approval.

Capital of the Fund.

THE revenue for the fund is derived from contributions of the employees and of the employers, from fines, from donations and legacies, and from the interest on accumulated capital. The employees are required to pay 5 per cent, deducted from their wages, on all earnings or wages up to 1,000 pesos (\$424.60, par) per month, to pay the amount of the first month's salary in 24 monthly installments when first employed by a railroad enterprise, and to pay the difference between the first month's pay and the higher pay when receiving an increase in wages. The employers are required to make a monthly contribution equal to 8 per cent of the salaries and daily wages provided that they do not exceed 1,000 pesos monthly. The excess of earnings above 1,000 pesos is not considered. The

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railroads are required to make the discounts from the employees' wages and deposit them, together with their own contributions, each month in the National Bank of Argentina. The entire capital of the fund, except what is necessary for current expenses, is to be invested in national interest-bearing bonds or similar securities.

Amounts of Pensions.

THE pensions cover compulsory and voluntary retirement and invalidity. For compulsory retirement pensions are calculated on the average earnings of the last five years of service. Ninety-five per cent is allowed on earnings up to 100 pesos (\$42.46, par), 80 per cent on earnings between 100 and 300 pesos (\$42.46 and \$127.38, par), and 70 per cent on earnings between 300 and 1,000 pesos (\$127.38 and \$424.60, par). To receive this pension the employee must have completed 30 years of service and be at least 50 years old, and for an employee who has served 30 years but is between the ages of 45 and 50 the pension is reduced one-fourth.

Invalidity pensions are calculated on the average earnings of the last 10 years before retirement on the same scale as the ordinary retirement pension, less a reduction of 5 per cent for each year of service less than 30. This pension is paid to employees having at least 10 years' service to their credit, whatever the cause of disability, and to employees of less than that number of years' service if disability is incurred in the course of their employment.

Voluntary retirement is allowed to employees who have been employed more than 10 years and have reached the age of 50, at the rate of 2 per cent of the ordinary retirement pension for each year of service, and to those 50 years old having less than 10 years' service who wish to retire the amount paid in by them to the fund is returned with 5 per cent compound interest.

Employees who are discharged through no fault of their own receive the amount they have paid into the fund without interest. Such employees may be reinstated in membership in the fund within three years by payment of the sums previously withdrawn, although certain groups covered by a previous law lose this right in two years after the promulgation of the present law.

Those employees who have obtained the ordinary retirement pension may return to the railroad service and if again retired shall receive the pension formerly paid, while those retired for invalidity may be reemployed on easier work and shall receive pensions proportionate to their diminished earnings. If such employees complete the years of service which entitle them to ordinary retirement pensions, they will receive these pensions in addition to the invalidity pensions which are already being received.

If an employee, discharged for causes which forfeit the return of his contributions to the fund, has a family dependent upon him, the pension is to be paid to them.

Pensions are for life except for causes which lead to forfeiture, and for removal to another country, unless permission for such removal is obtained from Congress.

Pensions to Dependents; Special Provisions.

WHEN death occurs to an employee or laborer entitled to a pension, the persons dependent on such an employee, including the widow or the widower suffering from disability, the children, or in default of them the parents or the unmarried sisters of the principal, are entitled to receive one-half of the pension to which the principal was entitled, upon furnishing proof of the validity of their claims.

Employees of the railroads entitled to pensions prior to the date on which the compulsory discount became effective are subject to a discount of 10 per cent on their pensions until the fund shall have been reimbursed to the amount which the discounts on their salaries would have reached. This provision applies also to persons discharged prior to January 1, 1913, who had not forfeited their rights to a pension and to the heirs of persons eligible to a pension who had died before this date.

Arrangements are made for allowing persons formerly employed by private railroads to be given credit for such service in computing their service records for pensions. Provision is also made for supervision of reports of the railroad companies and for prompt payment by them of the sums required, with fines for failure to pay or delay in complying with these requirements. Power for enforcement of these provisions is vested in the president of the directorate of the fund.

Regulations Governing Application of Eight-Hour Law in Poland.

NDER the provisions of the Polish eight-hour law of November 23, 1918, noted in the Monthly Labor Review for March, 1920 (p. 195), the minister of labor and public welfare is authorized to issue regulations pertaining to the enforcement of the law. Such regulations were published on January 9, 1920, and are summarized in the British Labor Gazette for February (p. 64), as follows:

The regulations limit working hours to 8 per day (on Saturdays to 6) or 46 per week. This limitation is to apply to persons employed in manufactories, mining, commerce,

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communication and transport, and in other establishments where work is performed, even if such undertakings are not carried on for profit, or if they belong to the State. In mining the legal working hours are "from bank to bank." The rules of each mine must state clearly the order in which the arrival and departure of the men shall take place. The working hours of transport workers may be regulated by a special order, and in factories belonging to the State working hours may be rearranged by the competent minister, after he has consulted the trade organizations of employers and workpeople, but the total hours worked must not exceed the legal number. Overtime is permitted to be worked in the following cases: (a) Where extra work is necessary in order to prevent damage, or for other similar reasons; (b) at times of seasonal pressure or at periods of stock taking; (c) in factories where continuous processes are carried on; and (d) in cases of national necessity.

For overtime not exceeding two hours payment is to be made at the rate of time and a half, for each hour in excess of two hours and for night work (i. e., between 9 p. m. and 4 a. m.) and work on Sundays and holidays the rate of pay is to be double. Work on Sundays is permitted only in public services, hotels, drug stores, etc., in theaters

and the like, and in establishments carrying on continuous processes.

After every 6 hours of work, an hour's rest is to be granted, during which the machinery is to be stopped, and the worker permitted to leave his place of work. Where, owing to the nature of the work, this is not practicable, the worker is to be afforded an opportunity to take his meal while the machinery is running.

A temporary regulation provides that the introduction of shorter hours is not to cause a reduction of earnings where longer hours have hitherto been worked.

Nonobservance of the regulations is punishable by fine up to 5,000 Polish marks, or imprisonment for three months.

The regulations came into force four weeks after their publication.

Code of Labor Laws of Soviet Russia.

THE issue of "Soviet Russia," the official organ of the Russian Soviet Bureau located in New York City, dated February 21, 1920, reproduces a code of laws enacted for the regulation of labor under the Soviet Government. The code applies to all persons receiving remuneration for their work and is binding upon all enterprises, institutions, and establishments, public or private, as well as private employers. Cooperative workers, workers in communal enterprises, farmers, and independent artisans are subject to other forms of regulation.

Labor Compulsory.—The first article of the code relates to compulsory labor. All citizens of the republic are subject to compulsory labor except those under 16 and over 50 years of age, and those who have become incapacitated by injury or illness. Temporary exemptions are made in case of persons temporarily disabled and of women for eight weeks before and eight weeks after childbirth. Questions of permanent and temporary disability require medical certification.

Labor may be rendered in the form of organized cooperation, ndividual personal service, or individual special jobs.

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The conditions of labor are to be regulated by rules drawn up by the trade-unions in agreement with the directors or owners of establishments or enterprises, and approved by the People's Commissariat of Labor. Individual personal service or special jobs are subject to trade-union rules to be approved by the commissariat.

Right to Employment.—The second article declares that all citizens able to work have the right to employment at their vocations and for remuneration fixed for such classes of work. This right belongs first to workers subject to compulsory labor. Persons over 50 come next, while persons under 16, those incapacitated by injury or illness, and women given vacations on account of childbirth are barred. No female and no male under 18 shall have the right to work at night or at especially hard or dangerous occupations.

Labor Distribution.—Article 3 takes up the subject of the methods of labor distribution. Departments of labor distribution, tradeunions, and all institutions of the Republic are to cooperate in enforcing the right to work; while the assignment of wage earners to work is to be carried out through the departments of labor distribution. Only these departments may summon a wage earner to work unless he be chosen for a position by a Soviet institution or enterprise. A system of election is provided where special qualifications are required.

Unemployed wage earners are required to register in the local department of labor distribution to which application is to be made by those in need of workers. Persons meeting the requirements of the employment shall be assigned to work, and may not refuse the same if the working conditions conform to the standard fixed by the proper authorities. If the local list does not contain a suitable supply of workers, application must be made to the district bureau, and if this is found deficient, workmen of a class most nearly approaching the requirements of the trade may be sent, upon agreement with the proper trade-union. A workman offered work outside of his vocation is obliged to accept it on the understanding, if he so wishes, that it is only temporary until he can secure work at his vocation. If the employment is outside the district of the worker's residence, the number shall be made up from volunteers, if possible; otherwise, unemployed workers shall be assigned in the order of their registration.

Probation Periods.—Acceptance for permanent employment requires a period of probation of not more than six days, though in Soviet institutions the probation period shall be two weeks for unskilled and less responsible work, and one month for skilled and responsible work. Report is to be made to the department of labor distribution as to the acceptance or rejection of the worker, who retains his place on the list of unemployed until the expiration of the probation

period. A rejected worker may appeal to the trade-union of which he is a member, which may then negotiate with the employer. If the negotiations fail, the matter shall be submitted to the local department of labor, which makes a final decision. If the rejection seems to the department to have been without sufficient reason, the employer must furnish the workman with work, and may also be required to pay for time lost.

Transfer and Discharge of Wage Earners.—Article 5 relates to the transfer and discharge of wage earners. Transfers may be made only by decision of the proper organs of management, and if it involves a shift to another enterprise or establishment, the consent of the department of labor distribution must be obtained. Appeals may be taken to the district department of labor or to the People's Commissariat of Labor whose decision is final. These last-named agencies may, in agreement with the respective professional unions, transfer a whole group of wage earners in cases of urgent public work, either in the same or a different locality, if a sufficient number of volunteers can not be found.

Discharges may take place only in case employers go out of business or certain orders of work are canceled, or if work is suspended for more than a month, or in case of the completion of a temporary contract, or where there is an evident unfitness for the work as determined upon by the organs of management in agreement with the proper union, or, finally, by request of the wage earner. Two weeks' notice is required, except in cases of termination of temporary employment or where the wage earners request release. Appeals may be taken in case of discharge, first to the local department of labor and, finally, to the district department, whose decision is final. Discharges by request of the wage earner must be passed upon by the proper works or other committee representing the workmen's self-government system. If these find the resignation unjustified, the worker must remain at work, but may appeal to his union.

Remuneration of Labor.—The remuneration of labor is considered in article 6. It is directed that remuneration of all paid labor and the detailed conditions and order of payment shall be fixed by tariffs worked out for each kind of labor by the Soviet authorities, the tradeunion, and the People's Commissariat, in agreement with the directors and owners of establishments and enterprises. The standard shall at least cover the minimum living expenses as determined for each district by the People's Commissariat of Labor. The character of the labor, its dangers, complexity, the degree of independence and responsibility involved, as well as standard of education and experience required, shall be considered in fixing wages. The daily rate shall be the standard, and piecework shall be compensated according

to the number of pieces determined to constitute the production standard. Overtime work shall be remunerated at a rate not exceeding time and a half, and, excepting such excess, no additional pay above the standard fixed shall be permitted in any form or under any pretext. Payments for steady work must be made periodically, at least once in every fortnight, and no payment may be made in advance. Payments in kind may be made only on special permission. Wages must be paid during working hours, at the place of work, and only for actual work done. The payment of wages is continued during leaves of absence, illness, and unemployment; but in the two latter cases payment is made from special funds.

Hours of Labor.—Working hours are regulated by the same bodies as those fixing wages. Eight hours is the maximum for a normal working day, and seven hours for night work. Persons under 18, and those employed at specially difficult or dangerous employment, may not work more than six hours per day. As a general rule, overtime work shall not be permitted, and in no case shall females or males under 18 do overtime work. An uninterrupted rest of 42 hours must be allowed each week, and, if the working day exceeds six hours, it shall be reduced by two on the day preceding rest days. Workers who have been engaged without interruption for not less than six months shall be allowed two weeks' leave with pay, and if for one year, one month's leave with pay. A wage earner shall not be allowed to work for remuneration during his leave of absence.

Efficiency of Labor.—The eighth article establishes methods to assure efficiency of labor. A standard output for normal working conditions is required of all workers, this standard to be determined by commissions of the representative trade-unions and approved by the proper department of labor jointly with the Council of National Economy. A worker falling below the standard may be reduced to a lower group at a lower rate of wages; or, if his failure is due to lack of good faith and negligence, he may be discharged without the prescribed two weeks' notice. Rules of internal management must also be drawn up by the Soviet authority for Soviet institutions, and by the trade-unions for other undertakings, to be approved by State authorities in both cases.

Safety Regulations.—The concluding article considers safety regulations. The protection of life and health lies with technical inspectors and the representatives of sanitary inspection. Labor inspectors are to be elected by the councils of professional unions, and are under the jurisdiction of the People's Commissariat of Labor and its local branches (departments of labor). The inspectors have full authority to enter establishments and all buildings provided for the workmen, to examine books, and to secure cooperation of representatives of

both employers and employees. They are to enforce the provisions of this code and all orders, instructions, etc., of the Soviet Bureau intended to safeguard the life and health of the workers. They may also adopt special measures to meet special dangerous conditions.

Appendixes.—Appendixes provide rules concerning the unemployed and the payment of subsidies, concerning labor booklets, and for the determination of disabilities for work. Unemployed persons are to receive the remuneration paid to their class under the findings of the authorities, but must submit evidence as to their status, and the extent and causes of their unemployment must be ascertained through the department of labor distribution. Payments are to be made from an unemployment insurance fund levied on all enterprises employing paid labor, including fines imposed for default in the payment of such levies, and any casual amounts accruing.

Every citizen of the Republic on being assigned to his labor group and category is to receive a labor booklet or pass book, a copy of which is also to be kept by his employer. This book must be presented to his employer on entering any employment, and all payments, fines, absences, etc., must be entered therein. This book must be held open to inspection of the authorities as well as of his

employer and his trade-union.

Disability for work shall be determined by a bureau of medical experts in urban districts; or by provincial insurance offices, accident insurance offices, and institutions acting as such. Surgeons, officials, mechanical engineers, and trade-unions are to be represented on the staff of the bureau of experts. Reexaminations may be had to determine changes of conditions. Sick benefits shall be the same as the wages payable to the group to which the wage earners belong. Payments are to be made from hospital funds sustained by enterprises employing paid labor.

The absolutely dominating nature o. these regulations is shown by

the following preliminary article:

IV. All labor agreements previously entered into, as well as all those which will be entered into in the future, in so far as they contradict the regulations of this code, shall not be considered valid or obligatory, either for the employees or the employers.

HOUSING.

Company Housing in the Bituminous Coal Fields.

By LEIFUR MAGNUSSON.

IN THE latter part of 1916 the Bureau of Labor Statistics completed a comprehensive survey of housing by employers in the United States. This investigation comprised communities maintained by coal mining companies in Western Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, Colorado, and Wyoming, and included almost exclusively the better types of communities. Certain facts stand out as a result of this study:

1. The responsibility for the housing of a large proportion of the miners has been undertaken by the mine operators. The isolation of the average mining town, its dependence upon the one industry of mining, and frequently its impermanence and almost universal lack of local self-government, as well as the shifting character of the labor force, have compelled the mine owner to assume that responsibility.

2. The average company mining town has few of the amenities of ordinary community life. There is a dull uniformity in the appearance of the houses and an absence of trees and natural vegetation. Streets and alleys are open dirt roads almost without exception. Sidewalks are very rare.

3. The miner's house is without the ordinary inside conveniences found in the house of the city worker. Less than 2 per cent of the homes in the bituminous coal regions have inside toilets, and running water is rare. Stoves and grates are depended upon for heating.

4. The average house of the miner includes about four rooms, in which he must accommodate a family and frequently take in

boarders when there is a housing shortage.

5. The rents of the miners' houses are comparatively low, most of them (12,343 out of 18,877, or 65.4 per cent) renting in 1916 for less than \$8 per month. The rent in some instances probably constitutes a subsidy to the wages of the miner who lives in a company house. (What proportion of all bituminous coal miners live in company houses is not known.)

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Scope of Survey.

THE survey was in no sense a census of the coal companies with respect to their practice in housing their employees. Observation, however, convinced the investigator that the practice of company housing was very widespread and uniform among the coalmining companies.

The scope of the survey in the bituminous-coal region is indicated in Table 1

TABLE 1.—SCOPE OF THE HOUSING INVESTIGATION IN THE BITUMINOUS COAL FIELDS.

District.	Number of companies.	Num- ber of commu- nities.	Number of em- ployees.	Number of em- ployees housed.	Per cent of em- ployees housed.
Pennsylvania and West Virginia. Ohio and Indiana Alabama Colorado and Wyoming	32 3 24 5	1 114 4 29 16	78,218 1,287 2 18,694 4,644	43,877 688 2 15,035 3,148	56. 1 53. 5 80. 4 67. 8
Total	64	163	102,843	62,748	61.0

¹ 1 company did not report number of establishments. ² Not including 1 company with 500 employees; number housed was not reported.

Layout of Towns and Surroundings of the Houses.

THE chief characteristic of every company mining town is its uniformity, due to a tendency to erect houses of similar plan and type and to arrange them along rectangular lines of survey. Another feature of the mining town has been its disregard of the advantages of planting trees, grass, and shrubbery as beautifying elements.

On the other hand, the mining town is characterized by relatively wide streets and ample lots. The streets are usually unpaved, open dirt roads. Sidewalks are extremely infrequent and only in the better parts of the community is there evidence of fenced and grassed courts.

The desirability of locating the houses near to the mines has frequently been secured at the sacrifice of conditions of health and comfort; thus in the coking region the houses are found placed on neighboring hillsides which have been rendered barren by the noxious gases of the beehive ovens. Frequently the towns were found placed not only immediately adjoining the ovens, but with no consideration as to the prevailing winds in the region. With the prevailing winds from the west, houses to the east would be constantly enveloped in smoke. Consequently conditions of dreariness and desolation were quite common in the region. On the other hand, some operators pointed out that because of improved means of communication nearness to the mines is not as essential now as it was formerly. This is particularly true in the bituminous region of Pennsylvania, where the district is fairly closely settled. Workers in the bituminous coal region of Pennsylvania commute from neighboring cities as far



Fig. 1.—One of the better maintained coal towns in West Virginia.



Fig. 2.—A desolate section of a Pennsylvania coke town



Fig. 3.—Better section of the same town.

as 7 miles away. Isolated "patches" in the region still exist by reason of pure inertia, as one of the more far-seeing managers remarked. It is unfortunate that the scattered locations of formerly individually owned mines were not consolidated into a single town with developed community life at the same time that the mines came under a single corporation control.

Age of the Houses.

WHILE three-fifths (8,024, or 61 per cent of a total of 13,158 reported) of the dwellings in the bituminous coal regions were erected between the years 1901 and 1910, a few houses may be found still in use which were erected before 1881. The type or style of house used in the bituminous coal region of western Pennsylvania has changed very little from what it was in the early days of coal mining.

Type, Construction, and Size of Houses.1

THERE are two prevailing types of houses found in the bituminous coal regions, the single or detached house and the double or semidetached house, though a few row houses are found in the Pennsylvania and West Virginia and the Colorado and Wyoming districts.

The prevailing plan of house in the Birmingham district is a hip-roofed cottage about 28 feet square with a chimney in the center of the roof, a front porch running the full length of the house, and a small porch at the rear. The houses are generally raised from the ground by brick piers 4 or 5 feet high, the area under the house being usually uninclosed. In the Tennessee and Kentucky coal fields small gable-roof cottages prevail. These, too, are generally without cellars; front and rear porches are common.

A type of house more or less peculiar to all small southern towns is the so-called "shotgun" house, shaped like an oblong box and divided into three rooms in a row and frequently with the doors connecting the rooms in alignment.

An interesting, though perhaps undesirable, arrangement was noted in one of several camps of a company in the Colorado district, whereby two three-room semidetached houses can be made three dwellings. The front porch has no partition, but the back porches are separate. The front rooms of the two houses are connected by a door. In the event of its being necessary to house three families in the building, one family will be given these two front rooms and the front porch, and the others will each have a middle and a back room and a back porch.

¹ In addition to the illustrations here shown, illustrations of types of houses and communities in the bituminous regions of western Pennsylvania and Ohio and in the Birmingham (Ala.) district may be seen in the November, 1917, issue of the Monthly Labor Review following page 56.

Most of the company houses are of wood, the exterior being clapboard, weatherboard, or siding. Some of the old-fashioned board and batten houses consisting of only one thickness of board were still in use in some of the more isolated communities. In the ordinary miner's house in the Pennsylvania and West Virginia region there is no undersheathing, the clapboard being laid directly on the framing. In the Colorado and Wyoming district the large company studied reported that of the houses in its 12 camps about 74 per cent are frame (5 out of 6 being weatherboarded), about 10 per cent plain cement blocks, and about 17 per cent pebble-dash finish. The monotony of the gray cement or pebble-dash is pleasantly relieved by roofs of contrasting and varied colors.

Though a considerable number of the houses of the miners are plastered, an equally large number are ceiled inside with so-called tongue-and-groove material, often left unstained. If they are papered it is usually at the expense of the tenant. The inside wood finish is of pine and usually painted. Almost without exception the houses of the Pennsylvania and West Virginia and of the Ohio and Indiana regions are heated by stoves or grates. In the former district, better-class houses for superintendents and foremen are plastered and papered, and very frequently furnace heated or heated by steam from the company plant.

A feature of the mining towns, particularly of the Pennsylvania and West Virginia and Alabama districts, is the monotony of color in the painting of the houses, all of the dwellings in many towns being exactly alike in this respect. Often, too, they need paint badly. Some rather quaint whitewashed cottages are found in the mining towns of Tennessee.

Size of Dwellings.

CONSIDERABLE variations exist as between the different industry groups and the different sections of the country. The prevailing size of dwelling for a family in the Pennsylvania and West Virginia bituminous coal region is either three or four rooms; in the Ohio and Indiana coal region, four rooms; in Alabama, Tennessee, and Kentucky, three or four rooms; and in the coal towns of Colorado and Wyoming, four rooms. A considerable proportion of two-room houses is found in the bituminous coal regions of Alabama, Tennessee, and Kentucky. In the anthracite coal region the typical company house is of five or six rooms.

The per cent of company houses in the soft-coal fields having each specified number of rooms per dwelling is shown in Table 2. For purpose of comparison similar information covering other mining districts is also given.



 $\begin{tabular}{ll} Fig.~4. — An old-style board and batten 3-room miner's cottage still in use in an isolated mining town of Pennsylvania. \\ \end{tabular}$

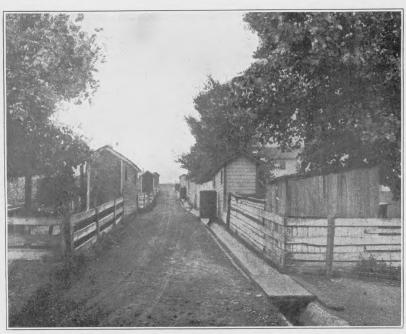


Fig. 5.—Improved alley in coal and coke town in western Pennsylvania. Note drainage gutter with garbage receptacles over it.



Fig. 6.—New coal mining camp, Birmingham (Ala.) district, constructed in 1916. Houses built before grading and laying of streets. All cottages of similar plan and adapted for conversion into double houses. Used as 1-family 4-room houses. Running water in kitchen; electric light. Ceiled inside; composition roof.

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TABLE 2.—PER CENT OF COMPANY DWELLINGS HAVING SPECIFIED NUMBER OF ROOMS PER DWELLING, BY INDUSTRY AND DISTRICT.

			Per	cent of	dwellin	ngs havi	ing—	
Industry and district.	Total number of dwell- ings.	3 rooms and less.	4 rooms.	5 rooms.	6 rooms.	7 rooms.	8 rooms and over.	Total.
Bituminous-coal mining: Pennsylvania and West Virginia Ohio and Indiana Alabama. Colorado and Wyoming	11,711 235 5,698 1,234	35. 5 12. 8 47. 0 21. 7	25. 4 78. 3 40. 2 64. 3	21. 9 6. 0 7. 8 5. 6	15. 1 3. 0 3. 9 7. 8	1.0	1.2	100. (100. (100. (100. (
Total	18,878	37.8	33.0	16. 4	11.1	.8	.9	100.0
Anthracite-coal mining	5,320	5.3	17.3	30. 2	32. 4	9.0	5.8	100.0
Iron mining: Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota Alabama	1,071	70.9	20. 8 22. 4	38. 7 3. 3	18.3	8.6	12.9	100.0
Total	1,432	18.3	21. 2	29.9	14. 4	6.5	9.7	100.0
Copper mining: Michigan and Tennessee. Other copper and gold mining: Arizona, New Mexico, and Colorado	908 642	1. 4	28. 9 26. 6	34. 9 5. 5	15.7 2.0	2.9	16. 2	100.0
Total.	1,550	28.1	27.9	22.7	10.1	1.7	9.4	100.0

Sanitary Conveniences.

SANITARY conveniences are rarely found in mining towns. Thus in the soft-coal regions, only 312 dwellings, or 1.9 per cent of the 16,896 reported, have inside toilets, while 16,584, or 98.1 per cent, have outside toilets. In the more thickly settled anthracite region 19.5 per cent have inside toilets and 80.5 per cent outside. More detailed figures for the various regions are shown in Table 3. Here, again, certain other large mining industries are included for purposes of comparison.

TABLE 3.—NUMBER AND PER CENT OF COMPANY DWELLINGS HAVING INSIDE AND OUTSIDE TOILETS, BY INDUSTRY AND DISTRICT.

	Total	Inside	toilets.	Outside toilets.	
Industry and district.	number of dwell- ings.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.
Bituminous-coal mining: Pennsylvania and West Virginia Ohio and Indiana. Alabama Colorado and Wyoming.	10,119 235 5,328 1,214	254 3 55	2.5 1.3 1.0	9,865 232 5,273 1,214	97. 5 98. 7 99. 0 100. 0
Total	16,896	312	1.9	16,584	98.1
Anthracite-coal mining	4,034	785	19.5	3,249	80.5
Iron mining: Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota Alabama	1,057 524	169 20	16.0 3.8	888 504	84.0 96.2
Total	1,581	189	12.0	1,392	88.0
Copper mining: Michigan and Tennessee	908	296	32.6	612	67.4
Mexico	642	289	45.0	353	55.0
Total	1,550	585	37.7	965	62.3

Maintenance of Company Houses.

THERE is an absence of careful maintenance in company controlled mining towns, except in a few striking instances. There was no garbage collection or provision made for garbage disposal in 13 of 53 communities. Ten companies reported collecting garbage in the community bimonthly or less frequently.

Where only outside sanitation was provided the prevailing type of privy was the open-vault kind. In one of the towns of the Birmingham district, operated by one of the largest companies in the region, the can type of privy has been adopted quite generally. This company also protects its outhouses by screening and disposes of the contents by a system of water decomposition.

In the coal-mining region of Pennsylvania, both bituminous and anthracite, the old-fashioned method of scavenging prevails. Only in rare instances, however, was the practice reported of moving the privies from place to place as the vaults became full.

Condition of yards and premises.—The condition of yards and houses in company towns differs so markedly in the same locality and among the same class of employees that it seems reasonable to conclude that the differences are due to the care and attention given the matter by the company; so that bad conditions, as has been frequently asserted, can not be attributed to the tendency of the workmen to keep their yards in an unsightly condition. Generally speaking, where the company observes system in keeping streets and alleys clean and in repairing houses and has a regular man or corps of men to do that work, yards, too, as a whole, are observed to be in better condition of upkeep. Another factor in the case is the provision by the employer of rubbish and garbage cans for the use of the tenants. It is the experience of the general superintendent of one of the largest coal and coke companies in western Pennsylvania that once the company provides an adequate house and sightly premises the employees, and particularly the wives of employees, take a new interest in the house and its maintenance. Continuance of the improvements is desired, even demanded. A standard of comfort and decency of surroundings has been created, and a desire for its continuance persists. The employer is in an advantageous position to secure and maintain that standard of comfort and decency in surroundings of his tenants because his regulations in that respect are backed by the authority to discharge from employment. On the other hand, there is at times a tendency on the part of the employer to connive at unsightly premises and to be careless in regard to enforcing rules whenever there is a shortage or difficulty in securing labor. This would seem to be a short-sighted policy, since in the long run the reputation of a



Fig. 7.—Miner's cottage in an Ohio town. Four rooms; rent \$10 per month. Cost in 1912, \$675. Electric lights, but no modern sanitary improvements. Better than the average.



Fig. 8.—Western mining town with rudimentary drainage system.

company town for cleanliness, sightliness, and availability of recreational features is bound to attract labor, if one may rely on the opinions of those closest to the situation.

On the side of the employee it may be observed there is frequently a reluctance to make any demands for proper maintenance and improvements in the house, particularly when labor is plentiful and competition for jobs is keen, because of the inevitable control which the employer has over the employee by reason of owning the house and holding over him the threat of eviction.

Rents of Company Houses.

A LMOST without exception all houses are rented and not sold by the mining companies. It is not deemed advisable to sell houses, inasmuch as the coal mining properties are more or less temporary in their nature, mines tending to run out after a period of years. The rents here given are those of 1916. There may have been increases since then.

Pennsylvania and West Virginia.—The rent of the miner's house in the Pennsylvania and West Virginia region is generally from \$1 to \$2.50 a month per room. This rent also includes water in the case of 27 companies out of the 32 included in the survey of this region. Two companies include light also and three coal also as a part of the house rental.

Alabama district.—The rentals of company dwellings in the Alabama district appear to be moderate. Out of 5,698 dwellings, 1,652, or 29 per cent, rent for \$6 and under \$7 a month, and 4,244, or 74.5 per cent, rent for less than \$7 a month.

Colorado and Wyoming.—Of the 1,234 houses for which complete information was received, 78.5 per cent rent at less than \$9 a month and 20.9 per cent at less than \$7. Three-fourths of the houses rent for between \$2 and \$2.50 per month per room. It would appear that no higher rents are charged for the new than for the older houses. In the large company investigated, it may be observed, rents are established by the industrial agreement between employer and employed.

Generally rent includes only house and water. In all of the 12 camps under one control it includes also the use of an electric light on the front porch, since this is the only means of lighting the streets. In three of these 12 camps the use of water is charged for, owing to its scarcity; of the four independent camps it is charged for in two cases, in one of them at the rate of \$2 a month per house.

Three of the four independent companies report the charge for electric lights; in one this is 35 cents a light per month, in another 50 cents, and in the third \$1.50 to \$3 a house, according to power supplied. The company controlling 12 camps charges 25 cents a

light per month, not including the one on the porch. In a camp in Wyoming the charge is \$1 a month for the first light and 75 cents each for the others.

Table 4 summarizes the available information respecting the rents of company-owned houses in the bituminous-coal region. Rents for company houses in other mining communities are shown for comparative purposes.

Table 4.—PER CENT OF COMPANY DWELLINGS RENTING AT SPECIFIED AMOUNT PER MONTH, BY INDUSTRY AND DISTRICT.

	Total		Per c	ent of	dwel	lings i	rentir per m	g at e	ach c	lassifi	ed
Industry and district.	number of dwell- ings.	Under \$5.	\$5 and un- der \$6.	\$6 and un- der \$7.	\$7 and un- der \$8.	\$8 and un- der \$9.	\$9 and un- der \$10.	\$10 and un- der \$14.	\$14 and un- der \$18.	\$18 and over.	Total.
Bituminous-coal mining: Pennsylvania and West Virginia Ohio and Indiana. Alabama. Colorado and Wyoming	11,710 235 5,698 1,234	29.6		4.3	11.6	48.5	6.4 19.6 3.2 .8	9.1 26.4 4.0 19.3	1.5 1.3 .4 1.3	0.2	100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0
Total	18,877	11.7	11.5	20.5	21.7	19.5	5.3	8.6	1.1	.1	100.0
Anthracite-coal mining	6,827	35.4	19.1	18.5	10.9	7.5	2.3	4.5	1.1	.4	100.0
Iron mining: Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota. Alabama.	1,077 524	9.2 59.9	19.3 26.9	16.9 8.4	11.4	15.7		22.1 1.5	1.6	.6	100.0
Total	1,601	25.7	21.8	14.1	8.4	10.7	2.3	15.3	1.1	. 4	100.0
Copper mining: Michigan and Tennessee Other copper and gold mining: Arizona, New Mexico, and Colorado	904	1		22.5 17.2	16.4		1	5.2	4.6	.7	100.0
Total	1,516	2.8	22.8	20.3	9.8	9.2	7.9	14.6	6.4	6.1	100.0

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Membership of Trade-Unions in Great Britain in 1918

TATISTICS have recently been compiled by the British Ministry of Labor and published in the Labor Gazette for January, 1920. showing membership of trade-unions in Great Britain in 1918. The number of unions and the membership in 1918 (subject to revision) as compared with 1917 are shown in the following table:

MEMBERSHIP OF TRADE-UNIONS IN GREAT BRITAIN IN 1917 AND 1918, SHOWING PER CENT OF INCREASE IN 1918.

Groups of trades.	Number of unions at	Member end	Per cent of increase in member-	
	end of 1918.	1917.	1918.	ship, 1918 over 1917.
Building:				
Carpenters and joiners	2	114,000	137,000	20
Builders' laborers 2	10	38,000	62,000	63
Others	49	106,000	122,000	16
Mining and quarrying:	10	100,000	122,000	10
Coal mining	90	917,000	964,000	5
Other mining and quarrying	10	30,000	31,000	2
Metal, engineering and shipbuilding:	10	00,000	51,000	4
Iron and steel manufacture	13	118,000	130,000	10
Ironfounding, engineering and shipbuilding	84	674,000	760,000	13
Other	65	56,000	61,000	10
Textile:	00	50,000	01,000	10
Cotton	147	382,000	401 000	-
Other textile.	92	162,000	401,000	5
Textile printing, dyeing, warehousing, etc			204,000	26
Clothing:	34	86,000	89,000	3
Boot and shoe	10	01 000	01 000	40
Tailoring and other clothing	12	81,000	91,000	13
	23	78,000	120,000	54
Transport: Railway		100 000	WOO 000	
	11	499,000	530,000	6
Tramway and other road transport	16	111,000	144,000	29
Dock, canal and riverside labor, and seafaring	38	280,000	313,000	12
Agriculture and fishing 2	15	56,000	129,000	131
Printing, paper, and allied trades	32	112,000	142,000	26
Woodworking and furnishing trades	69	83,000	97,000	17
Shop assistants, clerks, etc	16	152,000	189,000	25
Miscellaneous trades and occupations	198	379,000	462,000	22
General labor	13	732,000	1,102,000	50
Employees of public authorities	181	301,000	344,000	14
Total 3	1,220	5,547,000	6,624,000	19

¹ The total membership (all trades) includes members in colonial and foreign branches to the number (in 1918) of 49,126, of whom 22,063 belonged to the Amalgamated Society of Carpenters, Cabinet Makers and Joiners and 26,465 to the Amalgamated Society of Engineers.
¹ The figures are exclusive of the membership of General Labor Unions, for which see "General Labor."
² Exclusive, as usual, of a few associations (generally unimportant) from which complete returns have not

It is explained that the classification is necessarily somewhat rough, since trade-union organization is in many cases occupational and a minority of the members may be employed in trades other than that

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with which the union has been classed. As an example it is noted that many members of the carpenters' and joiners' unions are employed in the shipbuilding industry but that no statistics are available as to the total number, and the whole of the membership of those unions is accordingly included under the building trades, in which the members are mainly employed.

Commenting upon the increase of female membership, the report

states:

Of the total increase in female membership (about 320,000, or 36 per cent) in the year the cotton industry accounted for 15,000, or about 6 per cent of its female membership in 1917, and other textile trades, including textile printing, bleaching, dyeing, finishing, etc., for 40,000, or 34 per cent—a total increase for the textile trades of 55,000, or 15 per cent on their female membership of 363,000 in 1917. The female membership of other groups increased in 1918 from 540,000 to 806,000, the increase being made up as follows: Clothing trades 46,000 (or 64 per cent), printing, paper, etc., trades 19,000 (or 102 per cent), shop assistants, clerks, etc., 27,000 (or 58 per cent), miscellaneous trades 49,000 (or 21 per cent), "general labor" unions 103,000 (or 92 per cent), and employees of public authorities 22,000 (or 40 per cent). In connection with these figures it should be observed that the female membership stated in the returns received by the department is partly estimated, many unions being unable to state exactly the number of males and females, respectively.

A table is given showing the increase in membership over a period of years from 1913 to 1918, by groups of trades. There was a very slight increase in 1914 over 1913—from 4,192,000 to 4,199,000—but beginning with 1915 the increase each year over the preceding year was quite marked. The membership in 1915 was 4,417,000; in 1916, 4,677,000; in 1917, 5,546,000; and in 1918, 6,624,000.

Ninth Scandinavian Labor Congress, Copenhagen, January 21-23, 1920.

A RECENT communication to the State Department from the United States Minister at Copenhagen decribes briefly the proceedings of the Ninth Scandinavian Labor Congress, which was held in that city January 21 to 23, 1920. The letter is as follows:

The ninth Scandinavian labor congress, comprising about 400 delegates from Norway, Sweden, Denmark and Finland, was in session in Copenhagen from January 21 to 23, inclusive. The congress was the first to be held since 1913, and it was expected in many quarters that its course and decisions would demonstrate that Scandinavian labor had grown much more radical, it being even considered possible that a distinct Bolshevik tone would prevail. These expectations however were not realized. With the exception of the Norwegian delegation, which evidently contained a substantial number of extremists, the congress appeared to be composed of men who advocated the attainment of social reforms by constitutional methods. Among the more prominent members of the conference were the Danish Minister of Labor, Stauning; the Swedish leader, Hjalmar Branting; and the leader of the social democratic group in the Norwegian Storthing, Buen. The principal Finnish delegate was Yrjo Räisänen.

On the first day of the congress a Norwegian delegate proposed that a message of greeting should be sent to the Russian Soviet Government, with exuberant expressions of support. His motion however was referred to a committee and not taken up again during the congress.

Resolutions Adopted by the Congress.

With the exception of six Norwegian votes, the congress unanimously passed the following resolution:

It is the task of Social Democracy to win economic and political power with the object of making the means of production the property of the whole people and of

socializing production.

For the attainment of this object labor is organized in three ways, namely: By trade as producers, cooperatively as consumers, and politically as citizens. None of these forms of organization by itself is sufficient. They complement and support each other and must cooperate as intimately as possible, while at the same time there is conducted the work of enlightenment and self-education, which will prepare the

The congress exhorts the laboring class to a strong vocational and political work to win social power, so that the transition from capitalism to socialism can take place without the application of violent means. The socialistic society, which is a higher and nobler organization than the present one, must be developed organizally in consequence with concepts and cultural progress, built up by a laboring class, which sonance with economic and cultural progress, built up by a laboring class, which steadily raises its material intellectual and moral level, and disciplines and capacitates itself for its great vocation, namely: To supplant labor for wages in the service of capitalists by cooperation between free and equal participants in production and distribution.

For the preparation of this, increased participation of labor in the control of industry will be useful and necessary, just as it will counteract the danger of bureaucracy in the conduct of present State, municipal, and private affairs. The right of codetermination, which has already been attained with reference to the conditions of labor through the influence of the trade-unions, must be in an increasingly degree extended to the right of codetermination in industry itself, whereby the workmen obtain an insight into the respective industries, secure increased interest in their conduct and an increased sense of responsibility, while, likewise, an insight into the accounts will in a steadily increasing degree insure to them the fruits of their labor, which in turn

increases the joy of labor and the sense of responsibility.

The organization of control committees (vocational councils), which will further such a development, must take place in such a way that the trade-unions are not thereby divided or weakened, but supported and strengthened. They should be assured influence in the composition of the control committees. In these there should be representatives who can train themselves more and more in administrative and financial matters. At the same time, the interests of society should be assured by a supervisory council (economic council), eventually in connection with a district council or a special council for the various industries, with the power of carrying out the necessary control of industrial life, of seeking the substitution of private capital in steadily increasing degree by social capital, and of advancing a plan for an increasingly economical and fruitful organization of production. In the supervisory council (economic council) there should be represented besides the producers also the interests of society and the consumers.

The social organization of economic life contemplates a well-planned application of labor, raw material, energy, and technical auxiliaries in the interests of the laboring and consuming public. Socialization must in the first place include well-equipped industry, together with sources of power and supplies of raw material, while at the

same time cooperation must be fostered with all strength.

Industrial democracy should thus be a part of the process of socialization. The congress warns against the idea that the economic reform of society can take place in a day, as well as against the tendencies to erect group property and group activities, which are not subject to the control of society. The congress maintains that democracy must be the basis and socialism the goal for the liberating efforts of the laboring class.

The world war, with its enormous failure for the capitalistic and militaristic system, has brought about a feeling among the masses that it is not worth while to produce wealth anew without the assurance that this wealth will not again be wasted with fearful sufferings for the peoples. It is the task of social democracy to lead this feeling into a fruitful and organized course for conscious work toward a new and higher social order, in which the position of the workmen will be changed in principle through socialism, and toward a new and higher world order in which the democratic and socialistic peoples are organized in a real league of peoples for mutual help instead of wild competition and bloody war.

The congress exhorts the workmen in the Scandinavian countries to ever more

powerful cooperation on the foregoing basis.

Subsidiary resolutions were passed on the following subjects: Socialization; Scandinavian cooperation; mutual support of labor in various countries; social legislation, and relations to the Internationale. Of these resolutions the most important is the last, whereby the congress clearly expressed its adherence to the old Social Democratic Internationale, and definitely recorded its unwillingness to be associated with the so-called Third Internationale. A proposal to join the Third Internationale, which was made by three Norwegian representatives, obtained only 15 votes as against the rest of the congress.

With reference to the Russian situation, a resolution in the following terms was passed, notwithstanding the efforts of certain Norwegian delegates to obtain a much more affirmative declaration in support of the Russian soviet system:

The congress notes with satisfaction that the efforts to restore the reactionary régime in Russia now finally seem to have failed—in spite of the support of international capitalism—thanks to the resistance of the Russian workmen and peasant classes, as well as to the unanimous protest of the international labor class, against foreign armed intervention in Russian affairs. The congress hopes that a speedy peace will afford the Russian people the possibility of free internal development and good relations with all other peoples.

The congress passed other resolutions, proposed by Branting: Welcoming the Finnish amnesty law; expressing disapproval of the terroristic counter-revolutionary régime in Hungary; protesting against Jewish pogroms in the Ukraine and elsewhere in eastern Europe; and finally protesting against the recently attempted abolition in Sweden of the legally established eight-hour day.

It seems to be generally felt in Denmark, though this feeling is not shared by the most conservative elements, that the Ninth Scandinavian Labor Congress was on the whole a moderate expression of the present status of the labor movement in Scandinavia.

STRIKES.

Trade Disputes in Great Britain in 1919.

URING the year 1919 in Great Britain there were 1,413 trade disputes reported, this number being only once exceeded since 1888, namely in 1913, when 1,497 were reported. The number of workpeople involved directly and indirectly was 2,581,000, the highest total yet reported, and nearly equal to the combined totals for the four previous years. These facts are brought out in a summary of disputes in 1919 published in the British Labor Gazette for January, 1920. It is further stated that the aggregate duration of these disputes was 34,483,000 working days, or nearly twice as many as during the period 1915 to 1918. The number of disputes, the number of workpeople affected, and the aggregate duration of the disputes in 1919 as compared with 1918 are shown in the following table. The number of workpeople includes those involved in disputes which began in the previous year and were still in progress at the beginning of the year.

TRADE DISPUTES IN GREAT BRITAIN IN 1918 AND 1919, BY TRADE GROUPS.

		1918		1919			
Trade group.	Number of disputes beginning in 1918.	Number of workpeople involved in all disputes in progress.	Aggregate duration in working days of all disputes in progress.	Num- ber of dis- putes begin- ning in 1919.	Number of workpeople involved in all disputes in progress.	Aggregate duration in working days of all disputes in progress.	
Building . Coal mining . Other mining and quarrying . Engineering and shipbuilding . Other metal . Textile . Clothing . Transport . Woodworking and furnishing . Other trades . Local authority services	134 147 18 300 86 67 70 67 82 188 93	56,000 368,000 13,000 169,000 85,000 264,000 24,000 59,000 43,000 38,000 13,000	458,000 1,165,000 109,000 840,000 575,000 1,701,000 321,000 265,000 273,000 413,000 117,000	150 212 32 188 126 61 77 129 62 277 99	25,000 906,000 5,000 304,000 83,000 490,000 29,000 574,000 25,000 119,000	578,000 7,441,000 138,000 9,592,000 1,813,000 8,167,000 245,000 3,883,000 988,000 1,381,000 257,000	
Local authority services						34, 483	

¹ These figures are preliminary and subject to correction.

In explanation of some of the disputes in 1919 the report says;

The principal disputes of the year occurred in the coal-mining, engineering, and shipbuilding, textile and transport industries. In the coal-mining industry 150,000 workpeople in Yorkshire ceased work for 13 days in January to enforce a simultaneous interval for surfacemen's meals, and again on July 16 for 29 days owing to dissatisfaction with the amount of advance in rates of wages which was proposed in com-

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pensation for a reduction in working hours under the Sankey award. At the end of March 100,000 miners in various districts were idle for six days in support of a national application for an advance in wages. In the engineering and shipbuilding trades 150,000 workpeople stopped work in January and were idle for periods ranging in different districts, from one to eight weeks on the reduction of the working week from 53 or 54 hours to 47 hours, owing partly to dissatisfaction at the new arrangement of working hours and partly to the nonprovision of any increase in the rates of wages of pieceworkers and lieuworkers. On September 22 between 40,000 and 50,000 iron founders, core makers, and dressers ceased work for increases in wages and were still idle at the end of the year. In the cotton trade about 450,000 operatives struck work for 18 days in June and July in support of an application for reduced working hours and increased rates of wages. In the railway services about 500,000 operatives were idle from September 27 to October 5, inclusive, owing to dissatisfaction at the new standardized rates proposed for various grades. The majority of the other disputes occurring in 1919 arose either on demands for advances in wages or on questions of working hours.

Labor Unrest in the Belgian Coal Industry.

A REVIEW of the Belgian coal industry for 1919, published in the Board of Trade Journal (London) for February 19, 1920, reveals the existence of a considerable amount of industrial unrest. During the first half of the year 36 strikes involving 70 pits and 16,000 workers occurred. To deal with this unrest "Commissions de Conciliation" were established in various mining localities and "Commissions Régionales Mixtes" for larger districts.

These commissions consisting of representatives of operators and men, in an effort to settle existing disputes, established the principle of an 8½-hour day from June 1, 1919, and an 8-hour day from December 1, 1919, for pit workers, and a 9-hour day from June 1, 1919, for surface workers, and endeavored to settle other minor trouble-

producing matters.

Notwithstanding their efforts, however, a serious strike occurred at Charleroi, December 15, 1919. The strike, which was declared contrary to the advice of the labor leaders, was due to two causes: (1) The enormous profits of the colliery owners from which the workers felt that they had not correspondingly benefited; (2) the unsatisfactory operation of the "Commissions Mixtes" due to "the procrastinating attitude of the miners' representatives, and of the absence of legal sanction for the decision of the commissions."

The men claimed (1) either a wage increase or State control of owners' profits; (2) a definition of the 8-hour day for pit workers and an 8½-hour day for surface workers, which should include time spent in descending and ascending, meals, etc.; (3) a pension of 2 francs (38.6 cents, par) per day; (4) an improved system of health insurance.

Through the intervention of the Ministry of Industry a settlement was reached December 20, 1919, in which the miners were guaranteed "(under protest from the owners)" a wage increase of 2.50 francs

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(48.3 cents, par) per day, the other disputed questions being left to further discussion by the commissions and final settlement through proper legislation.

STRIKES.

Establishment of an Emergency Strike-Breaking Corps in Germany.

Discussing strikes in undertakings which are of vital importance to the general public, Dr. Waldemar Zimmermann, in an article in Soziale Praxis, writes that after the strike period of the first six months of 1919 a reaction against strikes set in, even among the workers themselves. This feeling was particularly in evidence in the case of the miners' strike, the steel strike, and the strike among employees in the water and electrical works, all of which directly affected the public. But the number of workers who attempted to prevent such strikes as these was small and their efforts were ineffective. Finally Herr Noske, the minister of national defense, recruited a voluntary workers' defense corps, to act, in such cases, for the protection of the nation at large.

Organization of the Corps.

A T the beginning of September last the "Emergency Engineer Corps" (Technische Nothilfe) made its appearance. It was formed from the engineer battalion of the former Berlin guard regiments, and in spite of its speedy demilitarization, i. e., its transference to a civilian instead of a military basis, it remained under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Defense. The Correspondenzblatt² publishes the following regarding the organization and activities of this emergency corps:

The corps has its headquarters in Berlin and branch offices in various districts of Germany, which for this purpose was divided into 19 districts. In every district, a volunteer engineer corps was formed out of technical experts, skilled and unskilled workers, with three groups: The first consisting of volunteers ready for employment throughout Germany, the second of those who were willing to serve in their own district, and the third of those who were ready to serve in their own place of residence, should occasion arise. The emergency corps was to intervene only when industrial establishments of vital importance were about to be crippled by political strikes establishments, that is, which supply the public with gas, electricity, water, foodstuffs, etc. Protective measures were adopted in advance; in every industrial establishment the nature and place of his activities were prescribed for each volunteer, so that immediately after a strike breaks out, operation of the establishment can be carried on by the emergency corps, in conjunction, on occasion, with those workers and employees who are willing to continue at work and are not desirous of taking part in a political strike. For the purpose of these preparations the emergency engineer corps has procured accurate working plans, descriptions of the machinery, boilers

¹ Source: Soziale Praxis und Archiv für Volkswohlfahrt, Vol. 29, No. 7, Berlin, 1919; Correspondenzblatt der Generalkommission der Gewerkschaften, Berlin, Oct. 25, 1919.

 $^{{}^{2}}$ Correspondenzblatt der Generalkommission der Gewerkschaften, Berlin, October 25, 1919.

and plant, and lists of the workers in the works concerned, and has secured itself an imposing array of volunteers by confidential personal canvassing. According to the central office, about 30,000 volunteers have been obtained for the entire Commonwealth, and 6,000 for Berlin alone.

Trade-Union Criticism.

URING the brief period of its existence, it seems that the emergency engineer corps has been able to give a few proofs of its utility and efficiency. The extension of the Berlin metal workers' strike by a sympathetic strike of electricians was the first occasion on which the intervention of the corps aroused attention. As a general rule, according to the paper quoted above, the fact that such a corps exists acts as a deterrent to certain improper strike practices in public utility works. That would seem to be best proved by the demonstrations of indignation on the part of those workers and employees who find themselves especially affected and who claim that emergency corps are unnecessary, since the organizations that arrange the strikes invariably take meticulous care not to allow vital economic processes to be interrupted by the strike. In face of such protestations of innocence it would seem as if the emergency corps were the heartless invention of a reactionary strike-breaking Government. As a matter of fact, it is contended, if it had been so it would have been very difficult for the National Government, with its strong infusion of trade-unionists, to adopt this public measure of defense which has been received with complacence and in part with actual satisfaction by all classes of society save the Independent Socialists alone. In the National Assembly on October 17, Herr Noske, minister of national defense, replied to the criticism of the emergency corps by the Independent Socialists and declared that any man who again attempted to cripple works vital to the public would very soon find himself under lock and key; so much was due for the protection of the lives and health of hundreds of thousands of people.

Some notice may be taken of the protests of the committee of the Association of Municipal and State Workers and of the Berlin committee of the Joint Board of Free Employees' Associations. The former claims to notice widespread unrest among its workers in public utility works, and similar unrest in Munich has already led to the refusal of the services of the emergency corps by the authorities. Even if the Government does not wish to touch the right to strike, the emergency corps, it is stated, practically puts an end to the efficacy of a strike. The association protests in the name of 250,000 workers in public establishments against the corps, in the conviction that the workers are seriously desirous of protecting these establishments from all attacks from within or without. The latter body, by

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its committee's resolution, acclaims the general right to strike as "one of the most noteworthy victories of the revolution," and consequently takes great exception to the fact that the right of combination hitherto conceded without conditions by the Government is being restricted by an embargo on strikes by the military authorities and by organizations which receive official support and which make the right of certain workers to strike ineffective. The resolution continues:

The reason alleged for the existence of the emergency corps, that for the maintenance of certain vitally necessary industrial establishments emergency work must be performed, is untenable. The trade-unions, even in their most bitter economic conflicts, have always observed the laws of humanity without there being any necessity for Government intervention. It is, however, desirable that in all cases where the authorities, for reasons connected with the public safety or health, deem it necessary to intervene, an agreement should be come to with the trade-unions concerned with respect to the introduction of emergency labor.

A Defense of the System.

THE emergency corps is regarded by some as an urgent necessity. At the meeting of members of the Majority Socialist party on October 20, 1919, a resolution of sympathy with the metal workers out on strike was passed, but regret was expressed that by the contemplated crippling of the electrical works the life and health of thousands would be seriously endangered. A promise to carry on necessary work would have had no value, since it is technically impossible to convey current to hospitals and such institutions alone. The meeting consequently considered that the continuance of operation of the power works with the aid of the emergency corps was a necessity, and, finally, uttered a vigorous protest against the attempt to exclude members of the corps from the trade-unions.

The second part of the protest—that the emergency corps is making the right to strike ineffective and is tampering with the unconditional right to combine—is said to be contradicted by the facts. The original cause of the protest was the intervention of the corps in the Berlin metal workers' strike, when, owing to a lack of firm leadership among the workers, the strike leaders desired to attack a vital organism of the city and to replace the lack of cohesion in their own ranks by sabotage. And if this weapon of force, bringing sickness, hunger, and cold to the innocent, is taken out of the hands of the trade-unions. should it be called an attack on the right to strike and combine? The Government and the emergency corps have repeatedly given the assurance that they will never intervene in the case of economic strikes, but only in that of political strikes which threaten the health and lives of the public, and that intervention will cease at once when the danger is past. This assurance meets with approval from the great majority of the nation.

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CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Provisions for Dealing with Labor Disputes in Great Britain During the War.¹

HE Ministry of Labor has just published a report (No. 185 of 1919) of proceedings under the Conciliation Act, 1896, and of arbitration under the Munitions of War Acts, together with particulars of (1) proceedings under the Wages (Temporary Regulation) Act, 1918, and (2) settlements arrived at under the Coal Mines (Minimum Wage) Act, 1912.

The report, which has been prepared in the wages and arbitration department of the ministry, relates to the war years 1914–1918.

The requirements of the war necessitated new powers for dealing with labor disputes, and these have been traced in some detail in the report with special reference to the following points:

1. The Conciliation Act, 1896. This was the only act under which, prior to the war, steps could be taken by the appropriate Government department (at that time the Board of Trade) for the settlement of labor disputes. The act provided for voluntary conciliation and

arbitration, and gave the department no compulsory powers.

2. The Committee on Production. This committee was established in February, 1915, to inquire and report as to the best steps to be taken "to insure that the productive power of employees in engineering and shipbuilding establishments working for Government purposes should be made fully available so as to meet the needs of the nation in the present emergency." With the establishment of the Ministry of Munitions the functions of the committee in regard to production were absorbed by the ministry. The committee then became an arbitration body and quickly developed into the principal arbitration tribunal for the settlement of labor disputes.

3. The "Treasury Agreement" on the subject of the acceleration of output on Government work, negotiated by the chancellor of the exchequer and the president of the Board of Trade in March, 1915, with the principal trade-unions. The Government's main proposals embodied in the agreement were on the one hand to limit profits and on the other to prevent stoppages of work owing to trade disputes, and to secure the suspension during the war of restrictions on output.

4. The Munitions of War Act, 1915. This act, passed in July, 1915, introduced compulsory arbitration at the option of the Board of Trade, together with the legal prohibition of strikes and lockouts in certain circumstances, and the statutory enforcement of awards. The act also gave legal sanction to the Government's pledge to limit profits, and generally to the terms of the "Treasury Agreement."

5. The Munitions of War Act, 1916. As regards the matters dealt with in this report, the principal amendments increased the Government powers in respect to compulsory arbitration, extended the definition of "munitions work," and established new arbitration

tribunals for women, and for semiskilled and unskilled men.

6. The New Ministries and Secretaries Act, 1916, under which the powers and duties of the Board of Trade in regard to the settlement of labor disputes were transferred to the Ministry of Labor.

7. The Commission of Inquiry into Labor Unrest, appointed in June, 1917, following a dispute in May involving about 200,000 work-people in the engineering trades in various parts of the country.

- 8. The Munitions of War Act, 1917. This act inter alia made provisions for the legal extension of awards to the whole of a trade or industry. It also authorized the minister of munitions to give directions as to the remuneration for work paid at time rates; it was under this authority that the orders giving the 12½ per cent bonus on earnings to time workers in the engineering and foundry trades and in shipbuilding and ship-repairing establishments were issued.
- 9. The Wages (Temporary Regulation) Act, 1918, passed shortly after the armistice. This act modified the sections of the Munitions of War Acts relative to the legal prohibition of strikes and lockouts and compulsory arbitration, and also stabilized wages during the period of transition from war to peace conditions.

Included in the report is a note on some of the results which were observed for the working of the measures adopted during the war for the prevention of strikes and lockouts, with particular reference to (a) the question of the legal prohibition of strikes and lockouts and the accompanying provisions for compulsory arbitration and for the enforcement of awards, and (b) the steps taken to secure coordination of the labor activities of Government departments. A note has been included on the various commissions of inquiry which were set up during the war to examine the question of labor unrest. An account is also included in the report of the general wage movements during the period of the war, reference being made to the various agreements negotiated during the war for a four-monthly hearing of general wage applications by the committee on production, the course of wage increases in the engineering trade being specially dealt with.

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The report also contains particulars of the cases referred to arbitration during this period, and shows the large extent to which this method of settling disputes was adopted throughout the war period. The number of cases referred to arbitration during the period under review was approximately 8,000, of which about one-half were dealt with by the committee on production.

In practically every trade, wages and working conditions were at one time or another dealt with by conciliation or arbitration proceedings under the auspices of the department, and in many important trades these were determined periodically by a series of awards. The cases referred to arbitration, while relating mainly to wages questions, concerned all branches of working conditions. A summary of the various awards and conciliation settlements appears in appendixes to the report.

The report also contains a diagram showing month by month from January, 1914, to December, 1918, the number of strikes and lockouts commencing during the month, and the number of work-people involved in strikes and lockouts.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official-United States.

District of Columbia.—Minimum Wage Board. Second annual report for the year ending December 31, 1919. Washington, 1920. 60 pp.

A summary of this report is given on pages 112 to 115 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

Hawah.—Governor. Report to the Secretary of the Interior for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1919. Washington, 1919. 89 pp. Map.

Contains sections on prohibition; population, immigration, and labor; industrial accident boards; and public health.

Illinois.—Pension Laws Commission. Report, 1918–1919. A proposed standard plan for a comprehensive and permanent system of pension funds. [Springfield, 1919.] x, 379 pp.

A brief digest of this report is given on pages 189 and 190 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

Pennsylvania.—Department of Public Instruction. The school law and an appendix, 1919. Harrisburg, 1920. 320 pp.

Among the subjects included are Vocational and other special schools; Child labor and continuation schools; Employment of children; and Teachers' retirement system.

- UTAH.—Industrial Commission. Supplemental report, including analysis of industrial accidents covering causes, extent and duration of disability, degrees of disability, occurrence of accidents by month of year, together with a special study of specific injury and fatal cases for period July 1, 1917, to June 30, 1918. Salt Lake [1918]. 95 pp. Tables.
- Wisconsin.—State Board of Vocational Education. Courses of study. Cabinetmaking: Shop, drawing, safety, mathematics, trade technology, equipment, references. Madison, 1919. 15 pp. Monograph No. 8.

- United States.—Congress. Joint commission on reclassification of salaries. Report submitting a classification of positions on the basis of duties and qualifications, and schedules of compensation for the respective classes. March 12, 1920. Washington, 1920. 884 pp. 66th Congress, 2d session. House document No. 686.

Some account of this report appears on pages 105 to 108 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

- Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. British industrial reconstruction and commercial policies. Washington, 1920. 88 pp. Special agents series, No. 193.
- —— Department of Labor. Bureau of Immigration. Annual report of the commissioner general of immigration, fiscal year ended June 30, 1919. Washington, 1919. 412 pp.
- — Woman in Industry Service. Wages of candy makers in Philadelphia in 1919. Washington, June 28, 1919. 46 pp. Bulletin No. 4.
- Women's Bureau. Women in the Government service. Washington, 1920. 37 pp. Bulletin No. 8.

A summary of this report was published in the Monthly Labor Review for January, 1920, pp. 208–217.

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United States.—Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education. Some phases of educational progress in Latin America, by Walter A. Montgomery. Washington, 1920. 62 pp. Bulletin, 1919, No. 59.

A special feature of this report is the account of industrial and vocational training given under the various educational systems of these countries.

— Federal Board for Vocational Education. Coal-mine gases. Washington, October, 1919. 36 pp. Bulletin No. 39, Trade and industrial series No. 9.

This bulletin is supplementary to General mining bulletin No. 38 (Trade and industrial series No. 8), and is intended to form the basis of instruction in a study of coal-mine gases in trade extension classes, the material having been prepared originally for use in the mining extension class of West Virginia. It contains information of which every man in the mine, including superintendent, foreman, and fire boss should possess at least an elementary knowledge.

—— Industrial Conference. Report of conference convened by the President December 1, 1919. Washington, March 6, 1920. 51 pp.

This report is treated in an article published in this issue of the Monthly Labor Review, pages 33 to 40.

— Railroad Administration. Comparative amounts of railroad labor and pay December, 1917, and January to July, 1919. Letter from the Director General of Railroads in response to a resolution of the Senate of August 20, 1919, submitting statements relating to the amount of railroad labor and its rates of pay in December, 1917, and in each month from January to July, 1919. Washington, 1919. 184 pp. 66th Congress, 1st session. Senate Document No. 154.

This statement is noted briefly in the December. 1919, issue of the Monthly Labor Review, pages 229 to 236.

— Tariff Commission. Costs of production in the dye industry, 1918 and 1919. Details of costs for a selected list of dyes and intermediates. Washington, 1920. 24 pp. Tariff information series No. 15.

Official—Foreign Countries.

Australia.—Bureau of Census and Statistics. Labor and Industrial Branch. Prices, purchasing power of money, wages, trade-unions, unemployment, and general industrial conditions, 1918. Melbourne, July, 1919. 268 pp. Report No. 9.

Contains information in summarized form regarding labor organizations, employment and unemployment, wholesale and retail prices, rents, purchasing power of money, cost of living, wages, hours of labor, industrial disputes, operations under Arbitration and Wages Board Acts, and industrial accidents. The appendixes contain detailed information on wholesale and retail prices and rents and on minimum rates of wages and hours of labor in the important occupations in the several States on December 31, 1918.

— Official yearbook, containing authoritative statistics for the period 1901–1917, and corrected statistics for the period 1788 to 1900. Melbourne [1919]. No. 11.—1918. xl, 1246 pp. Maps.

—— (South Australia).—Inspector of factories. Report, 1918. Adelaide [1919]. 12 pp.

Reports 1,814 factories registered, employing 18,566 persons, of whom 1,280 were children between the ages of 13 and 16 years. About 30 per cent of the total employees were females. Included is a list of trades in which the number of hours worked per week is from 44 to 56. The report gives a comparison by industry and by sex and age of workers of wage rates prevailing in 1917 and 1918. These show a marked increase in 1918.

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CZECHO-SLOVAKIA.— Ministère de la Prévoyance Sociale. La Conférence du Travail et l'État Tchéco-Slovaque. Prague, 1919. 78 pp.

As indicated by the title this brochure is essentially a digest of the labor laws in force in Czecho-Slovakia on September 30, 1919. "The Republic has not yet been able to establish its social policy, but it has undertaken to modify in consonance with new conditions some portions of the Austrian and Hungarian codes which in so far as they have not been amended constitute the law of the land during the period of transition."

A chapter is devoted to the history of the social policy of the State from its origin up to the date of the revolution, October 28, 1918. Such social laws as have been enacted by the National Assembly are noted in the Monthly Labor Review for February, 1920, pp. 239 to 245.

France.—Ministère du Travail et de la Prévoyance Sociale. (Direction des Retraites Ouvrières et Paysannes.) Recueil de documents sur les retraites ouvrières et paysannes; Instructions et circulaires. Première série, seconde série. Paris, June 1, 1914, June 1, 1919. 390, 283 pp.

Text of instructions and circulars in force on June 1, 1914, and June 1, 1919, concerning retired workmen and peasants.

— — Lois, décrets et arrêtés. Paris, January 1, 1919. 220 pp.

Text of laws, decrees, and acts in force January 1, 1919, regarding retirement of workmen and peasants.

Germany.—Statistisches Amt. Streiks und Aussperrungen, 1915, 1916. Berlin, 1916–17. 25*, 25 pp. Statistik des Deutschen Reichs, Band 280, 282.

Volumes 280 and 282 of the Statistics of the German Empire published by the Imperial Statistical Office and containing the official strike statistics for the years 1915 and 1916. The extent of strikes and lockouts in these two years is shown in the following table:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN GERMANY IN 1915 AND 1916.

	Strikes.					Lock	outs.	
Year.	Number.	Estab- lishments affected.	Strikers.	Days lost.	Number.	Estab- lishments affected.	Persons locked out.	Days lost.
1915 1916	137 240	178 437	11,639 124,188	41,838 245,404	4	7	1,227	3,673

The number of strikes, strikers, lockouts, and locked-out workers in 1915 was insignificant compared with that of prewar years. In 1916 the number of strikes and strikers increased considerably but no lockouts were reported during the year. Of the 141 labor disputes reported in 1915, 24 terminated favorably for the strikers, 39 were partly successful, and 78 failed from the workers' point of view. The corresponding figures for the 240 strikes of 1916 were 27, 130, and 83.

Great Britain.—Board of Education. Salaries of teachers in public elementary schools. England and Wales. Statement showing the number of teachers—classified according to sex, qualifications, and (except for schools not maintained by local education authorities—Education Act, 1902, sec. 15) type of area in which employed—in public elementary schools in England and Wales, who on the 1st day of April in each of the years 1917, 1918, and 1919 were in receipt of annual salaries of the amounts specified. London, 1919. 15 pp. Cmd. 513. Price, 2d. net.

— Board of Trade. Statistical Department. Statistical abstract for the United Kingdom in each of the last 15 years from 1903 to 1917. Sixty-fifth number. London, 1919. 429 pp. Cmd. 491. Price, 1s. 9d. net.

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Great Britain.—[Foreign Office.] Report on Japanese labor, by Oswald White. London, 1920. 42 pp. Cmd. 511. Price, 3d. net.

Touches briefly upon the physical and mental qualities of Japanese labor, explaining why such labor is inefficient. States that it is the oversupply of labor that causes poor wages and low efficiency, and refers to woman and child labor as a feature of Japanese industry. There is considerable home work done, which is "wretchedly paid." Draws a rather dark picture of Japanese labor conditions, but concludes that employers have come to realize that the care of their workmen pays and that the treatment accorded to them in some instances "appears to reach a comparatively high level." Tables are given showing the extent to which labor was employed in factories at the end of 1916; results of an inquiry into the cost of living in 1912; an actual family budget; average wages paid in Yokohama in July, 1914, and June, 1919, and in Tokyo in November, 1918; and strikes in Japan in specified months in 1919.

— Home Office. First aid and ambulance at factories and workshops. London, 1919. 21 pp. 9 plates. Price, 6d. net.

Issued for "the guidance of occupiers of factories and workshops in establishing at their works a satisfactory first-aid and ambulance service."

— Chief inspector of mines. Mines and quarries: General report, with statistics, for 1918. Part III.—Output. London, 1919. Pp. 145-168. Cmd. 531. Price, 3d. net.

The total value of the minerals produced during the year amounted to £257,079,792 (the par value of £1=\$4.8665), which was an increase of £33,145,803 as compared with 1917. The total output of coal was 227,748,654 tons, and the value £238,240,760, showing a decrease in the output of 20,750,586 tons and an increase in the value of £30,453,-866 on the figures for 1917. The average price of coal was 20s. 11.06d. per ton in 1918, as compared with 16s. 8.68d. in 1917.

- Ministry of Labor. Conciliation Act, 1896. Twelfth report of proceedings under the Conciliation Act, 1896, and report on arbitration under the munitions of war acts. Together with particulars of (1) Proceedings under the Wages (Temporary Regulation) Act, 1918, and (2) Settlements arrived at under the Coal Mines (Minimum Wage) Act, 1912. General report, 1914–1918. Vol. I. London, 1919. 63 pages. Chart. 185. Price, 4 d. net.
- Directory of joint standing industrial councils, interim industrial reconstruction committees, and trade boards, with index of members. [London] January, 1920. 91 pp.
- Lists 51 joint industrial councils in industries employing about 3,250,000 work-people; 24 interim industrial reconstruction committees covering about 491,300 work-people; and 23 trade boards representing some 790,200 workpeople.
- Treasury. Staffs employed in Government departments. Statement showing the staffs of Government departments on 1st December, 1919, compiled from returns furnished to the Treasury. London, 1920. 3 pp. Cmd. 533. Price, 1 d. net.
- ITALY.—Direzione Generale del Lavoro e della Previdenza Sociale. Divisione Previdenza Sociale. Assicurazione obligatoria contro gli Infortuni sul lavoro in agricoltura. Atti della commissione incaricata di predisporre lo schema di regolamento. Rome, 1919. 220 pp. Previdenza Sociale. N. 2.

The minutes of the commission appointed by the Italian Ministry of Industry, Commerce and Labor, to prepare regulations for the carrying out of the law of August 23, 1917, relating to compulsory insurance against accidents in agriculture.

League of Nations.—Economic and finance section. Conference on international cooperation in statistics, August 14 and 15, 1919. London, Harrison & Sons [1919]. 41 pp.

Presents a summary of discussions in the conference on international cooperation and statistics held in London in August, 1919; also a brief statement relating to the work of the permanent office of the International Institute of Statistics, which is a private institution in which 27 countries have representation. Rules governing the

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organization are given. There is also a brief résumé of the subjects on which statistics are now being gathered, including strikes and lockouts, employment, wages and hours of labor, cost of living, collective labor contracts, trade-unions and associations, cooperation, immigration, emigration, agriculture, railroads, insurance, housing, etc. The work of the Bureau of Statistics of the International Institute of Agriculture is briefly described.

SPAIN.—Instituto Nacional de Previsión. Qué es el Instituto Nacional de Previsión. Su origen. Operaciones que realiza. Disposiciones por que se rige. Tarifas. Madrid, 1919. 40 pp.

This pamphlet presents the purpose, history, and operations of the various pension systems under Government supervision in Spain.

SWITZERLAND (ZÜRICH).—Statistisches Amt. Statistisches Jahrbuch der Stadt Zürich. Jahrgang 1917 zum Teil auch 1918. Zürich, 1919. xxviii, 31*, 338 pp.

The thirteenth volume of the statistical yearbook of the city of Zürich giving data for 1917 and partly for 1918.

Unofficial.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE. The annals. Vol. 87, No. 176. The new American thrift. Philadelphia, January, 1920. 1–248 pp.

Among the subjects treated in this issue the following are of special interest from the worker's standpoint: Thrift as a family and individual problem—some standard budgets, by B. R. Andrews; Thrift and labor, by A. H. Hansen; Organized labor's attitude towards the national thrift movement, by Frank E. Wolfe; Food thrift, by Raymond Pearl; The function of salvage in the education of industrial workers, by George W. Sherman; The development of thrift facilities, by Milton W. Harrison; and Cooperative credit institutions in the United States, by James B. Morman.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. Illinois Branch. Proceedings of thirty-seventh annual convention. Peoria, Victor A. Olander, secretary-treasurer, 1919. 356, pp.

— Michigan Branch. Proceedings of the thirtieth annual convention. Lansing, Perry J. Ward, secretary-treasurer, 1919. 81 pp.

American Gas Association. Committee on accident prevention. Accident prevention. [Philadelphia, 1919.] 27 pp.

The latest report of this committee is largely devoted to a safety code under the heading "Precautionary measures." There is included an analysis of 1,000 cases of accident reported by 77 companies in 29 States. Among 14,656 persons employed at the time of reporting, there were 1,000 nonfatal accidents during the first nine months of 1919. Several charts are presented showing the number of cases due to various causes, the distribution by days of the week and by hours of the day, etc.

AMERICAN LABOR YEAR BOOK, 1919–20. Edited by Alexander Trachtenberg. New York City, Rand School of Social Science, 1920. 447 pp.

Summarizes briefly the most recent developments in the labor movement, both in the United States and in foreign countries. The material is arranged in six principal parts, and an appendix: I. Labor in the war; II. The labor movement in the United States; III. Labor and the law; IV. Social and economic conditions; V. The international socialist, labor, and cooperative movement; VI. The socialist movement in the United States; Appendix.

Aronovici, Carol. Americanization. St. Paul, Keller Pub. Co., 1919. 48 pp.
Characterizing the Americanization movements as still in a formative state with "achievement hardly measurable in concrete terms," the author considers basic factors upon which he believes national unity might be built.

Bullock, Edna D., compiler. Selected articles on the employment of women. Second and enlarged edition by Julia E. Johnsen. New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1920. 214 pp. Debaters' handbook series. Bibliography.

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Cavaillé, J. La Journée de huit heures. La loi du 23 avril 1919. L'historiquel'esprit-le mécanisme d'application. Paris, 1919. 146 pp.

The first part of this study is devoted to a historical review of the eight-hour movement from its origin in England in 1833, when the first demand was followed by a strike of the tailors in London, up to April 23, 1919, when the eight-hour law was passed by the French parliament.

The second part is an analysis of the law; its application to varied industries; definition of hours of work; its effect on wages; and the methods of enforcement.

The text of the law of administrative regulations under it and of collective agreements of national scope entered into are given as appendixes.

Clark, Alice. Working life of women in the seventeenth century. London, George Routledge and Sons (Ltd.), 1919. 335 pp.

Courau, R. Les Assurances Sociales dans les Industries d'Alsace et de Lorraine. Code impérial d'assurances. Assurance des employés. Caisses minières de secours. Strasbourg [1919]. 116 pp.

Dublin, Louis I. The mortality of bituminous coal miners from influenza-pneumonia, October to December, 1918. In Journal of Industrial Hygiene, Boston, February, 1920. P. 483.

Mortality figures for a total of 4,700 miners insured in the group department of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. during the period of the influenza-pneumonia epidemic in 1918 show that bituminous coal miners suffered severely from the epidemic as compared with workers in other occupations. The following table gives the death rates by age periods among such miners in comparison with those for all occupied white males:

INFLUENZA-PNEUMONIA MORTALITY AMONG BITUMINOUS COAL MINERS, OCTOBER TO DECEMBER, 1918, COMPARED WITH ALL OCCUPIED WHITE MALES.

	Annual death rate per 1,000.				
Age group.	Bituminous coal miners.	All industrial white males.			
All ages (15 years and over)	50.1	22.3			
15 to 25 years	29.5 62.1 44.4	17.5 32.6 11.7			

Edie, Lionel D., editor. Current social and industrial forces. New York, Boni and Liveright, 1920. 393 pp.

A collection of extracts from the writings of authorities on various phases of the subject, grouped under the general headings of Forces of disturbance, Potentialities of production, The price system, The direction of industry, The funds of reorganization, The power and policy of organized labor, Proposed plans of action, Industrial doctrines in defense of the status quo, and The possibilities of social science. The chief distinguishing feature of the book is stated to be an "effort to bring a wide variety of liberal minds to bear on the social and industrial problem." There is an introduction by James Harvey Robinson.

Engineering Council. Report of committee on classification and compensation of engineers. New York, 29 W. Thirty-ninth Street, December 15, 1919. 17 pp.

Contains a scheme for the classification of all classes of engineers with a tabular statement of salaries received in the Federal, State, and municipal services, and a schedule of proposed salaries submitted for discussion by the council.

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Garton Foundation. Memorandum on the industrial situation after the war. Revised and enlarged edition. London, January, 1919. 175 pp. Price, 2s. net.

The present edition represents a considerable amount of revision and addition based upon the development of new issues and the enhanced importance of others since the publication of the first edition in October, 1916. This earlier edition was noted in the September, 1918, issue of the Monthly Labor Review, page 353.

GLBRETH, FRANK B., and GLBRETH, LILLIAN M. Unnecessary fatigue—a multibillion enemy to America. In the Journal of Industrial Hygiene, Vol. I, No. 11. Boston, March, 1920. Pp. 542-545.

This paper urges upon workers, organizations, and employers the value of the elimination of unnecessary fatigue.

- Hammond, J. L., and Hammond, Barbara. The skilled laborer, 1760–1832. London, Longmans, Green and Co., 1919. 397 pp.
- Hichens, W. L. The new spirit in industrial relations. Being an address delivered at the United Summer School, Swanwick, Derbyshire, 1919. London, Nisbet & Co. (Ltd.), 1919. 31 pp. Price, 6d. net.
- Independent Labor Party (British). Report of the twenty-seventh annual conference held at Huddersfield, April, 1919. London, 1919. 126 pp.
- International Association for Labor Legislation. French section. Les clauses du travail dans le Traité de Paix. Rapport de M. Justin Godart. Paris, 1919. 62 pp. Nouvelle serie No. 15.
- La semaine anglaise dans l'industrie du vêtement. Rapport présenté à l'Association française pour la Protection légale des Trevailleurs par Raoul Jay. Paris, 1918. 43 pp. Nouvelle serie No. 14.
- Lake Carriers' Association. Annual report, 1918. Detroit, P. N. Bland Printing Co., 1919. 211 pp.
- Leacock, Stephen. The unsolved riddle of social justice. New York, John Lane Co., 1920. 152 pp.

This book presents a résumé of the problems which have developed since the beginning of the "industrial revolution" and especially of the troubled outlook which now confronts the world. The author analyzes socialistic aims and concludes that neither socialism nor the old individualism will work, but that while retaining our present system an awakened public conscience must see to it that unemployment and neglect of the old and the infirm and of children shall not be allowed; and that more opportunities for leisure, through shortened working hours and "a progressive movement of social control alleviating the misery which it can not obliterate and based upon the broad general principle of equality of opportunity," must be established.

MacDonald, J. Ramsay. Parliament and revolution. Manchester, England, The National Labor Press (Ltd.), 1919. 116 pp. The Socialist Library XII.

MARRIOTT, J. A. R. The right to work. An essay introductory to the economic history of the French revolution of 1848. Oxford, England, Clarendon Press, 1919. 97 pp.

"Mines for the Nation" Campaign Committee. Campaign leaflets Nos. 1 to 12. Cooperative Printing Society (Ltd.), London [1919].

These leaflets form part of the propaganda of the British miners for nationalization of the coal mines and present statistics of accidents, wages, profits, output, strikes and lockouts, and prices as arguments for the adoption of their program.

Mock, Harry E. Industrial medicine and surgery. Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Co., 1919. 846 pp. 210 illustrations.

This book deals with the new specialty "the human maintenance problem in industry," and is divided into six parts: Industrial health service; Prevention; Industrial medicine; Industrial surgery; Compensation; Insurance; Medico-legal phrases; and Reconstruction. It is based upon the author's experience as chief physician in a plant employing 15,000 persons.

It contains a detailed discussion of the establishment requirements, arrangements, equipment, maintenance, and other points connected with the operation of the large industrial health department. Especially valuable are the models of systems for keeping records, the precise descriptions of arrangement and equipment of medical-aid rooms, and the suggestions as to methods of conducting examinations and interviews and as to the number of physicians and nurses needed to give adequate care to large numbers of employees.

The book emphasizes that, on the one hand, incompetent and insufficiently trained doctors are bringing discredit upon industrial medicine and, on the other hand, because of the lack of opportunity for advancement, medical students of the better type do not seem inclined to select "mass" medicine as their life work. Dr. Mock favors the employment of part-time industrial physicians, believing that in this way the industry can get a better type of physician for the same outlay, and that this type of physician can afford to work on a part-time basis and utilize the remainder of his time in private practice and scientific investigation in his own specialty.

Muscio, Bernard. Lectures on industrial psychology. Second edition (revised). New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1920. 300 pp.

Subjects discussed in these lectures are: The immediate aim of industrial psychology; Mental factors relevant to industry; Selection of workers on the basis of natural fitness; The best method of work; and The desirability of applying psychology to industry.

Nast, Alfred. Principes coopératifs et exposé synthétique de la législation. Paris, 1919. 330 pp. La Régime Juridique des Coopératives. Bibliography.

This book is a study of the various forms of cooperation in France, covering producers and consumers cooperation, credit banks, cooperative agricultural societies, cooperative societies for the erection of cheap dwellings, and cooperative restaurants among munition workers. The first part of the book is devoted to a general discussion of the principles of cooperation and a classification of the different forms; the second part to an analysis of the laws relating to cooperation both in France and other countries.

National Conference of Social Work. Proceedings at the forty-sixth annual session held in Atlantic City, N. J., June 1-8, 1919. Chicago, 1920. 813 pp.

An account of some of the features of this session of the conference is contained in the July, 1919, issue of the Monthly Labor Review, pages 119 to 123, and 238 to 242. Some of the papers read at the conference are also found in the same number of the Review, pp. 1 to 13, 243 to 255.

The secretary of the conference thus summarizes the character of it: "In this year's proceedings, the incidence of new principles in social work and of contemporary influences upon welfare programs is more traceable than heretofore. An example is the paramount question of the bearing of the standard of living on social remedies, as developed especially in the symposium of the Division on Health. The dominance of the labor interest is shown through discussion appropriately not only in the Division on Industrial and Economic Problems, but in nearly every other division."

National Conference on Americanization in Industries. An outgrowth of the National Conference of Americanization Workers, held in Washington in May under the auspices of the Department of the Interior. Proceedings, Nantasket Beach, Boston, Mass., June 22, 23, and 24, 1919. A round-table conference of the actual workers engaged in Americanization activities within industrial concerns. Boston, 1034 Kimball Bldg., 1919. 144 pp.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL. Safe practices. No. 32. Exhaust systems. Chicago, 168 N. Michigan Avenue, 1920. 16 pp. Illustrated. Price, 25 cents.

NATIONAL TRANSPORTATION CONFERENCE. Program of railroad legislation. Washington, October, 1919. 185 pp. Charts.

Contains a statement by W. N. Doak before the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce of the United States House of Representatives, July 25, 1919, on the subject of boards for adjustment of wages and working conditions.

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NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION. Second preliminary report of committee on mortality from tuberculosis in dusty trades. New York, 381 Fourth Avenue, Sep-

tember, 1919. 24 pp.

The first preliminary report of this committee, which was submitted to the executive committee of the National Tuberculosis Association at its meeting in Pittsburgh, December 5, 1918, and published by the Working Conditions Service of the United States Department of Labor, was noted in the July, 1919, issue of the Monthly Labor Review, page 288.

People's Yearbook and Annual of the English and Scottish Wholesale Societies, 1920. Third year of publication. Manchester, England, Cooperative Wholesale Society (Ltd.), 1 Balloon Street, 1920. 401 pp. Illustrated.

Contains statistics of the Cooperative Union and of societies in the various European countries, as well as articles on the Cooperative Party, housing, and town planning, and one by Sidney Webb, on the Poor Law. For a review of the operations of the societies belonging to the Cooperative Union see pages 131 and 132 of this issue of the Monthly Labor Review.

- Phillips, H. D. Cooperative marketing in the Chautauqua-Erie grape industry. Ithaca, N. Y., September, 1919. 94 pp. Illustrated. Cornell University, Agricultural Experiment Station, Memoir 28.
- Saget, Jean-Baptiste. Le problème de l'habitation à bon marché en France et à l'étranger. Thèse pour le doctorat, Université de Paris. Paris, 1919. 267 pp. Bibliography.

The first part of this book is devoted to a study of the formation and development of the industrial society of Mulhouse which first undertook to solve the problem of providing cheap dwellings for workers in France; the second part takes up French housing legislation; the third, the problem as it is dealt with in other countries, and the fourth offers a solution of the question through municipal action.

- Scott, J. W. Syndicalism and philosophical realism. A study in the correlation of contemporary social tendencies. London, A. and C. Black (Ltd.), 1919. 215 pp.
- Šećerov, Slavko. Economic phenomena before and after war. A statistical theory of modern wars. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1919. 232 pp. Bibliography. An exposition of the theory that modern wars are caused by unstable economic equilibrium which is caused by variation in the proportional growth of population, production, and consumption. These variations and their effect on the peace of nations or the world are shown by economic statistical data showing changes in conditions in pre-war, war, and post-war periods.

Selley, Ernest. Village trade-unions in two centuries. London, George Allen & Unwin (Ltd.), 1919. 183 pp.

An account of the beginning of trade-unionism among agricultural laborers in England in 1833 and of the chief events in the history of such unions down to the present time. Tables giving average rates of pay in specified years and groups of years, from 1837 to 1910 and 1907 to 1917, and minimum rates in 1918 and 1919, as well as cost-of-living tables, are appended.

- Shadwell, Arthur. Coal mines and nationalization. London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1919. 32 pp. (Reprinted from The Times.)
- Thomas, John. The economics of coal. From the coal seam to the consumer's cellar-With special reference to the reports of the Coal Industry Commission (British). With foreword by Frank Hodges. London, Independent Labor Party, 1919. 24 pp. I. L. P. pamphlets, new series, No. 16. Price, 3 d.
- United Mine Workers of America. Constitution of international union, adopted at Cleveland, Ohio. Effective January 1, 1920. Cleveland, 1920. 70 pp.

Verband der Gastwirtsgehilfen. Protokoll über die Verhandlungen des 9. Verbands-Tages. Berlin, 1919. 128 pp.

The minutes of the ninth general meeting of the German Federation of Hotel, Restaurant, and Café Employees, held at Hanover September 23 to 27, 1919. The resolutions adopted by the meeting demanded the continued combating of the tip system, the strict observance of the eight-hour day, and a two years' apprenticeship for waiters and one of three years for cooks. The meeting also adopted new by-laws and regulations for the grant of strike, unemployment, sick, and funeral benefits.

Statut und Unterstützungs-Reglement. Beschlossen auf dem 9. Verbandstag in Hanover. Berlin, 1919. 31 pp.

The by-laws and benefit regulations adopted by the ninth general meeting of the German Federation of Hotel, Restaurant, and Café Employees.

VILLATE-LACHERET, MADAME. Les inspectrices du travail en France. Paris, 1919. 142 pp. Bibliography.

This treatise on the subject of women inspectors of labor in France, which was the author's thesis for her doctorate in the college of law of the University of Paris, covers the laws creating the positions of women inspectors, conditions governing their employment, their power, their relations both to employers and workers, the results which have been obtained, and proposed reforms.

Wade, Sir Charles G. Australia. Problems and prospects. Oxford, England, The Clarendon Press, 1919. 111 pp.

Chapters of special interest are on industrial and social problems and land settlement. In the first of these the author traces the history of industrial arbitration in Australia and from this history deduces a few leading propositions for the framing of industrial tribunals. These propositions include the following:

(1) Such tribunals should be composed of experts and practical men, representing both employer and employee, with a chairman who is firm but conciliatory. * * * (2) Such tribunals should be permanent, that is to say, always available in case

(3) To secure the above objects of expert knowledge and prompt action, it follows that a board should be appointed for every substantial trade.

(4) It is essential that these tribunals shall be free from political influence of any

(5) I have come to the conclusion, after a long personal experience, that the introduction of penalties, either in the form of imprisonment or of fine, is an illusory protection.

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. The bulletins marked thus * are out of print.]

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.Bul. 269. Wholesale prices, 1890 to 1919. [In press.]

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.
 - Bul. 266. A study of family expenditures in the District of Columbia. [In press.]
- Bul 270. Retail prices, 1913 to 1919. [In press.]

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 and standardization of piece rates in the dress and waist industry of New York City.

Wages and Hours of Labor-Continued.

- Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
- Bul. 150. Wages and hours of labor in the cotton, woolen, and silk industries, 1907 to 1913.
- Bul. 151. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry in the United States, 1907 to 1912.
- * Bul. 153. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1907 to 1913.
 - Bul. 154. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe and hosiery and underwear industries, 1907 to 1913.
 - Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
 - Bul. 161. Wages and hours of labor in the clothing and cigar industries, 1911 to 1913.
 - Bul. 163. Wages and hours of labor in the building and repairing of steam railroad cars, 1907 to 1913.
 - Bul. 168. Wages and hours of labor in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1918.
 - 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. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
 - Bul. 225. Wages and hours of labor in the lumber, millwork, and furniture industries, 1915.
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