

U. S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
W. B. WILSON, Secretary
BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS
ETHELBERT STEWART, Commissioner

MONTHLY
LABOR REVIEW

VOLUME XII

NUMBER 1



JANUARY, 1921

WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1921

ADDITIONAL COPIES
OF THIS PUBLICATION MAY BE PROCURED FROM
THE SUPERINTENDENT OF DOCUMENTS
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
WASHINGTON, D. C.
AT
15 CENTS PER COPY
SUBSCRIPTION PRICE, \$1.50 PER YEAR

Contents.

	Page.
Special articles:	
Immigrant farm colonies in southern New Jersey, by Samuel Jacob.....	1-22
A national council for the printing trades, by Charles R. Walker, jr., Bureau of Industrial Research, New York City.....	23-44
Working children of Boston, by Helen Sumner Woodbury.....	45-59
Prices and cost of living:	
Retail prices of food in the United States.....	60-84
Retail prices of coal in the United States.....	84-87
Index numbers of wholesale prices in the United States.....	88-91
Comparison of retail price changes in the United States and foreign countries.....	91-93
Prices of wheat, flour, and bread since the armistice.....	94-96
Rents in the District of Columbia.....	96-98
Cost of living in Mexico.....	98
Retail price changes in Great Britain.....	99
Maximum wholesale price for apples in England.....	100
Increase in cost of living in Lisbon, Portugal.....	100-102
Maximum prices for sugar fixed in Spain.....	102
Wages and hours of labor:	
Recent changes in union wage rates in printing and publishing trades and in the plastering trade.....	103-107
Wage increases for clerical forces of the Naval establishment.....	108-110
Salaries in universities and colleges in the United States in 1920.....	110
Comparison of earnings of New York State factory workers with retail prices of food.....	111, 112
The three-shift system in the steel industry.....	113-116
Wage increases in certain foreign countries—	
England.....	116-117
France.....	117
Java.....	117-119
New South Wales.....	120
Scotland.....	120
Shanghai.....	120-121
South Australia.....	122
The eight-hour day in certain foreign countries.....	123
Minimum wage:	
Minimum wage law of Texas.....	124-126
Minimum wage investigations and revisions in Massachusetts.....	126
Cooperation:	
Second national cooperative convention.....	127-132
Attitude of International Labor Office toward cooperation.....	132-134
Cooperative bank established in Finland.....	135
Cooperation in navigation in Italy.....	135
Agreements:	
Agreement affecting employees of Haverhill (Mass.) Shoe Manufacturers Association.....	136-138
Labor agreement in the trawling branch of the fishing industry.....	138-139

Employment and unemployment:	Page.
Employment in selected industries in November, 1920.....	140-142
An industrial employment survey of the United States.....	143
Activities of Illinois free employment offices for November, 1920.....	143, 144
Employment and unemployment in certain foreign countries.....	144-149
Report of employment exchanges in the United Kingdom.....	150
Volume of employment in the United Kingdom in October, 1920.....	151, 152
Women in industry:	
The new position of women in American industry.....	153-157
Recent survey of woman workers in Fort Worth, Tex.....	157-158
Industrial accidents:	
Coal-mine fatalities in the United States.....	159
Coke-oven accidents in the United States in 1919.....	160
Industrial hygiene and medicine:	
Need for physical examination of employees.....	161, 162
Rest periods for New York workers.....	162, 163
Dust hazards in grinding shops of an ax factory.....	163, 164
Plant measures for industrial fatigue control.....	164-166
Detection and elimination of industrial fatigue.....	166
Workmen's compensation and social insurance:	
Methods of amending compensation laws.....	167-171
State agencies for administering workmen's compensation and accident prevention laws.....	171-174
Enforcing insurance under the New York workmen's compensation law.....	174, 175
Missouri compensation law rejected by referendum.....	175, 176
Compensation allowed for injury due to horseplay.....	176
Recent reports of industrial accident commissions—	
California.....	176-179
Montana.....	180-182
South Dakota.....	183
Progress of the mothers' pension movement in the United States.....	184
Compensation for industrial diseases in New Brunswick.....	184
Increased unemployment benefits in Germany.....	185
Standard weekly payments and benefits under British Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920.....	185, 186
Labor laws and decisions:	
Decision of Secretary of Labor in the case of Ludwig C. A. K. Martens.....	187-194
Recent decisions relating to the closed shop.....	194-197
Bulgarian law on the conscription of labor.....	197-198
Industrial relations and labor conditions:	
Eighth annual report of the Secretary of Labor.....	198-201
Migration of Negroes to northern industrial centers.....	201-203
Efficiency of labor on railroads.....	204, 205
Industrial activity in Pennsylvania.....	205-207
Exodus of labor from Ohio farms.....	207
The Danish Federation of Trade Unions on the labor situation.....	207-209
Industrial recovery in the devastated regions of France.....	210
Industrial depression in Japan.....	210, 211
Labor conditions in the cotton textile industry of Mexico.....	211
Labor conditions in Portugal.....	211, 212
Housing:	
The housing situation in England.....	213-221
Strikes:	
Industrial controversies in New York State, 1919-20.....	222

CONTENTS.

	Page.
What State labor bureaus are doing:	
Colorado.....	223
Louisiana.....	223
Massachusetts.....	224
Pennsylvania.....	225-227
Philippine Islands.....	227, 228
Texas.....	228, 229
Washington.....	229, 230
Current notes of interest to labor:	
Success of soldier settlement plans in Canada.....	231
Profit-sharing scheme in certain British cotton mills.....	231, 232
Central arbitration board for settlement of labor disputes in Sweden.....	232
Creation of department of labor in Switzerland.....	232
Immigration:	
Restriction of immigration to Canada.....	233
Publications relating to labor:	
Official—United States.....	234-237
Official—foreign countries.....	237-241
Unofficial.....	241-248

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW

VOL. XII—NO. 1

WASHINGTON

JANUARY, 1921

Immigrant Farm Colonies in Southern New Jersey.

By SAMUEL JACOB.

TO INCREASE the number of farmers and further their welfare is a first step toward solving labor, building, and other economic problems. Questions as to high rents, slum quarters, tuberculosis and sanitation, physical deterioration, criminal environments, and tendency of aliens to remain such where they huddle together in big cities will be simplified if an appreciable number, undesirable otherwise, can be induced to become self-reliant food producers. The local communities will be helped by each newcomer who shares tax burdens, patronizes business, and increases the value of lands by industry and thrift. The immigrant will find that as compared with city life country or village life makes for better health, especially for children; that larger and better homes are available; that when he can make a home garden and keep a cow, pigs, and poultry, food-stuffs which are really fresh may be had; that there is work to be had for other members of the family than the main breadwinner; that the children have more individual attention in the schools and mingle more with Americans; that there is a worth-while prestige and independence in being a landed proprietor; and that in getting away from the worst in city life to the open country he has an incentive to develop his natural virtues of friendliness, of love of children, of outdoor life and simple pleasures, and may achieve citizenship of the highest type.

The Government owes a lasting debt of gratitude to such immigrants as have not settled in the crowded cities but have gone to tilling the soil to help feed the multitudes. Their work has been much more extensive and important than the average man realizes. There are many Italian, Polish, Bohemian, Slovak, Hebrew, Magyar, and Portuguese farm settlements in the United States, to say nothing of the long-established and Americanized work of the Swedes, Danes, Norwegians, Swiss, and Germans. The report of the Senate Immigration Commission of 1909 specifies 105 colonies of the more recent immigrants in 19 States east of the Mississippi River. No one can look into the struggles, the defeats, and the triumphs of these humble pioneers without a deeper sympathy and admiration for our foreign-born farmers who are too often ignored, belittled, or ridiculed as "dagoes," "wops," or "hunkies."

The purpose of this article is (1) to place specific land opportunities before such alien or naturalized immigrants, now in cities, as have been trying to save enough to buy small plots of cheap ground on which to go to farming, or on which to move, get other employment, and utilize the help of their families in caring for home

gardens and perhaps a cow, poultry, or pigs; (2) to help peasants fresh from the war-torn farms of Europe; and (3) to influence the general public to speed up all kinds of agriculture in order that importation of foodstuffs may not be necessary, due to the disproportion of city dwellers to farmers.

In a certain case a State official and a county agricultural agent have consented to look after correspondence and refer those who want to see the character of the land to two local Italian farmers who have agreed to show the acreage in their neighborhoods and be frank in estimating values. This plan, with modifications, is workable in any farming region where State and county agricultural officers, cooperating with citizens to induce small farmers, immigrants, or others, to settle in their local community, will exercise a "big brother" attitude toward the newcomers, through representatives of their civic, religious, or trade bodies. Extending helping hands to immigrants who would like to be farmers if they knew how to go about it would supplement in an effective way the Americanization work among adults carried on by the public schools of 1,326 communities.

What Has Been Done in the Italian Settlements near Vineland, N. J.

INASMUCH as information intended to induce immigrants and others to go to farming is often so indefinite as to be confusing, an attempt has been made to localize a few successful colonies in such a way as to show those interested where and how to go about getting cheap plots of ground in the same neighborhood without fear that they will be misled by real estate agents. The Italian colonies near Vineland, N. J., have been chosen for the purpose for no special reason other than that they are fine examples of what can be achieved by immigrants with very little money, influence, or education. Unremitting toil, strict honesty, and great patience have accounted largely for the prosperity of the South Jersey Italians. These people have escaped the sordid cynicism common to the "little Italies" of the cities and have preserved much of the warm-hearted cheer and joy in simple outdoor life that distinguish their former homeland.

In speaking of the location of these colonies, the surrounding country within a radius of 6 or 7 miles of Vineland is meant, some of the land lying in Atlantic, Salem, and Gloucester counties, although the principal units referred to are Landis Township in Cumberland County and Buena Vista Township in Atlantic County.

The panic of 1873 may be considered to be the starting point of the Italian settlements near Vineland. In 1861 Charles K. Landis, as a business venture, gained control of 35,000 acres of wilderness in the immediate neighborhood of the present town. The first stake was driven in the center of the square-mile town site and roads and avenues were laid out, the principal ones 100 feet wide and 10 miles long, through the almost unbroken forest. Land was sold at \$20 to \$25 per acre under the stipulation that the owner build a house within a year on a site 75 feet from the road; that he plant a row of shade trees along the roadside, sow the space along the highway to grass, and clear at least $2\frac{1}{2}$ acres of land each year. Live stock was to be kept in, not fenced out. No speculators nor real-estate men were allowed to buy or operate on the tract and provision was made by

which there has never been a saloon in Vineland. Due to judicious advertising, settlers representing a population of 9,000 were reported to be on the tract in 1866.

During the fat years and period of high prices which followed the civil war, speculation was rife. In the consequent reaction many a farmer in the Vineland section was brought to ruin, his land eaten up by mortgages, and his property swept away.

In this time of distress one of the three Italians who had come with the other farmers suggested to Mr. Landis that the soil and climate of Vineland would appeal to his countrymen if its advantages could be placed before them and that the Italians would make desirable farmers. Mr. Landis acted at once, by obtaining the assistance of a New York Italian newspaper to advertise for immigrants to found an Italian colony near Vineland. Most of the patrons came from northern Italy by way of New York, where they congregated, swept streets, picked rags, or worked at whatever they could get to do. An old map of the town, made in 1877, shows 56 parcels of real estate in the hands of Italians. East Vineland, or "New Italy," as it is called, was founded in 1885, 4 miles east of Vineland, and the present population for miles around is purely Italian. It has two Italian Catholic churches, good public schools, but no town site, factories, or industries other than farming and fruit raising. It is an agricultural colony in every sense, and the well-kept, productive farms, decent farm buildings and houses, and pleasant vineyards, proclaim it successful.

Few of the settlers had any considerable sum of money and they bought the land in small tracts of from 10 to 60 acres, though usually about 20, uncleared, for \$20 or \$25 per acre, paying \$20, \$50, or \$100 down on a contract for a deed when paid for, interest at 6 per cent. The new owner usually erected a small frame cabin and began to clear the land. During the summer he worked by the day for neighbors; in the berry season the whole family hired out as berry pickers. Some of the settlers worked on a railroad or in the several mills, glass works, and factories, putting in every spare moment on their own land. A few chickens and a horse were the first live-stock purchased and nearly every man was able to make a living from his farm and poultry the second or third year and meet his payments by his outside day labor. Several paid for their first tracts in three years and at once began to buy more land. Many of the new farms were very sandy and some were swamps that had to be drained with mattock and spade and cleared foot by foot. Almost all of the first comers or their sons are now well-to-do citizens with fine farms, good buildings, houses and lots in town, and money in the banks or loan association. Since 1890 many have bought out previous owners, usually Americans, and settled on cleared land. All have passed through seasons of depressed agriculture that proved their ability to hold fast and, by persevering industry, weather financial crises, and outlast the thrips, the rot, and the blight to which many American farmers were forced to succumb. The historical facts in the foregoing have been gleaned from the report of the United States Senate Immigration Commission of 1909, and from interviews with citizens.

Vineland, in Cumberland County, N. J., the nearest incorporated place of any size to the colonies described, is 35 miles south by

southeast of Philadelphia, about 120 miles from New York City, and 28 miles from Atlantic City. It is a thrifty, well-laid-out town, which the 1920 census states has a population of 6,799, and which the enterprising citizens hope to increase to 16,834, making it a second-class city, by extending the borough limits to take in all of Landis Township, offering the farmers, for their consent, electric light and water mains along the principal roads and equitable variations in the rates of taxation for the several districts. Cumberland County has 61,348 population, but the number of Italians therein has not yet been reported. In 1910 there were 1,735 foreign-born Italians and 1,382 American-born Italians in the county, not all of them in farm families, for many were in business or in industrial pursuits in the good sized towns of Bridgeton (14,209), Millville (12,451), and Vineland (5,282), with a combined population of 31,942 of the 55,153 people in the county at that time. The combined population of the three towns in 1920 is 35,813, as against the rural population of 25,535 in the county.

Present Condition of Italian Farmers in Cumberland County.

The tables below, abstracted from the United States Census returns, show for 1910 and 1920 farm data for Cumberland County and for the Italian farmers of the county.

ACREAGE AND VALUE OF FARMS OF CUMBERLAND COUNTY, N. J., AND OF FARMS OPERATED BY ITALIAN FARMERS OF THAT COUNTY, 1910 AND 1920.

Item.	Farms of Cumberland County.			
	Total.		Operated by Italian-born farmers. ¹	
	1910	1920	1910	1920
Number of farms operated by:				
Owners.....	2, 142	2, 481	236	321
Managers.....	62	64	2
Tenants.....	520	549	23	21
Total.....	2, 724	3, 094	261	342
Land in farms.....acres..	158, 553	141, 714	9, 091
Improved land.....do..	96, 829	90, 676	6, 614
Value of farm property:				
Land and buildings.....	\$9, 613, 815	\$17, 523, 635	\$1, 500, 145
Implements and machinery.....	622, 521	1, 706, 623	103, 825
Live stock.....	1, 207, 260	2, 423, 846	122, 058
Total.....	11, 443, 596	21, 654, 104	1, 726, 028

¹ Census officials enumerated farms according to the birthplace of their owners; consequently there is no way to segregate the farms owned or rented by American-born Italians. The Vineland Chamber of Commerce estimates the number of such farms in Cumberland County at 120 and their value at \$500,000.

STOCK AND POULTRY ON FARMS OF CUMBERLAND COUNTY, N. J., AND ON FARMS OF ITALIAN FARMERS OF THAT COUNTY IN 1920.

Kind of stock.	Number of animals and poultry of each kind on farms of—	
	Cumberland County. ¹	Italian-born farmers. ¹
Farms reporting domestic animals. Stock and poultry reported:	2,425	301
Horses.....	4,919	340
Mules.....	486	25
Cattle.....	8,569	292
Dairy cows.....	5,846	240
Sheep.....	183
Swine.....	6,480	456
Goats.....	53	16
Chickens.....	280,598	12,257
Turkeys.....	251	5
Ducks.....	1,530	31
Geese.....	273
Guineas.....	2,072	2
Pigeons.....	7,616	229
Hives of bees.....	181
Eggs produced.....dozens..	1,476,887	46,666

¹See footnote to preceding table.

From the tables above it is seen that there were on January 1, 1920, in Cumberland County 321 farm owners and 21 farm tenants, who were born in Italy, and that they own farm property worth \$1,726,028. It is estimated by the Vineland Chamber of Commerce that there are 120 farms in Cumberland County owned or rented by American-born Italian descendants for which by reason of the make-up of the census schedules statistics could not be segregated from the schedules for farms owned by all classes of persons born in the United States. The value of these farms is conservatively placed at \$500,000, and may with propriety be counted as a part of the Italian colony statistics when added to the census figures. It may therefore be said that the value of farm property owned by Italians and Italian descendants in Cumberland County is approximately \$2,226,028. In the report to the United States Treasury on November 15, 1920, the combined deposits of the three banks in Vineland amounted to \$4,875,362.71, of which the part owned by Italians is placed by the Chamber of Commerce at 30 per cent, or \$1,462,608.81. These figures, however, include deposits from Italians over the line in Atlantic County and of course are exclusive of deposits by Italians banking at Bridgeton and Millville. As indicative of the intangible property held by Italians they are interesting, but not very useful for comparative purposes. It is estimated that 50 Italians in Landis Township paid income taxes last year. In connection with property owned and wealth added to that of southern New Jersey by Italian settlers it should be borne in mind that statistics have been obtained for but one county, that of Cumberland.

The size of crops of each specified kind raised on farms of Cumberland County and of the Italian farmers therein in 1919 are shown below:

CROPS OF EACH SPECIFIED KIND HARVESTED IN 1919 ON FARMS OF CUMBERLAND COUNTY, N. J., AND ON FARMS OF ITALIAN FARMERS.

Kind of crop.	Crops of each specified kind raised on farms of—	
	Cumber-land County.	Italian-born farmers. ¹
	Quantity.	
Corn.....bushels..	693, 095	24, 785
Wheat.....do.....	85, 076	278
Oats.....do.....	13, 358	170
Rye.....do.....	8, 321	20
Hay and forage.....tons..	52, 719	550
Potatoes.....bushels..	605, 009	14, 348
Sweet potatoes.....do....	246, 033	100, 156
Apples.....do.....	83, 062	633
Peaches.....do.....	98, 025	10, 300
Pears.....do.....	35, 762	1, 356
Plums.....do.....	399	3
Cherries.....do.....	998	15
Nuts.....pounds.....	969
Grapes.....do.....	520, 616	241, 483
Strawberries.....quarts..	1, 832, 295	293, 773
Blackberries and dewberries.....do....	227, 937	152, 509
Raspberries.....do.....	3, 582	1, 400
Loganberries.....do.....	4, 000	4, 000
Cranberries.....do.....	87, 097	5, 100
	Value.	
Green peppers.....	\$291, 651	\$64, 216
Green beans.....	138, 410	17, 583
Onions.....	491, 071	13, 772
Lettuce.....	393, 969	13, 740
Green peas.....	59, 868	12, 793
Tomatoes.....	456, 698	9, 984
Cucumbers.....	39, 530	5, 380

¹See footnote to table on p. 4.

The more prosperous of the Italian farmers are ambitious to own labor-saving machinery and it is estimated that they have 15 plow tractors and 200 motor trucks, mostly of the 1-ton capacity, in use in Cumberland County. In the past year there were shipped into Vineland about 50 cars of commercial fertilizer, composed of nitrates from South America, sheep manure from the Dakotas, tankage from Omaha, Kansas City, and Chicago, fish guano, and hydrated lime. About 120 cars of stable manure were also hauled to the farms. It is said that the Italians set the pace for the native farmers in buying fertilizers but do not always use them as intelligently as could be desired.

Taxes Paid by Italians.

Some figures are given below indicative of the part Italians take in helping to pay public expenses by improving uncleared lands in East Vineland district, the valuations for which are considered low. The data were supplied by Mr. G. E. Smith, tax collector for Landis township, who estimates that there are about as many more Italian

taxpayers in other parts of the township. It is impracticable at this time to segregate the total taxation paid by Italians in the township or in the county.

LANDIS TOWNSHIP.

Poll tax assessed, entire township.....	1, 881
Valuation on which county, State, and State school taxes are apportioned.....	\$3, 414, 563. 00
Total tax rate for the year 1920 per \$100 of valuation.....	3. 98
Apportionment of taxes as follows:	
State road.....	3, 414. 56
State school.....	8, 772. 11
County.....	21, 561. 56
Local school.....	71, 406. 01
Local township.....	28, 544. 24

East Vineland district, in Landis Township.

Poll tax, district exclusively Italian.....	184
Valuation of improvements.....	\$64, 250. 00
Valuation of land without improvements.....	126, 600. 00

Total valuation of real estate.....	\$190, 850. 00
Amount of tax paid on land valuation.....	\$5, 038. 68
Amount of tax paid on improvement valuation.....	2, 557. 15

Total tax paid on real estate..... 7, 595. 83

The amounts paid on specified items may be obtained by multiplying the valuations by the rate as follows:

State road.....	\$0. 10
State school.....	. 2569
County.....	. 6315
Local school.....	2. 139
Local township.....	. 8495

Total rate..... 3. 9769

The valuation of real estate in Landis Township is \$3,011,725; the personal property is valued at \$531,900, and personal property of public utilities is valued at \$55,200. Exemptions allowed bring the total value of taxable property to \$3,414,563.

Italian Settlement at Hammonton, N. J.¹

At this time the Italian development is some 4 or 5 miles away from the borough of Vineland as a center. There are well-established settlements at East Vineland or "New Italy" and over the county line in Atlantic County at Minatola and Landisville.

There are also flourishing Italian settlements in the neighborhood of Hammonton and cheap lands to be had near by. Hammonton, according to the 1920 census, has a population of 6,417 and has been built up largely as a result of the agricultural prosperity of Italians. These came from Sicily and are of the class looked upon by many Americans as undesirables. They have lived down aspersions and by industry, thrift, and unassuming stability of character have gained a poise and a business standing in striking contrast with the less independent city Italians. Berries, small fruits, and grapes are their specialties, though some sweet potatoes are marketed. Each settler has a small garden from which he raises a sur-

¹ An interesting study of the Sicilian settlers at Hammonton, by Emily Fogg Meade, was published in Bulletin of the Bureau of Labor, No. 70, May, 1907.

prising amount and variety of vegetables, enough for the greater share of the family's food supply the year round. Of the 5,088 population in 1910, 1,548 are classed as foreign-born whites and 1,869 as native whites of foreign or mixed parentage; probably 3,500 of the residents may be considered to be Italians or of Italian descent. Agricultural statistics of 1920 for Hammonton and Atlantic County are not available at present.

Italian Characteristics.

The Italians do not want to be patronized. All they want is a chance to work their way. An illustrative incident is told by a member of a country school parent-teachers' association. When some necessary funds were to be raised it was suggested that the Italian women be not asked to contribute, but one of them standing by at once insisted: "We don't want anything we can't pay for." Again, a farmer who had some fine pears brought a bushel of them to his American neighbor as a present, but let it be known that he could make use of some old newspapers as wrappers if the neighbor cared to give them to him.

They will not buy things they can not pay for, and while their purchases may not be large, tradesmen welcome their patronage, knowing that cash payment will be forthcoming. The banks report that Italians are uniformly prompt in meeting their obligations and are very desirable customers.

The homes of many of the Italian farmers are bare of ornaments and are not tidy, but there is generally a marked improvement when the owners become more prosperous. The women are said to be poor cooks but are even more industrious than the men in field work. Some homes are not much better than city tenements. In certain four-room houses two rooms are taken up for storage and sweating-out of sweet potatoes while the family lives in one room and the kitchen. Except in winter, however, few hours other than those spent in sleep are passed indoors, and the tendency is always toward better living conditions. The health of the families is generally good and physicians report the children to be heavier and more robust than Italian children of the city tenement districts where there is often a lack of proper food, clothing, and fresh air. There is said to be little tuberculosis, but an epidemic like the "flu" takes a fearful toll.

Italian farmers seldom figure in the court records for offenses against the law, and their calls upon the poor fund of the county are relatively small.

A prosperous Italian business man who came to Vineland 35 years ago and who is, by reason of connection with a steamship company, in a position to know, states that when they have gained a competence, there is practically no desire on the part of the settlers to return to Italy to stay. Quite a number have gone back for visits. He and his family have toured Europe, but had no wish to live there. He says many young Europeans prepare to meet the literacy test of the immigration law long before they accumulate means enough to make the trip. The person referred to stated that he had been a shoemaker in Naples before landing in New York, and at the sug-

gestion of a relative had come to Vineland in 1886 to accept work in a shoe factory. Mr. Landis often consulted him about Italians in New York who might make desirable farmers, and together they had been instrumental in getting some settlers to come who have since raised children, and have become well-to-do citizens.

One Italian resident who owns a good home and has a substantial bank account was an organ grinder in the streets of New York in his earlier days. He bought a small tract of land at Vineland and undertook the work of clearing it of brush. Before getting it paid for he renewed his organ grinding in New York more than once and then settled down to farming in earnest. He has two daughters who have been graduated from the high school, have gone to other schools, and are teachers by profession. They are as refined and cultured women as one would meet in any city home.

Some of the former occupations given by early settlers were "carpenter," "newsboy and bootblack," "proprietor of shoe-shining parlor," "hod carrier," "dockyard laborer," "teamster," and "laborer on railroad construction." Many of the late comers have been miners.

Five brothers, business men in Vineland, represent an interesting type of the second generation of Italians. The father came to Vineland in 1874 from Genoa. He bought a farm, to which later accessions were made, and after his death, in 1909, 25 more acres were bought, so that 140 acres are now cultivated by his five sons as a partnership firm. The past season 28 acres were in sweet potatoes, 26 acres were in white potatoes, 25 acres in peach trees, and the remainder in pear and apple trees, grapevines, and vegetables. One brother, as senior partner, presides over the general business; one manages motor-truck routes to Philadelphia and Atlantic City; another conducts a store distributing farm implements, a harness-repair shop, and a horse sales exchange, and provides motorized equipment for weddings and funerals; another operates an up-to-date blacksmith and wheelwright shop with facilities for building motor bodies of any size; the youngest is not yet in charge of a department but shares in the wide interests of the firm, including ownership of various business and residence properties in the town.

Opportunities for Employment.

There is ample employment for farm hands, and farmers have complained of not being able to get help, even when meeting the prices paid by the industrial plants, although there has been a distinct increase of late in applications for farm work. Farm labor is paid about \$45 a month when board and lodging are furnished.

The Seabrook Farms Co. and the Waldeck Farms (Inc.) are pioneering, as corporation-managed farms, in a field that promises much for the increasing city populations who have had reason to worry over where their future food supplies are to come from. The Seabrook Farms, near Bridgeton, are the realization of the boyhood dreams of Charles F. Seabrook, son of a market gardener, trained in practical truck growing for "quantity production." The company was incorporated in 1912 and has constantly developed its plan of a "factoryized" farm. Its outstanding ideas are overhead irrigation, heavy manuring, and production of vegetables under glass in

winter, to keep the force busy the year round. The farms produced and sold over \$500,000 worth of crops in 1919 from 1,000 acres of improved land, 200 acres of which are under irrigation. There were planted this year 1,500 acres in fruit trees, so that when they get to bearing the present force of 300 employees will have to be increased. This is of interest in a way to those having to do with immigration problems for the reason that 15 families of Poles and Russian refugees fresh from Ellis Island were employed the past season. These people, numbering about 60, are living in houses equipped with electric lighting, running water, etc., and the manager states that he can supply housing accommodations and labor for 100 more of the same kind of people. Hospital and school accommodations are good, each cottage has its home garden plot, and an ideal community center is maintained in the farm village. One feature is life insurance in amounts based on length of service, payable to the beneficiary of each employee without expense to the latter. Wages are paid in competition with the factories in Bridgeton, 4 miles away, unskilled labor receiving \$3 a day and extras.

The Waldeck Farms (Inc.), Milmay post office, controls 17,000 acres of land extending from New Italy south and east and gives employment to 40 men the year round clearing brush land, and perhaps 150 in the planting season. For clearing work \$4 a day is paid. The company's tests in growing licorice root have not yet been successful, but it is now experimenting with tobacco and other produce in large quantities.

Minch Bros. at Bridgeton also employ a number of farm hands at wages in competition with the factories.

Some farmers work in the winter season for the three glass factories in Vineland, each factory employing from 10 to 20 outside men; others take section work on the railroads. Common labor is paid \$19 to \$20 a week. The sand and gravel pits give steady work at from \$5 to \$6 a day. A cannery at Landisville employs about 60 people the year round and two other canneries operate in the berry and fruit season.

Markets and Prices Received for Crops.

For the season of 1920 the Central Railroad of New Jersey shipped 956 cars (not always full) of farm produce from the central depot and approximately 1,900 cars from Main Avenue and Wheat Road stations and Landisville; in all, about 2,856 cars from the Vineland tract. Included in these shipments were approximately 14,162 crates of strawberries, 10,000 crates of blackberries, and 106,000 crates of peaches. The relatively light shipments of berries are due to the large purchases made by the canneries of the neighborhood. Probably 50,000 half-bushel baskets of peaches were also taken to Atlantic City by farmers in trucks or were carried in trucks sent out from that city direct to the orchards. City trucks also collect other vegetables and make a market for farmers at their doorways.

Farm products are sold through the Vineland Poultry Association, the Peach Growers' Association, and general associations in East Vineland and West Vineland, but probably most of the shipping is done through New York and Philadelphia buyers who come for an open market. Prices received in 1920 were not so high as in 1919.

Freight, cartage, and commission charges of 10 per cent are to be deducted from the prices quoted below.

Sweet potatoes brought from \$1.25 to \$2.75 per bushel at the station in 1920, and ranged from \$2 to \$4 per bushel in 1919. "Sweets" can be stored from September to May or June and even August, when they may sell for from \$5 to \$6 a bushel.

White potatoes, by reason of oversupply, brought approximately \$3.50 a barrel (3 bushels) at the station as against \$9 a barrel at times in 1919. During a few months in 1919 one dealer went about from farm to farm and gathered 21 carloads of white potatoes at \$3.20 a bushel and shipped them to Atlantic City.

Peaches sent by motor truck to Atlantic City sold at from \$1.50 to \$2 a basket ($\frac{1}{2}$ bushel) as against \$1.90 to \$2.40 in 1919.

Strawberries, an important cash crop, brought \$4 a crate (32 quarts) this year and about the same in 1919. Many women and children gather strawberries at 2 cents a quart. There has probably been an increase in recent planting of strawberries, but they are not considered a profitable crop unless put on the market earlier or later than berries from other sections.

Peppers ranged from \$4 down to 50 cents for a bushel hamper, which were about the same prices received in 1919. The first peppers on the market bring the high prices.

Cucumbers for pickles brought from 80 cents to \$4 a barrel.

Lettuce is an important crop the year round and brings from 75 cents to \$4 a crate (2 dozen heads) without much variation in price from 1919. Much of the fall and winter crop is grown in cold frames.

By reason of the sugar shortage in 1919 the market was poor for cranberries, but brisk demands in 1920 are expected at \$3 per bushel.

Kiefer pears brought 50 cents a basket at the canneries as against \$1 to \$1.50 a basket in 1919. The demand was so light that hundreds of bushels were not gathered but were left to rot on the ground.

There was an oversupply of tomatoes in 1920, and they sold from 50 cents down to 20 cents a basket. In bulk at the canneries tomatoes sold in 1919 at \$20 a ton.

Grapes are used almost exclusively for home consumption.

Labor Conditions.

The average truck farm of from 15 to 20 acres, with a house costing \$1,500 and a barn costing \$800, can probably be bought for \$6,000. Hired labor is paid from \$3.50 to \$4 for a 9-hour day. Women and children get less. Trading in labor is common—that is, one farmer and his help will work for another farmer on some special crop in exchange for an equivalent labor return on a crop for the first man. The man often works at outside occupations while the wife and children run the farm. After a section hand has worked eight hours on the railroad he may put in three or four hours on his crops daily, possibly be allowed two weeks off by the railroad company in the busy season, and with his labor, supplemented by that of his wife and family, will manage to grow a very fair crop of vegetables.

A prosperous Italian farmer, who has been a member of the local board of education for many years, is a member of the executive com-

mittee of the Atlantic County Farm Bureau, and has been actively in favor of all county improvements, stated that he felt it to be his duty to have the interest of the community at heart, and that he would do all he reasonably could to help others get a start at farming. He said they would have plenty of very hard work grubbing and digging stumps and brush, and must not expect to accomplish too much the first year. It will be the man's own fault, however, if he does not succeed, for he can get plenty of work in the neighborhood at 40 cents an hour for a 10-hour day, and he can clean up his own land for an hour or two a day after his other work is over and put in full days at it in the winter. When he was grubbing his own land, \$4 a day would have been fabulous, and he was glad to get \$1 and \$1.25. He had personally helped a number of his hired hands to get started by selling them on contract small plots of brush land for exactly what he had paid for it, charging no interest, but having an understanding that if it was not paid for in five years no deed would pass. He gave them berry plants and peach sprouts and tried to be helpful in other ways. All of them made good with their payments. The transportation problem had been solved for him by truckers coming to his doorway to buy his peaches and potatoes.

Another farmer was solicitous that newcomers should not make the mistake of locating too far from a shipping point, as he had done at first, although that difficulty is now partly overcome by the use of motor trucks. He had changed his first location and had prospered. He also had helped a number of Italians to get established on the land.

Comparison of Advantages of City and Farm Life.

A good many young Italians have been attracted from the farms by the high wages, the short hours, and the care-free life offered them in town or city industries, but most of them have plans to go back to the land if hard times come. One man, asked as to his idea of a preventive of the boys and girls leaving the farms, said the only cure is to give them a money interest in their work and such home attractions and sociable times with neighbors as will make them want to stay where they are. Relatively more American boys leave the farms for town life than Italian young men. One of the latter, a glass-worker, said he could not possibly do so well on the farm as he could where he was, at his present wages. Another Italian, middle aged, stated that he had made good wages in the city as a barber and had also had employment as an automobile mechanic, but that he had made a mistake in not sticking to the farm where he was raised. He had drawn big wages, but was compelled to spend them. His boyhood companions who had remained on the land, who had never handled half the ready money he had, were now independent land-owners with comfortable bank accounts and in much better condition to care for their families than he was to provide for his. He expressed the opinion that there are many Italians in construction gangs, in quarries, and in mines who are tired of what he termed "wage slavery," and would like to get possession of little farms of their own, however much hard work is required to dig a living from them. This is corroborative of statements by other Italian and native citizens that of the 40 to 50 Italian farm families that came into the neighborhood the past year, many of the men were miners from Pennsyl-

vania. They were attracted by the belief that their families would be more healthful on farms; that they would be nearer Italian relatives and friends; and that they would be more independent of employers. Most of them originally came to visit friends, and later decided to go to farming. They bought mostly improved lands from other Italians or native Americans, who for one reason or another wished to sell their holdings.

These two Italians are typical of tens of thousands of young men and young women who have deserted the farms for city life. Some fail. Some return, as did the barber referred to, and confess that they are sadder but wiser than when they left. Others make good in the cities, and it is to them that the call comes to use their influence in boards of trade, in church and civic societies, with captains of industry, and with the public generally to take a personal interest in locating immigrants on virgin soils or on the farms deserted or half manned by Americans. Help must also be extended to the present farmers in solving their financial and marketing problems, or the cities will pay dearly for their neglect. Life on the farms can be made so attractive and so profitable that the young people will be glad to stay there. The back-to-the-land movement that magazines and economists have been urging so many years gets nowhere, for very few urbanites are willing to go and the ones who do go are largely unfitted for the task. The "factoryized" farm, referred to elsewhere, is a most hopeful augury of coming days; corporations might also copy department-store and chain-store ideas, by putting the buying and marketing ends of farming in the hands of experts trained for the purpose and allowing men to run their own farms as though they were stores, after agreeing to pay so much per hour for labor and so much commission on sales over the other costs for fertilizers, seeds, and machinery used, and a fair interest return on the capital invested, represented by the appraised value of land and personal property counted as stock in the corporation. Agricultural colleges can also largely increase their good work, but when all is said and done the country need not expect tranquillity until the individual "dirt" farmers are more prosperous than they are now. Some such national rural credits system as that of Denmark would be helpful.

Factors of Citizenship.

The superintendent of the Landis Township schools reports a total enrollment of 3,335 pupils of school age, of which number 1,187 are of Italian parentage. The attendance is as follows: Central, 151; borough, west, 158; borough, east, 450; and township schools, 428. From a class of 52 graduating in 1920, 6 were Italians, and there are 6 of that nationality in the present senior class. Italian graduates of the high school have frequently gone on to college. The Italian children are bright, ambitious, and punctual in attendance, except in the planting season, when the parents insist that they must use all the help that they can get. As a concession, four hours is considered a school day at that time of the year.

The Italians of Landis Township have done their share in paying taxes for the good roads, schools, and other State institutions, and in supporting the churches and various civic activities in the community. They invested in Liberty bonds to the extent of \$285,900 out

of the total of \$1,906,000 for the town, and gave an estimated amount of \$14,835.90 to the Red Cross, the Y. M. C. A., the Knights of Columbus, and for other patriotic causes through the War Chest, organized in May, 1918, and operated until July 19, 1919. The total collections for the township War Chest were \$44,507.70. There were no draft evaders among their young men, and the first Vinelander to be killed in battle was an Italian. Six Italians from the township in the service were killed or died from disease. Of the 736 soldiers registered from Landis Township 149 were Italians. Of the number, less than 20 were unable to read and write English, and of the others a number were high-school graduates. Perhaps 40 per cent of the 149 were born in the United States. Two local Italians who for physical reasons were rejected for service with the American Army managed to get across the sea and into the Italian Army and carried guns against Germany. In one of the Liberty loan speaking campaigns an old Italian made his way through the crowd to the desk and handed over a red bandanna handkerchief wrapped around \$100 and said, "Want no bond; want to give it." He disappeared before his name could be ascertained and is unknown to this day.

It is difficult to state accurately how many of the 342 foreign-born Italian farm owners and tenants in Cumberland County have become citizens since coming to the United States. The records of the Bureau of Naturalization show that from September 27, 1906, the date the present naturalization law became effective, up to October 1, 1920, there had been filed in the Court of Common Pleas for Cumberland County at Bridgeton, N. J., for all nationalities 748 declarations of intention and 390 petitions for naturalization, from which there were granted 397 certificates of citizenship. The 397 certificates referred to were granted to soldiers in the American Army and to petitioners and include all nationalities applying. Segregation from the court records at Bridgeton of the number of certificates issued to Italians shows that they received 127 final papers. It seems probable therefore that a considerable number of Italian farmers are aliens.

Of the 2,348 foreign-born males of all nationalities of voting age enumerated in the county (including Bridgeton and Millville) in 1910, 1,081 were naturalized, 157 had first papers, 698 were aliens, and the citizenship status of 412 was unknown. Taking these figures with those elsewhere quoted as to illiteracy it would seem that Cumberland County citizens have a field for patriotic Americanization work among adult foreigners through their public schools. In this connection attention is called to the invitation by the Division of Citizenship Training, Bureau of Naturalization, Department of Labor, Washington, D. C., for such as are interested to write for assistance that will be freely given to help organize and sustain a very important work now in progress throughout the Nation. However, in view of the scattered locations of the foreign farmers and their tendency to work from daylight until dark, it will be something of a test of their earnestness whether they will sufficiently overcome the desire to rest their tired muscles to go perhaps long distances to a night school. Notwithstanding their handicaps they are an intelligent set of men, and the percentage of illiteracy is not so high among them as among the native Jersey men. They pick up a very considerable knowledge of English from their boys and girls in the public schools.

They are solicitous to have their children take advantage of the American school system, and are all the more so if illiterate themselves. Of the 16,670 males of voting age in Cumberland County in 1910, 911, or 5.5 per cent, could not read and write. Of the 911, 442 were American-born whites, 330 were foreign-born whites (by no means all Italians), and 139 were Negroes.

As the population records for the 1920 census are not yet available in detail, figures from the census of 1910 are used as illustrative of certain characteristics of the people of Cumberland County. In that year there were 27,844 males and 27,309 females; there were 16,670 males of voting age, of whom 12,113 were native whites of native parentage, 1,430 were native whites of foreign or mixed parentage, 2,348 were foreign-born whites, 775 were Negroes, and 4 were Indians, Chinese, or Japanese. Of persons 10 years old and over, 1,963 were illiterate; these included 849 native whites, 822 foreign-born whites, and 292 Negroes. Of persons 10 to 20 years of age, inclusive, 187 were illiterate. Relative to school age and attendance, the total number of persons within the ages of 6 to 20 years, inclusive, is given as 15,750, of whom 9,920 were attending school; of persons within the ages of 6 to 14 years, inclusive, there were 9,295 enumerated, of whom 8,191 were attending school. Of the latter number, 5,879 were native whites of native parentage, 1,605 were native whites of foreign or mixed parentage, 297 were foreign-born whites, and 410 were Negroes. The dwellings enumerated were 12,786, accommodating 13,189 families.

At the recent general election the Italian women in Vineland borough entitled to suffrage cast relatively as many ballots as the Italian men and were thoroughly interested in the election. A full vote was out and the Italians cast about 500 ballots in the total of 1,936. In the first precinct of Landis Township, a country precinct, out of a total of 1,128 enrolled, only 590 men and women voted.

Opportunities for Prospective Farmers.

Farm Land in Vicinity of Vineland.

THERE is ample room and there are exceptional opportunities around Landisville, Buena, Richland, and south of Milmay, along the Philadelphia & Reading Railroad, for Italian immigrants who have just arrived at Ellis Island or for those who have been here longer and are willing to work 15 or 20 acre plots of ground in the same way that led to the success of the many Italian settlers in Cumberland and Atlantic counties. This conclusion is concurred in by L. G. Gillam, of the State department of conservation and development, Trenton, N. J., who spent two days with the writer prospecting the land and interviewing representative Italian and American property owners in the neighborhood as well as at "New Italy," or East Vineland, Landisville, and elsewhere, in trips covering 60 miles. The land referred to is in brush and in an undeveloped state, but some of it is as good for agricultural purposes if cleared as was that about Vineland borough originally.

Arrangements have been made by which the Land Registry, Department of Conservation and Development, Trenton, N. J., acting through Mr. Gillam, will attend to correspondence, and refer prospective

Italian settlers to John Casazza, East Vineland (Vineland P. O.), N. J., and Felix Donato, Landisville, N. J. These men generously agreed to donate their time to go with newcomers over the lands in their neighborhoods and give the facts as to property values. Mr. Casazza and Mr. Donato are not land agents, but are well-to-do farmers, who have been helpful to many of their countrymen in past years and are dependable citizens. In case inquiries are made as to lands not near the homes of the gentlemen named, the services of Albert E. Wilkinson, Mays Landing, N. J., county agricultural agent for Atlantic County, will be called on, he having offered to give such assistance as may be practicable. If Italians desire to write in their own language, it is suggested that they address their letters to Mr. Casazza or Mr. Donato, inclosing stamps for replies.

It is recommended that inexperienced men hire out as farm hands for such time as will demonstrate whether or not it is best for them to buy land. Employment can be readily found. There have been cases of disillusionment near the borough of Vineland, where native Americans have paid to agents boom prices for land not justified by its earning power. It is believed, however, that an average of \$20 per acre is reasonable for small tracts of uncleared land from properties herein described. No one need think he will have an easy road to wealth; the opportunities, however, are as good as ever for those who will work as hard as did the present Italian proprietors.

Inquiries will receive prompt attention if addressed to "The Land Registry, Department of Conservation and Development, Trenton, N. J.," regarding tracts of land described below. As there are wide variations in soil values, possible purchasers should protect themselves by seeing the land in person.

1. Lying along the main highway between Buena and Richland and within 1 mile of the railroad, 1,500 acres of good land, uncleared, with sufficient elevation for farming purposes. In the fall of 1920 owner was willing to sell in 10 and 15 acre plots for an average of \$20 an acre.

2. Between Buena and Richland along State road and parallel with railroad, 272 acres. Land has on it a new 5-room house and a new 4-room bungalow, with probably an acre of cleared ground around each house. The land is in brush and was offered in 1920 at an average price of \$50 per acre. It is about 2 miles from Landisville, and the soil is the best of its kind for sweet potatoes, peppers, etc.

3. In the Richland neighborhood part of a large estate could be purchased in 1920 at \$20 per acre.

4. Near Richland, from 300 to 400 acres, in tracts to suit, at about \$20 an acre in 1920.

5. Near Richland, two estates, one of 700 acres and the other of 600 acres, managed by an executor who asked in 1920 about \$7 an acre if bought as a whole; would probably sell in small tracts.

6. Four miles south of Elmer Post Office, 52 acres of partly improved land with a building that can be converted into a 6-room house at an expenditure of \$200, the whole offered in 1920 for \$1,800, or would sell in tracts of 10 acres or more; plenty of day labor in the neighborhood; initial payment may be small, and time in which to complete the contract for deed at the option of the buyer.

7. On main highway from Mays Landing to Richland, 500 acres of brush and wood land; top soil sandy with a gravelly subsoil. Entire tract could be bought in 1920 for approximately \$8 an acre.

8. On the Philadelphia & Reading Railroad, south of Risley Station, 800 acres of brush land; light sandy to sandy loam nature with a gravelly subsoil; price in 1920 about \$10 an acre.

Farms In New Jersey At Large.

The following excerpts are from *New Jersey for Progressive Farmers*, a booklet printed in 1920 by the Department of Conservation and Development, Trenton, N. J.:

Though many of our farms are yielding high returns, there are now available for immediate and future development a million acres of land quite as good as most of that now in profitable culture. Three hundred and fifty thousand acres of the best grain and fruit land occupy the valleys and hillsides of Hunterdon, Morris, Passaic, Somerset, Sussex, and Warren Counties. Six hundred and fifty thousand acres lie in the southern half of the State, where the soil is light and easily worked and the growing season long.

Some land in south Jersey is of little value for agricultural purposes and should remain in forest, but the impression that it all is sterile is altogether wrong.

New Jersey can offer no public land, but much of that which is available can be purchased for less than the assessments on so-called "free lands" in other States. Uncleared land can be secured for from \$5 to \$20 an acre; cleared land without buildings for \$20 an acre; run-down farms with buildings for as little as \$50 an acre, while farms in good condition can often be obtained for from \$60 to \$100 an acre, depending upon location and other conditions. From these low figures prices range upward, yet with many opportunities to acquire good farms upon better terms than those that rule in other States. There are also opportunities to rent.

New Jersey's repute has suffered not a little through the ill-advised—sometimes conscienceless—efforts of boomers, who, with no knowledge of the diversity of our soils and with no knowledge of or interest in the requirements for successful farming, have advertised tracts of land for farming enterprises, especially fruit and poultry raising, in a way that has brought disappointment to many. The State and its official agencies stand for none of these efforts. There is no bonanza to be found here and no effort is made to attract farmers or families who hope to find an easy living on the land. Our appeal is made to those who seek opportunity to practice and to develop their skill as farmers under agreeable living conditions and where success may be assured through honest work intelligently directed.

The land registry of the department is maintained to advise prospective settlers regarding suitable locations. It gives, without charge, definite and trustworthy information about farming opportunities and conditions and assists in securing farms adapted to the inquirer's needs, experience, and financial ability. It is in touch with available properties in every part of the State, ranging from uncleared land and run-down farms to highly developed farms of all sizes and types. Correspondence is invited.

National and State Sources of Information.

FOR the benefit of students in Americanization schools and immigrants generally who would like to learn of land opportunities in other States than New Jersey, it may be said that there is perhaps not a State in the Union where agricultural officers will not be glad to answer inquiries addressed to them. A number of the States issue bulletins descriptive of farms for sale or rent. As an instance, the New York department of farms and markets printed in 1920 an illustrated booklet of 425 pages, giving the location, description of buildings and soil, nearness to railroads, price, etc., for over 4,000 such farms. The commissioner of agriculture, Albany, N. Y., states that he is desirous of getting in touch with those seeking to be informed as to New York farms and will be pleased to give assistance and advice. The same helpful spirit will be found among the Federal officials in Washington.

The United States Department of Agriculture will answer free of charge practically any question as to drainage, irrigation, engineering, farm organization, cost of production, land settlement, farm life, or other farm problems, and while it does not undertake to quote prices at which given farm lands may be bought or recommend localities,

it will refer inquirers to reliable State or other officials who will answer them. Its administration of the Federal act in aid of States developing a good-roads program, its system of up-to-date market reporting, its trained workers who combat animal and vegetable diseases and study to improve the live-stock and plant industries, its Weather Bureau, its corps of experts on soil chemistry and those in the State experiment stations, and its many other activities are in constant service to the farm population.

The United States Treasury Department, through its Federal Farm Loan Bureau, will answer inquiries as to the workings of the latter. Under restrictions farmers may borrow up to half the purchase price of a farm at 5½ per cent interest and have 34½ years in which to pay off the mortgage, if the land bank appraisers decide that the price is a fair one.

The Post Office Department has been working for some years on a plan to link together the farm colonies and the city markets and for a time had an experimental parcel-post service to deliver goods at a special rate direct from the farmhouse to the city patron. This was discontinued July 1, 1920, for lack of appropriations. At present a similar service in 10 or 12 communities is given in the star-route service, where Government motors are provided but not at the special rate. Lists of farmers and their commodities were provided the consumers and the latter sent their orders by mail on terms of payment agreed on and promptly received their produce in safe and economical containers minus the complained-of profit to the middleman. In 1919 motor-transport routes to the number of 36 were designated in different parts of the country, and the scheme contemplated the building of 15,000 miles of post roads independent of State initiative. On some of the routes dairy and other farm products were delivered by motor trucks from outlying communities and distributed at cost to the local city housekeepers.

The Department of the Interior will answer inquiries as to public lands and surveys and the construction and operation of irrigation works in the arid States under the reclamation act. The department is in charge of the construction of the Government railway from the coast to the interior of Alaska which will open to settlement a vast domain of agricultural lands. The Commissioner of Education administers the endowment fund for the support of colleges for the benefit of agriculture and mechanic arts.

The Department of Labor through its Division of Information in the Bureau of Immigration, Washington, and its branch in the United States Barge Office, New York City, has as one of its statutory duties "to promote a beneficial distribution of aliens admitted into the United States among the several States and Territories desiring immigration," and publishes useful information as to the resources, products, and physical characteristics of each State and Territory.

All of the States have colleges or departments in State Universities devoted to agriculture, all of which cooperate with the United States Department of Agriculture, and offer special inducements to students interested in farming. Many provide special, short, or correspondence courses in the different branches of farm work. With a few exceptions free tuition is offered to residents of the State in which the college is located. In all of them opportunities are found for some

students to earn part of their expenses by their own labor. The expenses were formerly from \$125 to \$300 for the school year. Each State has also some department of its government especially fostering agriculture. Arranged alphabetically by States the post-office addresses of such educational institutions and the official titles of those in charge of State departments of agriculture are appended.

State Schools Teaching Agriculture.

- Alabama Polytechnic Institute, Auburn, Ala.
 College of Agriculture, University of Arizona, Tucson, Ariz.
 College of Agriculture, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, Ark.
 College of Agriculture, University of California, Berkeley, Calif.
 State Agricultural College of Colorado, Fort Collins, Colo.
 Connecticut Agricultural College, Storrs, Conn.
 Delaware College, Newark, Del.
 College of Agriculture, University of Florida, Gainesville, Fla.
 Georgia State College of Agriculture, Athens, Ga.
 The State House, Boise, Idaho.
 College of Agriculture, University of Illinois, Urbana, Ill.
 Purdue University, Lafayette, Ind.
 Iowa State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Ames, Iowa.
 Kansas State College, Manhattan, Kans.
 College of Agriculture, University of Kentucky, Lexington, Ky.
 Louisiana State University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, University Station, Baton Rouge, La.
 College of Agriculture, University of Maine, Orono, Me.
 Maryland State College of Agriculture, College Park, Md.
 Massachusetts Agricultural College, Amherst, Mass.
 Michigan Agricultural College, East Lansing, Mich.
 College of Agriculture, University of Minnesota, University Farm, St. Paul, Minn.
 Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College, Agricultural College, Miss.
 College of Agriculture, University of Missouri, Columbia, Mo.
 Montana State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, Bozeman, Mont.
 College of Agriculture, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebr.
 College of Agriculture, University of Nevada, Reno, Nev.
 New Hampshire College of Agriculture and the Mechanic Arts, Durham, N. H.
 College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State University of New Jersey, New Brunswick, N. J.
 New Mexico College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, State College, N. Mex.
 New York State College of Agriculture, Ithaca, N. Y.
 North Carolina State College of Agriculture and Engineering, Raleigh, N. C.
 North Dakota Agricultural College, Agricultural College, N. Dak.
 College of Agriculture, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.
 Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College, Stillwater, Okla.
 Oregon Agricultural College, Corvallis, Oreg.
 Pennsylvania State College, State College, Pa.
 Rhode Island State College, Kingston, R. I.
 Clemson Agricultural College of South Carolina, Clemson College, S. C.
 South Dakota State College, Brookings, S. Dak.
 College of Agriculture, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, Tenn.
 Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station, Tex.
 Agricultural College of Utah, Logan, Utah.
 University of Vermont and State Agricultural College, Burlington, Vt.
 Virginia Polytechnic Institute, Blacksburg, Va.
 State College of Washington, Pullman, Wash.
 College of Agriculture, West Virginia University, Morgantown, W. Va.
 College of Agriculture, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.
 College of Agriculture, University of Wyoming, Laramie, Wyo.

State Officials in Charge of Agriculture.

- Alabama: Commissioner of Agriculture, Montgomery.
 Arizona: Secretary of State, Phoenix.
 Arkansas: Commissioner of Bureau of Mines, Manufactures, and Agriculture, Little Rock.
 California: Secretary of California State Agricultural Society, Sacramento.
 Colorado: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Fort Collins.
 Connecticut: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Hartford.
 Delaware: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Dover.
 Florida: Commissioner of Agriculture, Tallahassee.
 Georgia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Atlanta.
 Hawaii: Secretary of Territorial Board of Agriculture, Honolulu.
 Idaho: Superintendent of Department of Farm Markets, Boise.
 Illinois: Director of Department of Agriculture, Springfield.
 Indiana: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Indianapolis.
 Iowa: Secretary of Department of Agriculture, Des Moines.
 Kansas: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Topeka.
 Kentucky: Commissioner of Agriculture, Frankfort.
 Louisiana: Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration, Baton Rouge.
 Maine: Commissioner of Agriculture, Augusta.
 Maryland: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Kensington.
 Massachusetts: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Boston.
 Michigan: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, East Lansing.
 Minnesota: Secretary of State, St. Paul.
 Mississippi: Commissioner of Agriculture and Commerce, Jackson.
 Missouri: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Jefferson City.
 Montana: Commissioner of Agriculture and Publicity, Helena.
 Nebraska: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Lincoln.
 Nevada: Secretary of State, Carson City.
 New Hampshire: Commissioner of Agriculture, Concord.
 New Jersey: Secretary of Department of Agriculture, Trenton.
 New Mexico: State Land Commissioner, Santa Fe.
 New York: Commissioner of Agriculture, Albany.
 North Carolina: Commissioner of Agriculture, Raleigh.
 North Dakota: Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor, Bismarck.
 Ohio: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Columbus.
 Oklahoma: Commissioner of Agriculture, Oklahoma City.
 Oregon: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Salem.
 Pennsylvania: Secretary of Department of Agriculture, Harrisburg.
 Philippine Islands: Director of Agriculture, Manila.
 Porto Rico: Commissioner of Agriculture and Labor, San Juan.
 Rhode Island: Secretary of State Board of Agriculture, Providence.
 South Carolina: Commissioner of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industries, Columbia.
 South Dakota: Commissioner of Immigration, Pierre.
 Tennessee: Commissioner of Agriculture, Nashville.
 Texas: Commissioner of Agriculture, Austin.
 Utah: Secretary of State, Salt Lake City.
 Vermont: Commissioner of Agriculture, St. Albans.
 Virginia: Commissioner of Agriculture and Immigration, Richmond.
 Washington: Commissioner of Agriculture, Olympia.
 West Virginia: Commissioner of Agriculture, Charleston.
 Wisconsin: Commissioner of Agriculture, Madison.
 Wyoming: Secretary of State, Cheyenne.

Conclusion.

THE census of 1920 shows the population of 48 States and the District of Columbia to be 105,708,771, of whom about 54,300,000 are in cities or towns of over 2,500 population and about 51,400,000 are on farms or in communities having less than 2,500 population. There are also 12,148,738² people living outside of the continent but under

² These figures are made up of the 1918 statistics for the Philippine Islands, 10,350,640; the 1917 statistics for the Virgin Islands, 26,051; and the 1920 statistics for Alaska, 54,899; Panama Canal Zone, 22,858; Guam, 13,275; Hawaii, 255,912; Porto Rico, 1,299,803; American Samoa, 8,056; and military and naval, etc., service abroad, 117,238.

the American flag. There are 13,736,505 more people in continental United States than there were in 1910 and 29,714,196 more than there were 10 years earlier, or an increase within the past 20 years of something less than 1,800,000 people of the number that were in the United States in 1860, at the beginning of the Civil War, when the population was 31,443,321.

The latest official figures from the Bureau of Immigration as to arrivals of aliens in the United States cover the seven months ending July 31, 1920, and show that 329,950 immigrants and 121,659 non-immigrants had arrived between January 1 and that date and that 149,668 emigrant and 75,247 nonemigrant aliens had departed in the same period. Complete figures for the months following July are not available, but for the port of New York alone are estimated as follows: August—arrivals 57,900, departures 37,000; September—arrivals 70,000, departures 23,500; October—arrivals 74,600; departures 25,500. Total estimated aliens admitted August 1 to November 1 number 285,900 and departures number 108,000. Official reports from central and southern Europe state that only lack of room on ships prevents an overwhelming flow of immigration to the United States of war sufferers, mostly headed for industrial centers already overcrowded. There are 311,000 applications for passports on file in the Polish foreign office alone. Galicians, Semites, Turks, Syrians, and Greeks make up the greater part of the arrivals at New York, but all nationalities are in the throng. The character of the incoming peoples is not that of the races that have made this country great. They and their children will have to be reckoned with. The undertaking to Americanize them is a very big one. No help, however small, should be ignored in pointing out to them and to urbanites who are willing to work with their hands, whether immigrants or not, a way to get possession in due time of a few acres of land.

It is believed that more can be accomplished by committees from local communities, giving sympathy and practical help in a small way to immigrants who would go to settlements already established, or would in small groups go to new territory, than is practicable by city societies attempting to found and maintain colonies in a more wholesale manner. Many peasants come from crowded villages and not from isolated farms; they naturally seek their own people, who can speak their language, and hence gravitate to where their friends or relatives are. If a few families get a start as farmers they will gradually attract others of their kind, and soon a settlement will be established of homogeneous people. The growth will be slow, but will be more apt to be free from disintegrating elements. Where more pretentious colonies are established and natural selection has not been allowed to have its place there are apt to be shirkers and jealousies that may wreck the enterprise.

The Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society of New York, supported from the Baron de Hirsch philanthropy, has exercised great intelligence and expended large sums of money in locating Russian Hebrews on the land. The society's contribution has been of great value to the public welfare, but it has failed in some of its communities because the men it sought to help had little aptitude for farming and wanted to make money in an easier way than by

muscular exertion. When thrown on their own resources many of them were not adapted to stand alone or be neighborly as farmers and soon sold out and went elsewhere. Rosenhayn, near Vineland, is an example, where the Hebrews have largely sold their properties to Italians, who are prospering where the Hebrews failed. Woodbine, N. J., is a community started as a Jewish farm colony under the best of auspices, but which is now a thriving manufacturing town, largely because the Hebrews could make more money in manufacturing than they could at farming. The Russian Hebrews, however, should not be considered to be failures as farmers because of the two instances cited; they have been successful at other places.

Immigrants are often timid and lack initiative, but it is largely ignorance of where to go to get farm work and the dire need of ready money that forces many peasants to take up work in construction gangs or whatever comes to hand. This is proved not only by what their leaders say, but by the way Italians in the mines of Pennsylvania gravitate toward farm colonies, as at Vineland, and city Italians give up better paying jobs to seek summer work on farms near cannery centers, as at Albion and Geneva, N. Y.

There are many farm-raised immigrants in the United States who want work; there is much idle land and there are many vacant farm-houses; it is largely a matter of local enterprise to bring them together. The America of to-morrow will be the better if it is done without delay.

A National Council for the Printing Trades.

By CHARLES R. WALKER, JR., OF THE BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH,
NEW YORK CITY.

THERE has been a strong tendency all over the world in the past three years and notably since the armistice to set up national industrial councils representative of both employers and working people. It has been especially strong in England and Germany, where well-organized employers' associations and trade-unions furnished the constituent bodies for the new industrial federation. Joint councils for employers and employees have also become popular in America as instruments for tackling the problem of industrial relations, but they have for the most part been confined to "shop committees" and plant councils, and to nonunionized workers. Three industries, however, have established the beginnings of industrial government on a national scale in the United States—printing, electrical, and clothing.

The stated objects of some of the British councils promised little short of a fundamental transformation of industry from its structure to the motives of its leaders. Indications are that the transformation has been indefinitely postponed, but despite this the councils have concrete achievements behind them. The American ones have acted with success upon such imperative issues as unemployment, standardization of shop practices, and wage scales over large areas, uniformity in working conditions, and the settlement of industrial disputes.

Both because the subjects with which they deal are of fundamental social interest and because the movement is a universal one it has seemed worth while to treat in some detail the history of the International Joint Conference Council of the Printing Trades, which is the oldest in America and the most active as a national council. But a special enterprise of the printers adds to the interest of the history. The high cost of living has emphasized for everyone the changing value of the dollar, and the consequent havoc brought to wages, salaries, and contracts. The printing industry is the only one that has attempted in any scientific and thoroughgoing fashion to equalize the real value of wages, both from place to place and from year to year, on anything like a national scale. They have done so by introducing into wage contracts a clause calling for periodic wage adjustments in accordance with the cost of living, and by attempting to equalize wages throughout competitive zones. The story of this pioneer activity is perhaps the most vital chapter in the council's history.

I propose to give (1) a general picture of the industry, its nature, the organizations in it, and their development, pointing out how they make a reasonable groundwork for the enterprise; (2) a history of the early meetings leading to the creation of the council; (3) the council's structure, its activities, and authority; (4) the council at work, telling the story of its principal achievements in the working out of a wage policy, the settlement of the 44-hour week controversy, the stand-

ardization of wage scales, and shop practices, the creation of an international arbitration agreement; (5) its proposed activities—district councils and standardization of contracts; (6) a word of evaluation, indicating if possible its permanent place in the industrial structure.

A rough picture of the industry, its craft lines, its commercial peculiarities, and its organized groups will exhibit the groundwork upon which the new council is building, and hence in a measure its hope of success.

Printers divide their trade into newspaper printing and book and job work. We are here concerned only with the unionized section of the book and job printers. Craft lines within the trade, at first indistinct, have emerged with the growth of mechanical improvements until they comprise compositors, pressmen, stereotypers and electrotypers, bookbinders, and photo-engravers. All of these crafts were at one time included in a single union, the International Typographical, founded at Cincinnati in 1852. The pressmen set up an organization of their own in 1882,¹ the photo-engravers in 1900, the bookbinders in 1892, the stereotypers and electrotypers in 1902. Each of these separate unions has now its own national body and subordinate locals.

Intercraft organizations have grown up, however, so there is still a considerable measure of solidarity among the "allied trades." For the city or district there are local allied printing trades councils embracing all crafts, and for a national body the councils send their representatives to the International Allied Printing Trades Council.²

The employers' associations (book and job) are the International Association of Employing Stereotypers and Electrotypers, the American Photo-engravers Association, the United Typothetae of America, and the Employing Printers of America. The latter is an open-shop organization and does not enter into this history. The United Typothetae was formed in 1887 and is the oldest association of master printers that has a continuous history down to the present time.

The development of labor relationships between these organized bodies of employers and unionists, culminating in the national council, has been a slow but continuous growth. In the first 30 years of its history the International Typographical Union had no direct relations of a friendly character with employers, but in 1885 an event occurred that broke the ground for national collective dealing. The International established a defense fund for the support of unions on strike and thus acquired an effective control over locals in need of strike money. From that date on the International officers acquired increasing control over the bargaining of local unions and began to deal directly with groups of employers.³

Trade-unions met the Typothetae in conference for the first time in 1898.⁴ The meeting resulted in an agreement for the peaceable adoption of the 9-hour day. Collective bargaining on a national

¹ Formally organized and recognized, 1889.

² This body is owner of the Allied Printing Trades union label.

³ The local councils enforce the rules established for their protection. They are also active in other trades' matters, such as assisting in the enactment of labor legislation, opposing hostile legislative measures, adjusting disputes between unions and employers and between the unions themselves.—The Industrial Education Survey of the City of New York, Report of the Committee Authorized by the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in 1918. Part I, p. 28.

⁴ The conference was between the pressmen, the Typographical Union, and the United Typothetae. It resulted in an agreement (signed at Syracuse, N. Y., Oct. 12, 1898) inaugurating the 9½-hour day on Nov. 21, 1898, and the 9-hour day, or 54-hour week, on Nov. 21, 1899.

scale was established in 1902, by an agreement entered into between the pressmen and the Typothetæ providing for arbitration of wage scales and shop practice. Another step was taken in 1917, when the Closed Shop Branch of the Typothetæ signed an "international arbitration agreement" with the International Typographical Union. The stereotypers and electrotypers likewise have an agreement with their employers.⁵ In addition to these national agreements a large number of "contracts" exist between local unions and the employers which in many instances are underwritten by the International Union.

Thus when the printers decided upon joint action between employers and trade-unionists, early in 1919, they had certain precedents for their action. They had also the actual instruments of organization on both sides for carrying out their purposes. The International Joint Conference Council, created April 21, 1919, is composed on the employers' side of representatives of the Closed Shop Branch of the United Typothetæ, and the International Association of Employing Stereotypers and Electrotypers, and on the employees' side of representatives of the four international unions—the compositors (typographical), pressmen, bookbinders, stereotypers and electrotypers. The photo-engravers are not members of the council.

Besides a favoring historical development there are certain characteristics of the industry itself that tend to make a national cooperative effort natural and its success probable. These are: (1) The prevailing number of small plant units into which the industry is divided. This condition creates a varying multitude of shop rules, shop conditions, and wage scales which it is to everyone's advantage to standardize through a national body. (2) The industry is composed largely of American workmen and is therefore racially homogeneous and organizable; (3) the printers' work is for the most part nonseasonal, and the amount of unemployment small; (4) the unions in the trade have a long history and a record of distinguished leadership.

These characteristics can be briefly illustrated:

(1) The total number of wage earners in the printing industry according to the 1914 census was 272,092. Of these 141,644, or 52 per cent worked in plants of 50 workers or less,⁶ whereas in the steel industry, for example, out of a total of 248,716 workers in the steel and rolling mills, 194,429, or 78 per cent, were, in 1914, in shops of 500 or more.⁷

(2) A conception of the ratio between American and foreign-born printers can be gained by examining conditions in New York City, which does one-fourth of the printing and publishing in the United States.⁸ According to the 1910 census there were 16,826 compositors, linotypers, and typesetters in the city. Of these 11,534, or 68 per cent were native born. Of the 3,668 pressmen in the city, 2,109, or 79 per cent, were native born. Compared with other skilled trades,

⁵ For a list of the national agreements in force at the present time in the printing industry, see p. 38, footnote 40.

⁶ United States Census of Manufactures, 1914, vol. 2, p. 636, Table 22.

⁷ United States Census of Manufactures, 1914, vol. 2, p. 224, Table 43.

⁸ The value of the product in printing and publishing for 1914 for New York City was \$230,961,612 (Census of Manufactures, 1914, vol. 1, p. 993); for the United States, \$901,534,000 (Abstract of the Census of Manufactures, 1914, p. 152).

such as carpentry, with 70 per cent foreign born, or brick and stone masonry, with 68 per cent foreign born, the contrast is striking.⁹

(3) The amount of seasonal work for the printers is probably less than for any other class of skilled workers. The Industrial Education Survey of New York, 1918, states that in book and job shops the minimum number employed during the year is 90 per cent of the maximum number employed.¹⁰ An analysis of trade-union members unemployed in Massachusetts in six principal industries shows that least unemployment was experienced by transportation and the printing and allied trades. The order in which the industries fall according to percentage of unemployment is: (1) Building; (2) textile manufacturing; (3) boot and shoe manufacturing; (4) iron and steel manufacturing; (5) printing and allied trades; (6) transportation. The building trades show great fluctuation—between 3 and 34 per cent, with an approximate average of 16 per cent. The printers show little fluctuation, varying from 3 to 12 per cent, with an approximate average of 6 per cent.¹¹

(4) The printers' trade-unions are among the oldest in the United States. Several were in existence before 1800, and Typographical Union No. 6 of New York dates its unbroken history from 1809. Their leadership has been of a high quality and occasionally distinguished. Horace Greeley was president of Typographical Union No. 6 in 1850. Ely Moore, who became labor's first representative in Congress, was a New York printer and trade-unionist. He was president of the National Trades-Union in 1834-35, and in 1838-39 political editor of the *New York Evening Post*. Other prominent members of Typographical Union No. 6 were John W. Reid, the journalist, and George W. Peck, who was governor of Wisconsin in 1891-1895.¹²

It is impossible to give a picture of trade-unionism among American printers without mentioning its fraternal and benefit features. As Prof. Barnett points out in his monograph on the printers, they have always regarded their beneficiary features not as aids in the enforcement of trade regulations, but as fully worth while on their own account. Like many trade-unions they early established funeral, sickness, and unemployment benefits; since 1892 the International Typographical Union has maintained a home for aged or sick printers, and since 1908 a system of old-age pensions. The pressmen likewise have a home for their aged members, a tuberculosis sanitarium, and a well-equipped school for presswork apprentices.

r

Informal Beginnings.

THE origin of the International Joint Conference Council in the printing industry is probably traceable to a conversation. Several weeks before the first informal conference an employer and a trade-unionist had a chat on the state of the trade. The industry seemed wholly enveloped in a cloud of trouble. H. C. L. was hitting the journeyman printers with a particular punch. Most of them

⁹ Industrial Education Survey of the City of New York, 1918, Pt. 1, p. 24.

¹⁰ *Idem*, p. 26.

¹¹ Public Document, No. 15. Forty-ninth Annual Report on Statistics of Labor for the year 1918, p. 40, Pt. IV.

¹² *New York Typographical Union No. 6*, Chs. XIII and XLI, prepared under the direction of John Williams, commissioner of labor, State of New York, 1913.

were working under three-year contracts which barred any readjustment to meet the new level of prices. Many employers faced an unfair competition. Widely fluctuating wage scales made the cost of production cheap in one part of the country and dear in another. The two men agreed that an informal conference between employers and trade-unionists might bring to light some measures of relief. They resolved to suggest such a meeting to their respective organizations.

A conference was held between representative employers and trade-unionists in Washington on February 3, 1919.¹³ The temporary chairman opened the meeting with a mild "cooperation" speech. He cautiously suggested that employers and employees were meeting "with the possible view of encouraging a relationship that might prove profitable to both." The body did not regard itself as a council of any authority. It was "clearly understood that everyone present represented himself."

Despite informality and the absence of special authority, the conferees vigorously discussed the critical issues of the industry. They took up uniform shop practices, the desirability of negotiating simultaneously with all unions, guaranteeing of contracts, unfair competition and the advisability of a standard cost system for the industry. It was a foreshadowing of the work of the council for the next 18 months.

"When you have shop rules that in some instances cause two men to work where under another shop rule they work one, it is hard to get away from competition." Shops differed extraordinarily in such things as rules about "struck work," holidays, sanitary conditions, number of men on jobs. In the long run it was better for everyone to have a standard.

Next, an employer in New York related that he made agreements with 16 different unions. He was negotiating wage scales all the year round. Why not a single conference and a single agreement?

Another competition problem was discussed, "the bedroom shop." In certain small establishments the whole family works. Costs are reduced to a minimum and the proprietor undersells the ordinary printer, who, if he is under agreement to pay standard wages, must either cut them or go out of business. This situation is a constant menace to the standard of living of the journeyman printer. And besides, many of the small shops end in bankruptcy and demoralize the industry. Surveys of the printing industry showed that many of them operate without cost finding or even accounting systems of any kind, and the proprietors, not knowing their condition, run at a loss. As a solution a universal use of some standard system of cost finding was proposed.

The conference closed with the formulation of plans for another meeting at which "organizations and not simply persons" should be represented so that the cooperative measures suggested might take concrete shape.¹⁴

¹³ The conference comprised seven representative employers, and the board of governors of the International Allied Printing Trades Association.

¹⁴ Other subjects touched on in the conference were the so-called "individual strike" where employees leave and call it a "walk-out of dissatisfied workers" and the authority of employers' associations over their own members.

The second meeting was held in Cincinnati, March 10 and 11, 1919. It was called in the stenographic report a "General conference of employers in printing and the allied trades and of the printing and allied trades-unions." The conference opened with observations upon the general trend toward joint organizations of employers and employees the world over. Developments in Germany and the English Whitley councils came in for remark.

When the printers turned their attention to America they grew very concrete, grappling with the problem of guaranteeing contracts with trade-unions. One employer related two examples of revolt. In one, after entering into a contract, underwritten by the international union, the local defied the international and struck. This was against its own laws and the international's. The other case was of a local which refused to have its international underwrite its contract.

Discussion from both sides favored underwriting, although it was clear that it furnished only an imperfect guaranty. One union leader remarked: "When the local union says, 'We don't want this underwritten, we want to make this a local proposition with you,' and the employing printer consents, it is impossible for the national union to make the local * * * comply with the law and have the contract underwritten." He urged the inclusion in every contract of a provision for underwriting. In the event of violation either by the local union or by the local employer there would remain two other parties to compel the third.

A suggestion that all the unions in the various printing crafts together underwrite every contract was discussed, but appeared under present conditions impractical.

Uniformity in wage scales was urged. It was pointed out that whenever a city has a scale greatly in advance of the surrounding country employers and employees moved away, leaving a great deal of idle machinery in the deserted city. If a uniform scale were in force, employers and employees would stay at home.

At the third meeting, held in Chicago, April 21, 1919, the constitution of the International Joint Conference Council of the Commercial and Periodical Branches of the Printing Industry was adopted.¹⁵ The council later received the formal ratification of its constituent bodies. These organizations are:

Employees.—International Typographical Union; International Printing Pressman and Assistants' Union; International Brotherhood of Bookbinders; International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union.

Employers.—Closed Shop Branch United Typothetæ of America; Printers' League of America; International Association of Electrotypers.

Structure of the Council.

THE council is at present composed of 16 members, 8 from each side, although certain problems connected with the proper basis of representation are still under discussion.

The constitution adopted at the April 21, 1919, meeting outlines the general objects in the following terms:

To promote the spirit of cooperation and to deal with the problems of the industry in a way to insure the protection of the interests of all concerned, the establishment

¹⁵ Proceedings, Joint Conference of the Representatives of International Unions and Representatives of Employers' Associations of the Printing Industry and Allied Trades, Chicago, Ill., Apr. 21, 1919, p. 61.

of an international joint conference council, made up of representatives of employers and employees, which shall be thoroughly informed as to conditions and interests of all parties in the industry and in a position to suggest for ratification regulations which shall eventually become the law of the industry, is considered essential.

One of the life-giving ideas behind the council movement in America, whether it be in the shop, district, or Nation, is the conviction that there should be no outsiders as regulators. This is clearly one of the ideas in the above quotation. Those daily acquainted with the industrial structure are best fitted to work out the machinery of adjustment.

The traditional principle of voluntary arbitration as a means of settling industrial disputes is reaffirmed in the second paragraph of the preamble.

Controversies between employers and employees can and should be adjusted through voluntary agreements to refer disputes to boards of conciliation and arbitration composed of representatives of employers and employees in the industry affected.

This restating of the principle came at a time when it was being questioned and weakened by a series of strikes and propaganda for direct action among a group of New York trade-unionists.

The constitution is careful to specify that the council is primarily a constructive, policy-making body rather than a judicial one:

The International Council is to devote its activities not primarily to disputes, to the fixation of wage scales, the making of specific wage agreements and the like, but to matters of policy.

The "scope of activities" suggested under Section III of the constitution covers the whole field of industrial relations. The constitutional suggestions may be summarized as follows:

- (a) Outlining of general trade policies.
- (b) Consideration of any legislation affecting the trade.
- (c) Uniform working hours and shop practices.
- (d) Cooperating with Government to maintain selling prices.
- (e) Consideration and review of the causes of any disputes which may arise in the industry.
- (f) Apprenticeship; the improvement of process, designs, and standards of workmanship; consideration of improvements of processes, machinery, organization, appropriate questions relating to management, and the examination of industrial experiments; utilization of the practical knowledge and experience of employees; utilization of inventions designed by employees or employers.
- (g) Wage adjustment boards.
- (h) Consideration of any matters of interest to the trade, whether industrial, educational, economic, legislative, or hygienic.

Nearly all of these activities have been touched upon in the actual work of the council. Under clause (e) it has dealt with the whole question of industrial disputes by advocating the formation of separate local and national boards of arbitration for each branch of the industry, thus delegating the judicial function to machinery outside of, though affiliated with, itself. This is treated under the subdivision "cardinal point No. 5" (see p. 38).

The method of expressing the council's authority is clearly set forth. Each side submits a "bill of particulars" for action in the form of resolutions. These must be unanimously passed by the International Council and ratified by the constituent bodies, parties to the agreement, before they can be effective. When so passed and so ratified they "shall be binding upon all parties to this agreement and shall become the law of the trade."

In order to carry out its objects, the council recognizes as the "proper and legitimate agencies" through which to function, local unions, chapels, and shop committees affiliated with the respective international unions which are parties to the agreement, local allied printing trades councils, and local associations of employers in the respective trades dealing with the unions under the agreement. The local groups may submit to the council, "for consideration and action, any proposal of mutual interest," if not in conflict with the constitution of the International Joint Conference Council.

The effect of the International Council will be to strengthen existing organizations on both sides by giving sanction to all local agreements between unions and employers, after they have been underwritten by their respective international unions. "In the event that any local union or local employer violates or disregards the terms of this agreement, the action of such recalcitrant union or employer shall be publicly disavowed by the International Council and the aggrieved parties shall be furnished with an official document to that effect."

The council is not an exclusive organization but may "receive applications from organizations of either employees or employers who have not ratified this agreement and by unanimous vote may admit such applicants to all privileges and responsibilities of this agreement."

Two "constitutional" points should perhaps be specially mentioned. The council is presided over by joint chairmen, and a unanimous vote is necessary "to carry any resolution involving the establishment of general principles affecting any of the trades parties to this agreement." Examples of this would be the action taken in the adoption of the 44-hour week, or the international arbitration agreement. The council is jointly financed by the bodies represented in it.

The Council at Work.

THE constitution of the council was adopted at the April 21, 1919, meeting, but ratification by referendum of the constituent bodies took place during the following summer months, and was fully accomplished only when the electrotypers approved the document at their September convention.¹⁶ The photo-engravers who were present at the early meetings withdrew and set up a joint industrial council of their own.

In the records of the 12 meetings, held roughly at intervals of six weeks from February 3, 1919, to July 9, 1920, several outstanding issues can be distinguished from incidental business. These are: The 44-hour week issue, the "five cardinal points of a labor policy," a cost-of-living clause for contracts, a standard international arbi-

¹⁶ The pressmen did not technically ratify the constitution till their convention in November, although an informal vote taken earlier indicated the approval of the rank and file. For a complete record of ratification by constituent bodies, see:

Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York, August 4, 1919, pp. 4, 5.
 Minutes of Proceedings, Executive Council, United Typothetae of America, Chicago, July 18, 19, 1919.
 Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York, September 18, 1919, p. 3.
 Synopsis of Proceedings of International Association of Electrotypers, Twenty-second National Convention, St. Louis, September 26, 27, 1919, in Bulletin, October, 1919, Vol. V, No. 54, p. 251.
 The Typographical Journal, Official Paper of International Typographical Union, vol. 55, No. 2, August, 1919, p. 45.
 The American Pressman, Vol. XXX, No. 1, December, 1919, p. 40.
 The International Bookbinder, Official Journal of the International Brotherhood of Bookbinders, Vol. XX, No. 10, October, 1919, p. 347.
 The International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union Journal, vol. 14, No. 7 July, 1919, p. 101.

tration agreement for all unions, the apprenticeship question, district councils, and standardization of contracts. Nearly all of these issues were touched on in some form by question, resolution, or brief discussion at the earlier meetings. Some, like the decision on the 44-hour week issue, received early action, while others like the "Cardinal points of a labor policy" began early, but ran through several meetings before their implications appeared, and their statement was perfected and approved. One or two, like the proposal for district councils, which were hinted at early, received attention through several meetings and still await final action.

The building of the council and the instruments for accomplishing its purposes have been notably gradual and unforced. Receiving an initial impulse from the havoc that the H. C. L. was making in wage scales, the representatives attempted to work out with the utmost frankness an agreed basis for wage policy. Once established, nearly every concrete measure has grown out of this basic platform.

Forty-four Hour Week Issue and the New York Controversy.

THE prospect of a 44-hour week in the printing industry had long been considered. It was pointed out that it was the part of wisdom to introduce the change nationally and on the same day. The printers vividly recalled that when the reduction from nine to eight hours was made, a nation-wide strike had resulted and immense losses for both sides. Representatives of the New York unions were present at the April 21 meeting and stated that if the 44-hour week could be put into effect, nationally, October 1, 1919, New York would agree to it. The issue was hotly contested. Some employers denounced the 44-hour week as an "economic crime," some unions demanded its inauguration "at once." At length the council, at the April 21 meeting, agreed to recommend to its constituent bodies the adoption of the shorter week nationally, May 1, 1921, 19 months after the date set by New York.¹⁷ A referendum vote was taken by the associations and unions throughout the country and the resolution passed by a large majority.

The issue, however, was by no means closed. A situation developed in New York that threatened the very existence of the council. The New York locals remained irreconcilable. They charged that their international officers were in collusion with the employers. If the council had not postponed the reduction, New York, they claimed, would have secured it by October.

Franklin Union No. 23 and Pressmen's Union No. 51 then withdrew from their internationals. These two unions together comprise about 5,500 men, or a major part of the pressmen and feeders in New York City.

The position of the seceding unions was this: The pressmen, in the first place, felt they were justified in remaining outside their international because they believed their officers guilty of misappropriation of funds. But this was an incidental complication. Primarily, they argued that the officers who had passed the disputed resolution, because of the unfair voting methods permitted by the

¹⁷ Proceedings, Joint Conference of the Representatives of International Unions and Representatives of Employers' Associations of the Printing Industry and Allied Trades, Chicago, Ill., Apr. 21, 1919, p. 63.

pressmen's constitution, were unrepresentative of the major part of the international union, and that the manner of taking the referendum was likewise unfair.

The council believed this a matter to be settled within the international, that the real issue was "constitutional methods versus direct action." They felt that certain New York locals, having recently found strike action successful, believed they could buck the country.

The employers were presented with this dilemma: If they continued to operate their presses with these locals, they would be recognizing unions condemned by their own internationals; they would also be conceding the 44-hour week for October 1, 1919, in face of the resolution of the International Joint Conference Council which had been ratified by a vote of locals throughout the country. On the other hand, if they remained firm they would tie up the printing industry in New York, the largest printing city in the world. They chose to stand behind the council and the resolution. A final victory for the council and for the internationals resulted after several weeks of stormy controversy, which included a lock-out, a strike, and a "vacation."

The International Joint Conference Council had passed through an ordeal of fire and survived. It felt it was a victory for "constitutional methods" of settling disputes as against "direct action," and for the principle of responsibility toward the internationals.

The Cardinal Points.

AT THE June 2 meeting, wage charts¹⁸ were presented which revealed a surprising condition and gave a fact basis to labor discussion. The charts covered the wage development of some of the key crafts of the printing industry (book and job)—compositors, cylinder pressmen, and cylinder feeders—for the years 1912 to 1919. Data had been secured covering 44 representative cities arranged by regional groups as follows: North Atlantic; North Central; South Atlantic; South Central; Western.¹⁹ Cost-of-living figures were also shown for each of the cities.

With the statistics of the wage and cost-of-living situation graphically before the council, steps toward solution suggested themselves naturally and convincingly. It was found that wide variation between wages existed in the same competitive zone. For example, in 1919 up to May 15, the wages for compositors in Chicago were \$36-\$37, in Cincinnati, \$24-\$25, in Cleveland, \$30-\$31, in Columbus, \$28-\$29, in Detroit, \$34-\$35, and in Grand Rapids, \$24-\$25. There was apparently no principle or basis for determining wages which would tend to make them uniform. The cost of living had not acted as this principle. In fact it was shown that the highest scales were often in effect where the cost of living was lowest. Taking Denver, which had the lowest cost of living, as a base, or index of 100, Portland, Oreg., was paying a wage of \$38-\$39 to compositors

¹⁸ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, June 2, 1919, p. 26.

¹⁹ The wage data presented on these charts were secured from reports sent in from the local organizations of the Typothetae, from bulletins of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics Nos. 131, 143, 194, 214, 245, and from information furnished by some of the unions.

in 1919²⁰ with a cost of living of 100.62, while New Haven paid for the same period \$22-\$23 with a cost of living of 139.70. This is an extreme instance of discrepancy. But the statement that the highest wages were paid where the cost of living was lowest proved true, though in a less striking manner, in a comparison of the whole group of cities in the North Atlantic group, where the cost of living was highest, with the whole group of cities in the western group, where it was lowest. In the western group the average cost of living was 100.99. Seven of the eight western cities paid wages of \$30-\$31 or more, one city a wage of \$28-\$29. In the North Atlantic group, where the average cost of living was 132.39, all the cities except one paid wages of \$28-\$29 or less; the one exception paid a wage of \$36-\$37. The comparison between the two groups can be clearly summarized in tabular form.

COMPARISON OF COST OF LIVING AND WAGES IN NORTH ATLANTIC AND WESTERN GROUPS OF CITIES.

[Cost of living in Denver=100.]

Regional group.	Cost of living index.	Average wage.
North Atlantic.....	132.39	\$27.55
Western.....	100.99	32.25

Here was evidence of great lack of uniformity in printers' wage scales, and of no regard for the cost-of-living principle. Combined with the fact of long-term contracts it was enough to explain the strikes, lockouts, and broken agreements that had multiplied among printers since the armistice.

Cardinal Point No. 1.

The council decided upon cardinal point No. 1 as a step toward a new labor policy:

That the industry frankly recognizes the cost of living, as compared to 1914, as the basic factor in wage adjustments.

"Why the cost of living as compared to 1914?" was asked. It was the aim of the council to provide a reasonable living to every wage-earning printer. That was clearly the accepted principle. Why not decide the case on its merits from the data available to-day? Because it would compel the council to dictate for a large group of men what a "reasonable standard of living" was, an impossible position and one likely to stir up resentment. It was better to have a base in history from which argument or statistics could make a start.

Cardinal Point No. 2.

But accepting 1914, even that appeared on examination as a very uncertain base. Sometimes wages were too low in 1914. A percentage increase adequate to bring the wage to a reasonable level

²⁰ Statistics were available only up to May 15.

in one city would still leave it far too low in another. Cardinal point No. 2 was adopted to cover this clear contingency:

The industry to pay at least a reasonable living wage; scales below this to be adjusted in frank recognition of the principle involved.²¹

This point was illustrated in practice a little later in the case of Detroit. Its 1914 wage scale was found considerably below near-by cities. A contract was negotiated which took a base for adjustment \$2.50 higher than the actual 1914 base.

Discussion of cardinal points No. 1 and No. 2 at the October 30, 1919, meeting showed another angle of the same special difficulty. A representative said: "If one branch of the industry were getting in 1914 two, three, and four dollars more a week than * * * another branch * * * isn't it entirely reasonable, now, that the branch getting the highest amount at that time would feel that that was the base?" The method suggested in case this difficulty were met in practice was this: A composite figure was to be obtained by averaging the wages in surrounding cities within the competitive zone.²² This would indicate whether or not that city was above or below the average.

There followed in the June 2, 1919, meeting a vigorous debate over wages, and one of the most enlightening in the council's history. It was a frank discussion among practical men of opposed viewpoints regarding the economic basis of wage payment. A union representative found a difficulty in the two cardinal points and expressed it as follows:

If you are going to have the sole right of decreasing wages upon the decrease in the cost of living, then very properly we should say, we have something to do with the matter of the profits of the business, because, after all, I will repeat, the * * * cost of living might decrease and yet the profits of the business might automatically increase.²³

He went on to expand his point of view on wage determination:

There are two factors that enter into intelligent negotiations in wage scales. First, is the demand of the organization for an increase in wages on the ground that the cost of living has increased and the responsibilities have increased, and then instantly we meet with the proposition of the employers and proof is brought that he hasn't the money to pay toward meeting this demand. Now both of these are competent questions for negotiations. * * * We certainly would not consider a reduction in wages when the income of the employer was the same or improving—that would be going backward.²⁴

An employer representative countered. He objected strongly to the absence of specific mention in the cardinal points of a reduction in wages to follow a reduction in the cost of living. It seemed almost as if revision upward had been provided but that a peg was stuck in at the highest point, barring any adjustment downward. "Very truly," he said, "it is all on one side, like the handle of a jug."

As the discussion proceeded, the truth in both positions became distinguishable, and was accepted by both sides. It was clear, as one employer put it, that what was "sauce for the goose was sauce for the gander"; that if wages went up with the cost of living they should come down with any material reduction. But it was also clear that reduction in wages should not necessarily follow reduction

²¹ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, June 2, 1919, p. 67.

²² Idem, Oct. 30, 1919, p. 26.

²³ Idem, June 2, 1919, p. 69.

²⁴ Idem, p. 72.

in prices. That depended on what came to be called in the third cardinal point, the "economic condition of the industry."

When you come to the next step, after you get above that limit (cost of living) there is some difficulty in establishing a standard—a permanent living standard. If something occurs, it may or may not increase the cost of living, although it might increase the profits of the industry. That may be a factor to be taken into consideration. If taken into consideration such adjustments should be made on the basis of fact as determined by a uniform cost accounting system.²⁵

Cardinal Point No. 3.

Cardinal point No. 3 was introduced to broaden the basis of wage determination, as well as to urge the inclusion in contracts of the principle of adjustable scales:

That when not in conflict with the existing laws of a constituent body, local contracts to be for a period not less than three years, and include a clause providing for annual readjustments of wages based upon cost of living as determined by authorities agreed upon and upon the economic condition of the industry at the time of readjustments.²⁶

The meaning of "economic condition" received a little expansion in a later meeting:

Those economic factors are * * * questions of competitive conditions within the industry * * * the question of whether the industry is losing or making a profit, which gives it a living wage in the way of rents and capital charges and things of that sort. Those economic factors are vital and we can not escape their consideration in addition to the cost of living.²⁷

There was a third party at interest in wage determination which thus far had found no protagonist—the public. But this party slipped into the discussion at last.

We are making arguments to our publishers, that we are obliged to increase our men in common decency, because of the increased cost of living, and obliged to ask them to still further increase the amounts that they are paying us, even though we have contracts with them; and they are acceding to those requests and arguments. * * * If the cost of living goes down, we will say to 50 per cent above 1914 [they will say], we want to have our contract restored to a point that would be right at a 50 per cent increase in the cost of living and we are going to be unable to answer that argument.²⁸

More than this, it was very cogently argued that one of the factors in H. C. L. itself was the disposition of manufacturers to keep prices high, even when the economic condition of the industry did not demand it. If the printers insisted on keeping up prices and wages when others were reducing them, they were failing to do their part in helping the country to break the H. C. L.

This was clearly a just consideration. It did not, however, nullify the principle of considering economic factors in the wage determination, but merely added another factor to the equation.

There was no objection to reduction, some one concluded, provided both elements that entered into the operation were considered; the question of the cost of living and the question of the economic conditions of the industry.

This discussion between leading trade-unionists and employers in an important industry is an interesting case of an attack by practical men upon some of the difficulties of the wage system. There are two

²⁵ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, June 2, 1919, p. 78.

²⁶ *Idem*, p. 81.

²⁷ *Idem*, Aug. 4, 1919, p. 39.

²⁸ *Idem*, Sept. 18, 1919, p. 20.

chief points of interest in the discussion. Economists are almost agreed that one of the most fundamental social maladjustments from which we suffer is the "unstabilized dollar." It is a chief cause of our panics, and a large factor in industrial strikes. With a change in the purchasing power of money, wages and salaries unhappily lag far behind. The printing industry is the only one that has begun to take thoroughgoing measures to make "actual wages" the same, not only from year to year, but from place to place, through something approaching a national program. This is the first point of interest.

The second is that "other factors" are at least recognized as legitimate considerations in determining a just wage scale. The printers said: "The cost of living might decrease and yet the profits of the business might automatically increase." The conventional economist might perhaps reply: "That is a temporary condition. A general lowering of prices will mean in time a general lowering of wages. Therefore any attempt to keep up wages, when prices in general are falling, will only be temporarily successful." The answer might be: "The whole method of fixing wage scales through consideration of living costs or any factors whatever in place of leaving the whole thing up to 'supply and demand' is by way of being a device. It is a device to secure a prompter and a more accurate human adjustment than natural forces can possibly achieve. It does not oppose the law of supply and demand—it outstrips it. As an illustration, suppose in a certain group of towns of which Denver was the center, that prosperity and a condition of increased earnings continued for a year after a general fall in prices. Should not employees share with employers this continued prosperity? Yet with a scale adjustable only upon the cost-of-living principle, or upon no principle whatever (other than supply and demand) they would in most cases be unable to do so." This is manifestly but one manner of regarding a limited aspect of the problem raised. It is clearly a subject that suggests inquiries as profound as the student cares to make them. But it is not necessary here to go further to demonstrate the importance of this second principle.

The three "cardinal points of a labor policy," together with one of two others considered below, were adopted by the council and indorsed by its constituent bodies.²⁹ No. 3 opened the way for concrete enterprise in putting the principle into action. It urged "local contracts to be for a period not less than three years, and to include a clause providing for annual readjustments of wages based upon the cost of living as determined by authorities jointly agreed upon and upon the economic condition of the industry at the time of readjustment."

Full discussion lasting over several meetings finally resulted in a skeleton cost-of-living clause for incorporation into local contracts. Examination was first made of existing clauses. An agreement in the city of Tacoma embodied the cost-of-living principle of adjustment and suggested a basis for the uniform contract. The plan was also found already in effect in the Index Envelope Co. of Cleveland, the New York Banking and Trust Co., and in one of the counties of Illinois among public service employees.³⁰ On May 17, 1920, a cost-of-living

²⁹ Cardinal points Nos. 1 and 2 were adopted at the June 2 meeting. See Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, June 2, 1919, p. 67.

³⁰ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, June 2, 1919, pp. 27 and 29.

clause was indorsed by the council and recommended for adoption in local contracts.³¹

Cardinal Point No. 4.

It had been suggested during the discussion of the first three cardinal points that the only way to discover the "economic condition" of printing plants (point No. 3) was through a standard system of cost accounting for the industry. It was further suggested as a means of spreading the cost-finding gospel, that the obligation to operate under the standard cost-finding system be included as a clause in local contracts. These suggestions were embodied in cardinal point No. 4, and adopted at the June 2, 1919, meeting:³²

That a uniform standard system of cost accounting is considered fundamental to insure stability, permanence, and prosperity to the industry and to provide a basis for securing a greater degree of uniformity in conditions throughout the country; a clause to be included in local agreements providing that such standard system as is recognized by the organizations represented in the International Joint Conference Council to be required.

At the September 18, 1919, meeting it was reported that certain employers and unions entering into local contracts were looking for a model cost-finding clause which they could incorporate, and it was suggested that the council frame and recommend one. Clauses already in existence were reviewed. A somewhat extreme form was found in operation in Portland and San Francisco, so worded that the union refused to work in a place where the standard cost-finding system was not in operation, and where the employer was not a member of the local employers' association. A simpler clause was found incorporated in the St. Louis contract, which read: "The various unions agree not to grant the use of the label, nor to permit of union men working in any printing office unless that office agrees to operate its business under the standard cost-finding system."³³

In discussing the clause some one said it was "not the intention to make a cast-iron rule to cover either the employers or the unions on the subject," but to "formulate a section which we could recommend * * * and then if local parties desired to incorporate it in their agreements they are privileged to do so."³⁴ No formal recommendation was made, however, beyond the indorsement of the principle in the fourth cardinal point.³⁵

The advantage of such a clause to unions as well as employers is evident. A business, unaware of its financial conditions, disrupts the industry by poor management, and throws its employees out of work through frequent bankruptcy. The need for cost systems in the printing industry has been vividly shown in a series of surveys conducted by the United Typothetae. The survey made in New York City showed the following results:

Group 1.—56 plants using the standard cost-finding system showed a profit of 11.4 per cent.

Group 2.—187 plants using no cost system, giving complete information, showed a profit of 7.4 per cent on cost.

³¹ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, Philadelphia, Pa., May 17, 1919, p. 80.

³² Idem, New York City, June 2, 1919, p. 88.

³³ Idem, Sept. 18, 1919, p. 15.

³⁴ Idem, p. 14.

³⁵ The fourth cardinal point was dropped at a subsequent meeting of the International Joint Conference Council at the insistence of the employers, the employees yielding to avoid loss of the other four. In view of this omission, the arbiters, during negotiations in December, 1920, held that the burden of proof was upon the employers to show that wage increases would be destructive to the industry.

Group 3.—471 plants using no cost system showed a profit of 1 per cent on cost.
Group 4.—554 plants giving incomplete information showed a 2.4 per cent loss on cost.³⁶

The second and third groups of plants had accounting but not cost-finding systems. The fourth group had neither.

Cardinal Point No. 5.

At the October 30, 1919, meeting, cardinal point No. 5 was adopted by the council:

That controversies over wages, hours, and working conditions can and should be settled without resorting to lockouts or strikes through voluntary agreement to refer disputes when unable to settle through conciliation, to joint boards of arbitration composed of equal representation of employers and employees, provision being made for an impartial arbitrator if necessary.³⁷

This was a first step toward bringing about the settlement of disputes throughout printerdom by arbitration. "The purpose of the clause is to have arbitration first recognized as a principle and then to work out the details * * * in accordance with the constitution of the International Joint Conference Council."³⁸

A good many national arbitration agreements were found already in existence. "We have had an agreement with the American Newspaper Publishers Association since 1901," said the president of the stereotypers and electrotypers' union. "At the present time we have arbitration contracts with 200 newspapers who are members of the American Newspaper Publishers Association; that is about 50 per cent of the membership."³⁹ Other national agreements were found among the compositors and pressmen.⁴⁰

The question of local and district arbitration boards was first discussed, and the argument put that a district arbitration board covering a competitive zone would tend greatly to standardize arbitration procedure, to equalize wage scales, and to introduce uniform shop practices. It would, in a word, create precedents of industrial law: "Suppose you had the district in the State of New York and Pennsylvania * * * as time went on there would be less and less cases that came before that board that would ever really come to arbitration, because the board would decide them before they were arbitrated."⁴¹

Was the council to act as an arbitration tribunal itself? Some thought that was one of its functions under the constitution. And were the district councils, which had been proposed, to be arbitration bodies? These points were definitely settled in the negative. "It is within the jurisdiction of the International Joint Conference Council, acting as a legislative body, to pass judgments on the kind of arbitration, but not to act as a superior court. It would be just

³⁶ Survey of the Printing Industry of New York City, made by the United Typothetæ of America, January, 1920.

³⁷ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, Oct. 30, 1919, p. 17.

³⁸ *Idem*, p. 4.

³⁹ *Idem*, Dec. 1, 1919, p. 39.

⁴⁰ A comparative study of arbitration agreements made by the Bureau of Industrial Relations of the United Typothetæ of America showed national agreements in force between the International Typographical Union and the United Typothetæ of America, the Closed Shop Branch of International Printing Pressmen and Assistants Union, and the American Newspaper Publishers Association, the International Union of Stereotypers and Electrotypers, and the International Association of Employing Stereotypers and Electrotypers, the International Printing Pressmen and Assistants Union, and the Printers' League of America.

⁴¹ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, Dec. 1, 1919, p. 40.

as if the Supreme Court were under Congress, or, rather, as if Congress tried to become the Supreme Court of the United States. If we pass laws and interpret them, we are going to go into difficulty."⁴²

So it was decided to recommend the setting up of judicial machinery outside the council but affiliated with it. This machinery would consist of a local board and a national one for each branch of the industry. The pressmen would have their own judicial bodies, and the compositors theirs. In that manner each branch of the industry would settle its own disputes, and those acquainted with its peculiar problems would be the arbitrators in each instance. The national board opened the way for appeal from hasty decisions.⁴³ The International Joint Conference Council was to act as coordinator of a process already under way. In fact agreements already in force showed a tendency toward standardization. Why not compare them and draw up a single inclusive contract, to be recommended to all employers and all unions in the printing industry? As its adoption spread, it would tend toward a further use of arbitration in industrial disputes, toward uniform wage scales and uniform shop conditions over wider and wider areas, and a common law for the industry. On May 17, 1920, such a contract was adopted by the council.⁴⁴

The document is in three parts: (1) An international arbitration agreement for use between an international union and employers' association; (2) an individual arbitration contract for use between a local union and an employer or group of employers; and (3) a code of procedure. In order to obtain the protection guaranteed by the international agreement, it is necessary for a local employer or union to execute the individual arbitration contract. The working of the agreement can be illustrated by following a dispute in the course of adjustment. It is first submitted to the joint chairman of the "local board of conciliation." Failing settlement, it goes to the local board of conciliation itself. If no agreement can be reached it passes to the local arbitration board. (The president of the international union and the chairman of the arbitration committee determine jointly what questions can be arbitrated.) After consideration by the local arbitration board, if either party desires, he may make appeal to the national arbitration board whose decision is final.

The noteworthy features of the arrangements are:

The individual arbitration contract protects the employer "against walkouts, strikes, or boycotts" and the union against lockouts or any "concerted action to discriminate against members of the union."

Work must "continue without interruption pending proceedings" and the hours, wages, and working conditions prevailing at the time the difference arises remain unchanged, until a final settlement is made.

In case of refusal to comply with a decision, "all aid and support to the employer or the local union refusing acceptance and compli-

⁴² Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, Chicago, Ill., Jan. 22, 1920, p. 36.

⁴³ Appeals under existing arbitration agreements were found to be few in practice but the principle was felt to be of great importance. In the stereotypers' and electrotypers' agreement there were but 12 appeals to the national board in 18 years of operation.—Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, New York City, Dec. 1, 1919, p. 39.

⁴⁴ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, Philadelphia, Pa., May 17, 1920, p. 111.

ance shall be withdrawn by both parties to this agreement. The acts of such recalcitrant employer or union shall be publicly disavowed and the aggrieved party shall be furnished by the other with an official document to that effect."

The cardinal principles for wage adjustment are included in the agreement and thus commit all those taking advantage of the international arbitration agreement to a constructive program of wage settlement. They may be restated as—

No. 1. That the industry frankly recognizes the cost of living, as compared to 1914, as the basic factor in wage adjustments.

No. 2. The industry to pay at least a reasonable living wage; scales below this to be adjusted in frank recognition of the basic principle involved.

No. 3. That, when not in conflict with the existing laws of a constituent body, local contracts be for a period not less than three years, and include a clause providing for annual readjustments of wages based upon cost of living, as determined by authorities jointly agreed upon, and upon the economic conditions of the industry at the time of readjustments.

No. 5.⁴⁵ That controversies over wages, hours, and working conditions between employers and employees can and should be settled without resorting to lockouts or strikes, through voluntary agreements to refer disputes, where unable to settle through conciliation, to joint boards of arbitration composed of equal representation of employers and employees, provision being made for an impartial arbitrator if necessary.

Apprenticeship.

THE printing industry is "committing industrial suicide," some one remarked at the meeting held January 22, 1920. It was an accurate way of describing the condition into which a growing shortage of learners was forcing the industry. "In the city of Philadelphia we have 255 journeymen, * * *," remarked one representative. "If we make all the apprentices to which we are entitled according to union rules, we may turn out eight apprentices each year. It would take between 32 and 33 years to replace the working force that we have to-day." But owing to certain apprenticeship rules, "it actually takes 43½ years in the city of Philadelphia to replace the number of journeymen. * * *"⁴⁶

Half of the January 22, 1920, conference was devoted to the problem. Too many apprentices were compelled to do porter work and not given a real chance to learn their job. "I had to steal the trade," remarked one union representative. Some unions did not allow enough apprentices. Many employers did not employ their permitted quota. Both conditions were bad. Technical schools should be encouraged, it was said; and above all an adequate wage paid. It was necessary to compete in these days with the high wages and short learning periods of the metal and other trades. The conferences, as a result of the discussion, advised the setting up of "local machinery in the form of joint apprenticeship committees * * * to initiate and complete local surveys, to study, investigate, and report, and to act to secure enforcement of conditions jointly agreed upon governing the employment and training of apprentices." In addition they urged that contracts "include rules governing the employment and training of apprentices and a clause providing for a joint apprenticeship committee."⁴⁷

⁴⁵ See p. 37 for point No. 4.

⁴⁶ Proceedings, International Joint Conference Council, Chicago, Ill., Jan. 22, 1919, p. 109.

⁴⁷ Quoted from a circular letter sent out after the Jan. 22, 1920, meeting, to secretaries of local typotheta and sanctioned by International Joint Conference Council.

The council's method of dealing with the apprenticeship problem is a good example of decentralized action. Joint local committees were the suggested instruments, the national body functioning as initiator and coordinator of the work. Here was another example, too, of a slow cumulative influence set up through working a common clause into local contracts, rather than an autocratic fiat from a ruling body.

Proposed Activities.

District Councils.

A COMPREHENSIVE system of industrial government would seem to require a joint national council, a district council, and local works and shop committees. Two district councils showed signs of arising spontaneously in the printing industry in the fall of 1919, one for the cities of Sacramento, San Francisco, Oakland, and other places, and another for Toledo, Cleveland, Detroit, and Columbus. At the December 1, 1919, meeting, the International Joint Conference Council considered the advisability of drafting a uniform constitution which it could recommend to budding organizations. It did not agree on a constitution but passed a resolution approving the principle of district councils, and requesting inquiring bodies to delay the setting up of a council until the International Council had worked out a uniform constitution.⁴⁸

At subsequent meetings a tentative district map was drawn, upon which representation could be based. A proposed constitution is still under consideration.

If the plan of setting up district councils materializes, the purposes of the International Council will have taken a long stride toward fulfillment. In "a standardization of hours, wages, working conditions, and shop rules"⁴⁹ one of the surest fields of usefulness, it should prove an even more effective instrument than the national body.

Standardization of Contracts.

Another job which the council holds before it is the standardization of contracts. A comparative study⁵⁰ of 43 local contracts brought out:

1. That the local contracts within each international differ to an amazing degree among themselves.
2. That except for specific trade matters, the local contracts of the three internationals do not differ from each other as widely as they differ within each international.

Contracts in the printing industry cover such important questions as: (1) Conference committees, (2) strikes, (3) wages, (4) hours, (5) conditions, (6) employment, (7) closed shop, (8) arbitration.

The greater uniformity that can be introduced will clearly tend to stabilize the industry; it will reduce the causes of disputes and will by making basic conditions the same in different shops lessen the shifting of labor. A blanket agreement for recommendation to the local unions has been discussed by the council but no formal action has been taken.

⁴⁸ Proceedings International Joint Conference Council, New York City, Dec. 1, 1919, p. 24.

⁴⁹ Quoted from the proposed constitution for a district council, as among its objects.

⁵⁰ By Ethel Barbara Dietrich, for the International Joint Conference Council.

The achievements of the printers' council can be summarized by saying that it has introduced into the organized portion of one industry a new type of collective bargaining—characterized by an appeal to facts, and a tendency to test the demands of either party by the good of the industry as a whole.

The psychological gain attributable to the council is hard to over-estimate. It alone would justify giving it a place in the structure of industry. Running through all the proceedings can be traced the modification of extreme views by both parties and the emergence of common ground upon which joint action is possible. The employer found himself confronted with a reasoned case accompanied by carefully collated statistics to account for the "unreasonable" unrest he found among his employees. The trade-unionist lost any illusions he might have had of the employers' unlimited ability to pay.

The council does not deny the right of strike or lockout, but it expresses a belief that they are unnecessary and provides the means for a constitutional settlement of disputes. It is aware that as a matter of record most disputes are disposable by an appeal to obtainable facts, if only the machinery for inquiry and award is present.

One of the very real causes of "unrest" is without question the psychological one of suspicion. Because there is no intelligent separation of remediable difficulties from relatively unchangeable ones, the employee believes that everything should be transformed at once, and that only the cupidity of the employer resists an immediate Utopia. The employer, on the other hand, seeing the absurdity and extravagance of the employees' demands, often refuses, if he has the power, to make any changes. Or, if he accedes, he remedies all the immediate defects of his industry and is surprised and hurt at the ingratitude of his men. He has acted knowing nothing of the thought and feeling of his employees and often with little concrete knowledge of their working conditions. The printers met this difficulty squarely. By the practice of candor on both sides they were able to distinguish the obstacles they could remove at once from the forces which were a part of the condition of their problem, and which would either have to be accepted or changed only as a result of prolonged effort.

Besides this important psychological advantage the concrete achievements of the council have been substantial and suggest the value of such an instrument in other industries. Wherever organizations of sufficient strength exist on both sides there will certainly be similar questions best dealt with by a democratic national body. The written constitution adopted by the printers suggestively outlines the possible scope of an American national council. The method of expressing its authority reveals a wise utilization of existing centers of power while concrete accomplishments show that the powers of the council itself are increasing.

The adoption and practice of the "cardinal points" is perhaps the most characteristic and significant work of the council. The very essence of the new type of collective dealing is crammed into those five cardinal points. That statement by the organized portion of a major industry that they "frankly recognize the cost of living, as compared to 1914, as the basic factor in wage adjustments," and that wage adjustments should be based upon the cost of living, "and upon the economic conditions of the industry at the time of read-

justments" means the entrance of principles into a field hitherto under the sway of chance and economic might.

Old objections that such dealing eliminates desirable competition, opposes natural forces, and restricts trade, become conspicuously inapplicable in the light of this experiment. That "supply and demand" operate to determine wages and the wage earner's standard of living, no one will deny. But lesser and more immediate matters play a large part as well. Prof. Taussig, in his "Wages and Capital," enumerates as some of the causes that affect individual cases of adjustment "the extent to which the employer happens at the moment to be tied by contracts; the temper or pugnacity of one party or the other; the organization, the discipline, the available funds on either side," etc. It was some of these that the conference leaders of capital and labor in the printing industry were trying to wipe out or mitigate. By an appeal to facts, they discarded the poker-game method of wage negotiation, and dealt with the basic wage determinants. Of these they knew well enough that if given time wages will adjust themselves to prices, but they knew as well that in the process of waiting four or five years an immense total of human suffering would intervene. Perhaps by the natural laws of economy the real wages of various cities would adjust themselves to a common level. But during the waiting years the discrepancies were so wide that the shifting of labor and business caused terrific disruption and loss in the industry. They permitted a very considerable degree of competition, but it was the competition of men trying to be more efficient than one another instead of trying to undercut one another on the wage scale.

The method of bringing about the use of these principles was characteristic. It was not through the passage of a mandatory general law, but through urging the use of clauses in local wage contracts.

After "The cardinal points," the international arbitration agreement is perhaps the council's most important measure. The arbitration agreement is in reality a long step toward the building up of industrial law. Most of the controversies submitted to strike decision would never become active disputes were there a regularized system of permanent arbitration boards operating over large areas according to a code of industrial precedents.

Certain defects in the council are of course distinguishable. A criticism may perhaps be made of its basis of representation both in the separate unions and in the council itself. Certain of the international unions composing the council are known to have exceedingly undemocratic methods in choosing their international officers. If reform be desirable, however, this would seem to be a separate affair for the international to handle itself, and would not constitute a defect of the council proper. As to the method of representation in the council, which is at present exceedingly informal, it is recognized as unsatisfactory and is being reconsidered.

Perhaps also a doubt may be raised by those who have a somewhat limited faith in human nature, as to whether the apparent good will of the employer is not based on necessity in the form of the "labor shortage." These doubters may ask: "Will not your council crumble shortly, when the labor market is flooded once more, and the employer is free to conduct his business in his own way?" There are two

answers to this. The labor market shows no signs whatever of being flooded, inasmuch as it is little affected by the flow of immigration. And in the event of a full market it is an open question whether the employer would give up the demonstrated advantages of the council, for an exercise of a power likely to be temporary.

The council will without doubt please neither conservatives nor radicals. The printers had no program of perfection. They did not set up a "complete system of industrial government" and endow it with full powers. And they used every available scrap of existing machinery, precedent, or good will looking toward betterment, whether it bore a democratic title or not. The printers' council has proceeded slowly, utilizing the tools at hand, and yet the principles it has adopted as basic are broad enough for the most liberal development.

Through such thorough examinations of all the facts, and willingness for joint experiment may perhaps arise those social and economic inventions which are among the principal needs of our time. The deeper forces set in motion by the Great War and its aftermath require some such flexible instrument for their adjustment. The unexplored effects of the industrial revolution, as well, require an elastic machinery, involving all parties at interest, to work out its newly emphasized problems of adjustment. For certain industries the national industrial council may perhaps supply such an instrument.

Working Children of Boston.¹

By HELEN SUMNER WOODBURY.

THE purpose of this study was to ascertain the amount, character, conditions, and effects of employment of children under 16 years of age in an American city of diversified industries and a considerable volume of trade and in a State having comparatively advanced child-labor legislation. The problems of child labor, it was believed, are not confined to backward communities or to backward industries, but arise wherever the work of undeveloped young persons is used primarily for profit instead of primarily for training. Each year legislation regulating child labor has tended to become more strict. The public conscience has approved a 14-year minimum age and the requirement of employment certificates until 16, with compulsory school attendance up to 14 and from that age until 16 if a child is not employed. Nevertheless, for the child laborers of the United States at the present time, as for those of England when Lord Shaftesbury began his agitation in their behalf, the questions to be asked are:

(1) Is the child worker able to grow into adult life with his health and physical vigor unimpaired?

(2) Does he receive training adapted to make him, when an adult, an efficient workman?

(3) Does he receive an education adequate to make him a good citizen?

Boston was chosen for the study because, in addition to having industrial conditions fairly typical of those in other large American cities, it has legal regulations of child labor as stringent as any which are common in this country, including a continuation school, and a good system of records of its working children.

The four chief sources of information were: (1) Employment certificate records relating to all children—a total of 5,692—who became 14 years of age during the year which ended on August 31, 1914, and who took out employment certificates for either vacation or regular work before they became 16 years of age, i. e., before September 1, 1916, in Boston or in one of the three adjoining cities of Cambridge, Somerville, or Chelsea; (2) records of the Boston continuation school relating to 3,399 children of the same age group who took out certificates in that city for regular work, i. e., who definitely left school for industry, before they were 16; (3) interviews by agents of the Children's Bureau with a group of 823 children who were attending the Boston continuation school; and (4) replies from 328 of these children to a questionnaire sent them in December, 1918, about three years after they had been interviewed and at a time when war production in Boston was little, if any, below the level attained at the time of the armistice. Except that the average age at going to work of the interviewed children, and to a lesser degree of the larger

¹ Summary of a study made under the direction of the Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor.

group of continuation-school children, was lower than the average age at going to work of all regular workers, both of these groups may be considered fair samples of the children leaving school for work in Boston. In addition, an examination was made of the records of the certificate office in Boston as to employment certificates granted children under 16 years of age from September 1, 1914, to August 31, 1918, the four years which represent roughly the period of the World War.

The problem of child labor in Boston, Cambridge, Somerville, and Chelsea is numerically an important one. Of the estimated number of children in these four cities who became 14 years of age during the year ended September 1, 1914, over one-third took out employment certificates for gainful labor before their sixteenth birthdays. The great majority went to work in Boston. Furthermore, the records of the Boston certificate office show that the number of children going to work in that city increased rapidly from September 1, 1914, to September 1, 1918. During the year which ended on August 31, 1915, 3,342 children who had never before held certificates took them out in Boston. The next year this number nearly doubled, and in the period from September 1, 1917, to August 31, 1918, the number of children taking out their first certificates was 8,760.

Some children who take out employment certificates, of course, do not leave school, but work only during vacations or out of school hours. Nevertheless, nearly three-tenths of all children of the age group considered who lived in Boston at the time of this study became regular workers, i. e., left school for work, before their sixteenth birthdays. About four-fifths of the children who took out certificates in that city appear to have definitely left school for industry.

A decidedly larger proportion of the foreign-born than of the native children—not far from three-fifths of the foreign-born but less than one-third of the native children living in the four cities—took out employment certificates. Nevertheless, approximately four-fifths of the children who took out certificates were native born.

The foreign-born children who took out certificates more generally became regular, as distinguished from vacation, workers than did the native children. Nearly twice as large a proportion of all the foreign-born as of all the native children living in Boston (nearly half of the foreign-born but little over one-fourth of the native children) became regular workers.

Although only about 2 out of every 10 working children were themselves foreign born, about 7 out of every 10 had foreign-born fathers. Of those interviewed—all regular workers—72.1 per cent were children whose fathers came from some foreign country. More than one-third had fathers from south and east Europe and not far from another third had fathers from north and west Europe.

More boys than girls went to work between 14 and 16 years of age. Boys constituted three-fifths and girls two-fifths of the children of the age group studied who took out certificates in the four cities. Over two-fifths of the boys but not much more than one-fourth of the girls of this age group took out employment certificates. But within more recent years there appears to have been a tendency, at least in Boston, for the number of girls entering industry to increase more rapidly than the number of boys.

Less difference between boys and girls in tendency to go to work early was found among foreign-born than among native children, and among children of foreign parentage than among those of native parentage. The tendency of foreign-born girls to become regular workers, for example, was nearly as pronounced as that of boys, while only one-fifth of the native girls, as compared with nearly one-third of the native boys, had left school for industry before their sixteenth birthdays. Similar differences were found between the boys and girls of foreign and of native parentage. Evidently foreign-born fathers were much more likely to send their daughters, as compared with their sons, to work at an early age than were native fathers.

Reasons for Leaving School to Go to Work.

ALTHOUGH desertion by the father appears to have played its part in sending children from school to work, for the fathers of 21 of the 823 interviewed children were not living with their families, the death of the father appears to have been a much more important factor. Only about one-eighth of all children of 14 would normally have lost their fathers by death,² yet approximately one-fifth of the children interviewed, and nearly one-fourth of those of native parentage, including all who had stepfathers, had lost their own fathers by death.

Not all children, however, from families in which conditions might seem to indicate economic pressure, stated, when asked why they were leaving school, that their earnings were needed at home; and on the other hand, either because of large families, low earnings of the fathers, illness, or some other reason, many children from normal families gave this as their reason for going to work. Economic need was given as a reason for leaving school by only two-fifths of all the children interviewed as compared with more than half of those whose fathers were dead or not living with their families, with not far from three-fifths of those whose mothers were employed, and with over three-fourths of those whose fathers were unemployed.

That girls, particularly native girls of native parentage, are less likely than boys to go to work unless their earnings are actually needed, appears to be indicated by the fact that nearly half of the girls, but little more than one-third of the boys, stated that they were leaving school because of the economic necessities of their families.

On the other hand, one-fifth of all the children interviewed stated that their reason for leaving was that they were discontented with school, either because they disliked their school or their teacher, or because of slow progress or failure to receive a promotion. To these children may be added the one-eighth who said, when asked why they left school, that they wished to work, and also perhaps the small proportion, 4 per cent, who had finished the eighth grade and did not wish to go on to high school.

² Estimated from the mortality during 14 years of males aged 30 as given in United States Life Tables, 1910. The estimate is purposely slightly overstated in assuming a rather higher average age of fathers at the births of their children and in assuming that the mortality of males applies to married males.

Retardation.

IF a child began school at 6 and continued steadily without repeating grades he would have completed the grammar-school course by the time he was 14. Yet little more than half of the 14 and 15 year old children who took out certificates in Boston, Cambridge, Somerville, and Chelsea had completed the eighth or a higher grade in a regular school. Within more recent years the proportion of children taking out certificates in Boston who had completed the eighth or a higher grade has been between 55 and 60 per cent. Between September 1, 1914, and August 31, 1918, moreover, some tendency was shown for the proportion who had completed high school or other grades above the eighth to increase. This may be due partly, however, to an increase in the proportion of children who worked only during vacations or out of school hours.

Actual retardation, measured on the conservative scale adopted for this report,³ appears to have been decidedly more common among the children who left school for work before their sixteenth birthdays than among other Boston children 14 and 15 years of age. Over three-tenths of the children who took out certificates in Boston for work during school hours were found to be retarded; yet according to the report of the Immigration Commission, in December, 1908, only about two-tenths of the children in the fifth, sixth, seventh, and eighth grades of the Boston schools, the grades from which most of the children included in this study left school, were retarded. Although this comparison can be considered as only roughly indicative of the true situation, there appears no doubt that considering all school children, regardless of nativity or nationality, those who are retarded in their school work are more likely than those who are in normal or higher than normal grades for their ages to leave school for work.

Children who were in normal, and especially those who were in higher than normal grades for their ages appear, on the other hand, when they worked at all, to have sought employment during vacations or out of school hours, rather than to have left school. Only one-sixth of the vacation workers, as compared with more than three-tenths of the regular workers, were retarded; and a surprisingly large proportion, over three-tenths, of the vacation workers, as compared with less than one-tenth of the regular workers, had completed higher grades than normal for their ages. About half of the vacation workers but less than half of the regular workers had completed normal grades.

Nor was the high percentage of retardation among the regular workers due entirely to the comparatively large proportion of children of foreign birth among those who left school for industry before they were 16. Even of the native children for whom continuation school records were taken—all regular workers—more than one-fourth had failed to attain a normal grade, a decidedly higher proportion than the Immigration Commission found in the Boston schools in 1908. The corresponding proportion for foreign-born children, however, was nearly half and for Italian children it was not far from two-thirds.

³In this report a child was classified as having completed a normal grade for his age if, at 13 years of age, he had completed the sixth or seventh grade, at 14 the seventh or eighth, and at 15 the eighth grade or the first year of high school.

Positions Held Before Leaving School.

MANY of the children who left school for work before their sixteenth birthdays had also worked during vacation periods or out of school hours before leaving school. Some of this work was done after they were 14 years of age, but many of the interviewed children, who were questioned as to all the positions they had ever held, were found to have worked before they were 14 when, of course, they could not secure certificates. Not all this work, however, was illegal, for in some cases it was in occupations in which children were permitted to work under 14 during vacations or outside school hours, and in others street trades licenses, which boys could get at 12 years of age, had been secured.

The children interviewed, it should be remembered, were decidedly younger when they left school for work than was the average child taking his first regular position, so that they had had comparatively little time for vacation work. Nevertheless, about two-fifths of all these children, and nearly three-fifths of the boys, had been employed before leaving school; and all but 46 of the 324 who had been employed had begun their vacation work before they were 14, at least 40 before 12, and 12 before 10 years of age. Comparatively few girls, only about one-eighth, worked before leaving school, and a much larger proportion of them than of the boys secured their first school positions, i. e., positions held while they were still in school, after they were 14, and worked only during a vacation period.

Opportunities to work before or after school hours or on Saturdays during school term at such occupations as street trading, odd jobs and outdoor work appear to have been much more common for boys than for girls. Because of these opportunities and also because most of the boys took their first school positions before they were 14 years of age when factory and mechanical occupations were closed to them by law, nearly nine-tenths of the boys who worked before leaving school were first engaged in occupations classed as "clerical occupations, wrapping, selling, and delivery of goods." Over two-fifths of these first school positions held by boys were occupations involving selling, generally as newsboys or peddlers' helpers. But an even larger proportion, 46.1 per cent, were for messenger, errand, and delivery work.

The work done before leaving school appears to have been less desultory and irregular than might be expected. Two-thirds of the children who worked before leaving school had held only one school position, though over one-fifth had held two, nearly one-tenth three, and nine boys, 2.8 per cent of the total number of children, four or more positions each. More than one-third of these positions lasted less than three months. But a surprisingly large proportion, 30.2 per cent, lasted for a year or more and nearly one-sixth for two years or more. Over half of all the positions held by both sexes in which the hours were from 24 to 48 a week were held for less than three months, and most of these were vacation positions. Nevertheless, practically one-fifth of these positions in which the hours were from 24 to 48 a week were held for a year or over, and almost one-fourth of the positions in which the hours were from 12 to 24 a week lasted for two years or more.

Among the children who were interviewed, vacation work meant in most cases work before the fourteenth birthday, which was performed without having secured employment certificates. In other words it meant work performed at an age and under conditions when it might most logically be expected to have an influence upon standing in school. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that a larger proportion of the children who had worked than of those who had not worked before leaving school, were retarded, and that a smaller proportion had completed higher grades than normal for their ages. Nor is it surprising to find that work during school term appears to have had more serious effects on school standing than work done at any other time.

Occupational Distribution After Leaving School.

THE occupations in which children between 14 and 16 years of age could be employed were, of course, decidedly restricted by their ages, lack of physical strength, and lack of education and experience. To a certain extent they were also restricted by law, particularly by the provisions in regard to hours, continuation-school attendance, and employment on machines. As a result, most of the positions held by the children studied were for simple mechanical tasks or for running errands or carrying articles either inside or outside the establishment. Although none of these positions required any real skill, some of them permitted the development of a certain dexterity and others made it possible for the child to acquire a little practical knowledge of the business apart from his own small task. A few of them doubtless offered opportunities for promotion to more skilled or responsible positions if the child remained, which he rarely did, until he grew older. In the vast majority of cases, however, the occupation was not of such a character as to offer either a future in itself or training for any other occupation by which the child could hope to earn a living as an adult.

About two-thirds of all the positions held by children who took out certificates in the four cities were for "clerical occupations, wrapping, selling or delivery of goods, etc." and most of the others were for factory or mechanical occupations. The most important of the clerical and similar occupations was messenger, errand and delivery work, which alone furnished nearly one-third of all these positions; and next most important was cash and messenger work in department stores which furnished about one-eighth. Office work accounted for 7.3 per cent; packing, wrapping, labeling, and shipping-room work for 6.8 per cent; and selling for 4.1 per cent.

The increase in child labor which, as already noted, occurred in Boston during the war period, appears to have been more conspicuous in factories than in workshops, stores or other places.

Among the children included in this study considerable difference was found in the occupational distribution of boys and of girls. More than half of the certificates taken out by boys in the four cities were for messenger, errand and delivery work, and nearly nine-tenths of the certificates taken out for this kind of work were held by boys. Although less than one-tenth of the positions held by boys were for office work, this occupation also showed a preponderance of boys,

who held not far from three-fourths of the office work certificates. Boys also held nine-tenths of the positions as apprentices and helpers in skilled trades.

On the other hand, nearly half of the certificates taken out by girls were for work as operatives in factories, and nearly seven-tenths of the certificates taken out for this kind of work were held by girls. In clothing factories and other needle trades a particularly large proportion, 94.3 per cent, of the positions were held by girls. Girls also preponderated in cash and messenger work in department stores and in packing, wrapping, labeling, and shipping-room work. More than one-sixth of the girls' positions were for cash and messenger work in department stores, and girls held three-fifths of the positions for this kind of work. Similarly one-eighth of the girls' positions were for packing, wrapping, labeling, and shipping-room work, and girls held four-fifths of the positions for this kind of work.

Decided differences were found in the tendencies shown by native and by foreign-born children, and also by children from different foreign countries toward various occupations. Owing primarily to a decidedly larger proportion of foreign-born than of native children who secured their first positions in clothing factories and other needle trades, the foreign-born children, especially the Italians, showed a greater tendency to begin their industrial careers in factory and mechanical occupations. This difference was particularly pronounced among the girls. The native children, on the other hand, showed a greater tendency than the foreign born to enter all the occupations classified as clerical, wrapping, selling, and delivery of goods, except "selling" and "packing, wrapping, labeling, and shipping-room work."

Among the native children were included, however, many whose fathers were foreign born. These children tended to resemble in their choice of occupations those whose fathers also were native more closely than they resembled foreign-born children. Nevertheless, they distinctly tended to modify the tendencies shown by native children of native parentage. The contrast, therefore, between the foreign-born children and the native children whose fathers also were native was in most cases even more pronounced than that between the foreign born and the entire group of native children.

Children who were behind in their school work showed a greater tendency than did normal or advanced children to enter factory and mechanical occupations, and also to take positions involving "selling" or "packing, wrapping, labeling, and shipping-room work," and to enter personal and domestic occupations. In spite of the fact that the younger children showed less tendency than the older to begin work as factory operatives, it appears that in general the lower the grade a child had completed in school the more likely was he to begin his industrial career in such an occupation. Actual retardation seems, as would be expected, to have had the same effect. Children from higher grades than normal for their ages showed, on the other hand, a decidedly greater tendency than other groups to go into offices and also into cash and messenger work in department stores. These differences in occupational distribution between normal and retarded children appear in the main to coincide with the differences already

pointed out between the occupational tendencies of native and foreign-born children.

Few of these children—less than one-tenth of those in the continuation school and a still smaller proportion of those who were interviewed—secured their first positions through any agency or bureau organized for the purpose of securing employment. And of those who did make use of such an organization more than half were placed by private employment agencies. The Boston Placement Bureau, which had offices in the building where the certificate office was located and on the same floor, worked mainly among high-school graduates and children over 16 years of age who were applying for educational certificates, and as a result secured first positions for only 54, or 1.6 per cent, of the 3,399 children in the Boston continuation school. The State employment office, moreover, secured first positions for only 31 of these children. The day schools, indeed, most of which had vocational counselors but did not attempt to find positions, appear to have been more important as placement agencies than any other public organization; yet the fact that they secured first positions for only 2.1 per cent of the continuation school and 0.4 per cent of the interviewed children shows that their influence was slight and was mainly among the older boys and girls.

Length of Service in First Regular Position.

CONSIDERABLE difference was found between occupations in the length of time during which children remained in their positions. In studying this subject only the first regular positions held by children interviewed were considered, for later positions were too frequently not terminated and the exact length of positions was not known for the other groups of children. The largest proportion of short-time positions was found in cash and messenger work in department stores. More than half of these positions, and not far from three-fifths of those held by girls, lasted less than one month. Positions as operatives in clothing factories and other needle trades were also likely to be of short duration. Over two-fifths of these positions, and a still larger proportion of those held by girls, lasted less than three months. More than half of the clothing factory positions which were terminated within three months lasted, however, more than one month. Though the work in clothing factories is seasonal, the rush seasons are much longer than department store "sales," and this fact is evidently reflected in the comparative length of positions held in the two occupations.

Of the children interviewed, all regular workers, nearly one-fourth held only one position in a year or more of work history, and were therefore classified as "steady"; a somewhat larger proportion held, on an average, one position within each period of from six months to one year, and were classified as "active"; about one-third held new positions on an average within each period of from three to six months, and were classified as "restless"; and a comparatively small proportion, less than one-tenth, held new positions on an average within each period of less than three months, and were classified as "unsteady."

The steady workers appear to have been decidedly less likely to be retarded in their school work than those who shifted their positions frequently. The largest proportion of retarded children, about two-fifths, was found among those classed as "restless," but nearly as large a proportion appeared among the considerably smaller number classed as "unsteady." On the other hand, only about one-fourth of the "steady" workers had failed to attain a normal grade. Apparently children who were behind in their school work were more likely than were those from normal or higher than normal grades for their ages to make frequent changes in their positions after going to work.

Unemployment.

In regard to unemployment, only children who had been at work one year or more were considered, as those with shorter work histories may not have had a normal amount of unemployment. Among these children the proportion of unemployed time was 14.4 per cent. The highest percentage of unemployment for any sex and nativity group was 22.9 for the native girls whose fathers also were native. This peculiarity appears to be due to a greater tendency on the part of the native girls, and especially those of native parentage, to work only when they could secure the more attractive positions, for, as already shown, these girls more frequently than any other group tended to take temporary positions, especially for cash and messenger work in department stores, and were consequently out of work a great deal of the time.

The children who had held only one position within a year or more of work history, those called "steady" workers, naturally had very little unemployment. Among these children, indeed, the percentage of unemployed time was almost negligible, only 2.7. Among the "active" workers this percentage rose to 15.1, but it was more than doubled among the "unsteady" workers, who were unemployed during more than one-third, 34.9 per cent, of their work histories. Even the "restless" workers were unemployed for more than one-fifth of their time.

Wages.

NOT far from three-fourths of the children interviewed received less than \$5 initial weekly wages in their first regular positions. As only 5.1 per cent made less than \$3 the initial weekly wages of the great majority, 68.4 per cent, were from \$3 to \$5. Wages of from \$4 to \$5 were more common than those of from \$3 to \$4. The latter amounts were received by little more than one-fourth and the former by over two-fifths of the children.

The initial weekly wages of the boys were decidedly higher than those of the girls. Nearly half of the boys but only about one-third of the girls earned \$4 but less than \$5, while about one-fifth of the boys and only one-twentieth of the girls earned \$5 but less than \$6. Less than \$3 weekly wages were received by about one-twelfth of the girls, but by only 2.5 per cent of the boys.

Foreign-born children, both boys and girls, appear to have received higher initial weekly wages than native children of either native or foreign-born fathers. Almost one-third of the foreign boys earned \$5 or more, as compared with less than one-fourth of the

native sons of native and of foreign-born fathers. This appears to have been due to the fact that foreign-born children, particularly boys, much more frequently worked long hours, i. e., over 48 a week, than did children of any other nativity group.

Advancement in school work seems to have exercised a favorable influence over the children's initial weekly wages in their first regular positions. About one-fourth of the children from higher than normal grades for their ages received \$5 or more, as compared with about one-sixth of those from normal grades and with an even smaller proportion of the retarded children. The same tendency was shown by both boys and girls.

Wages in factory and mechanical occupations were higher for both boys and girls than in clerical and other similar occupations. The difference between these two main groups of occupations was due primarily to the unusually low wages received by both sexes, but particularly by girls, in positions for cash and messenger work in department stores. The most frequent wages for this occupation were \$3 but less than \$4, and less than \$5 a week was received in nearly nine-tenths of all these positions and in over nine-tenths of those held by girls. Office work showed the highest proportion of positions in which the initial weekly wages were \$5 or more, but the positions held by boys in messenger, errand, and delivery work, like those in cash and messenger work in department stores, carried lower wages than positions in the entire group of clerical and other similar occupations.

Both because of increases in particular positions and because of changes in positions, before the date of the interview many of the children were earning more than in their first regular positions. Of those who had been at work for a year or more the great majority, 69.4 per cent, were receiving higher, and a very small proportion, only 5.9 per cent, lower wages when interviewed than when they began work. In the majority of cases these increases amounted to less than \$2 per week, the largest number being in the group \$1 but less than \$2. Although the foreign-born children had the advantage in initial weekly wages, in wage promotions they appear not to have been so well off as the native children, and particularly as the native children of native parentage.

Retardation appears to have exercised an unfavorable influence, not only over initial weekly wages, but also over wage increases. Only about three-fifths of the retarded children, as compared with nearly three-fourths of the children from normal grades and with more than three-fourths of those from higher grades than normal for their ages, received increases in wages between their first regular positions and the date of the interview.

The figures for wage increases in connection with average duration of positions seem to indicate that frequent changes are not desirable. The "steady" workers, it was found, were more likely than any other group of children to receive increases. Although these wage increases among the "steady" workers may have been due in part to the fact already shown that these children were less frequently than any other group retarded in their school studies, it appears probable at least that the children who change their positions frequently are not the ones who secure most rapid advancement in wages.

Average Monthly Earnings.

The average monthly earnings, which depend not only upon weekly wages and increases in weekly wages but also upon the amount of unemployment, differed for children who had been at work more and for those who had been at work less than one year. For those who had been at work for a year or more the average monthly earnings of both sexes were \$16.68. The boys, as would be expected from their higher initial weekly wages and their lower percentage of unemployment, had larger monthly earnings than the girls, \$17.90, as compared with \$15.06. But the higher initial wages of foreign-born boys were not sufficient to counterbalance their comparative failure to secure wage advances and their high percentage—16.9 per cent—of unemployment. The highest average monthly earnings, therefore—\$18.44—were received by the native boys whose fathers also were native. The native girls of native parentage, on the other hand, who were unemployed nearly one-fourth of their time, received lower average monthly earnings—\$13.98—than any other group.

The children who had completed normal grades for their ages received, owing to their higher initial wages, their greater success in obtaining increases and their smaller amount of unemployment, decidedly higher average monthly earnings than did the retarded children, \$17.24 as compared with \$15.35. For the same reasons the advanced children received slightly higher monthly earnings, \$17.34, than did the normal children.

Decided differences in average monthly earnings corresponding to those in percentages of time unemployed were found between the "steady," "active," "restless," and "unsteady" workers. For example, the "steady" workers made nearly twice as much—\$19.54—on an average as the "unsteady" workers—\$10.71. Less difference was found among the boys, but the average monthly earnings of the "steady" girls were \$18.15, as compared with only \$7.30 earned by the "unsteady" girls.

Incidence of Sickness or Accident.

EVERY child interviewed was questioned in regard to all cases of sickness or accident which had occurred to him between the time he took his first regular position and the date of the interview, and the records of the Massachusetts Accident Board were searched for reports of accidents to these children. The information given by the children has, of course, no medical value and is probably not even complete. Nevertheless, from these two sources a rough estimate at least could be obtained of the number of cases of sickness or accident and the amount of time which they caused the children to lose from work.

At least one case of sickness since leaving school for work was reported by more than one-third of the children interviewed. A larger proportion of the girls than of the boys reported sickness.

Accidents were not so common as was sickness. Nevertheless, nearly 1 child out of every 12 had suffered some accident, either in the course of his work or otherwise, since taking his first regular position. Although the boys did not so often suffer from sickness as did the girls, they appear to have been decidedly more liable to

accidents. Sixty accidents—about seven-tenths of the entire number—occurred while the children were at work. Of the accidents which occurred to boys alone, however, only about 6 in every 10 occurred during the course of employment. Probably because of the fact that girls more often than boys were employed in machine work, most of their accidents, but only a few of those to boys, were caused by machinery. On the other hand, the more frequent employment of boys in messenger, errand, and delivery work is reflected in the fact that nine of their accidents, but none of those to girls, were caused by elevators or vehicles.

Employment In Violation of Child-Labor Law.

THE story of child labor in Boston presented in this report, except for the work of interviewed children before leaving school, covers a period of three years, at the very beginning of which there went into effect a series of acts not only establishing higher standards for child labor, but making important changes in the employment-certificate system and reorganizing completely the labor-law enforcement machinery of the State of Massachusetts. These three years include a period during which employers, parents, and children had to be educated to an understanding of a new law which required that employment certificates be secured for each separate position, that the hours of children be limited to eight a day, and that working children attend continuation school. This education, too, had to be given mainly by an agency which was itself in process of organization and which had many other heavy responsibilities.

These conditions, as well as the fact that the information as to violations rests entirely upon the unverifiable statements of the children, should be considered in connection with the cases of violation of child-labor laws discovered in the course of this study. At the same time it should be remembered that for many years in Massachusetts certificates of some sort had been required for the employment of children and in many, if not most, occupations their hours had been limited to 10 a day and 54 or 58 a week. Moreover, not only did there seem no reason to doubt that in most instances the child's statement was substantially correct, but in case of the slightest doubt the work was classified as legal. The figures, therefore, include only positive cases of violation of some provision of the child-labor law. Violations of the school attendance or continuation school attendance laws were not considered.

Failure to comply with the provisions of the child labor law were particularly common in positions held before the children left school for work. About three-fifths of the children who worked before leaving school had violated one or more of the provisions of the child-labor law in one or more of their school positions. In many school positions more than one violation occurred. Employment under legal age was the most common and accounted for about two-fifths of the entire number. Next came night work, which accounted for not far from one-third. Both these were especially common in messenger, errand, and delivery work, in which boys were often employed as delivery boys for small stores and as peddlers' helpers on Saturdays and after school hours.

Even in their regular positions practically half of the children were employed at some time in violation of some provision of the child labor law. And as in the case of school positions, a considerably larger proportion of boys than of girls, 57.7 per cent as compared with 39 per cent, were illegally employed.

Although only one child in every twenty had worked in his first regular position without the certificate required by law, more than one in every eight had worked illegally without a certificate in at least one position before the date of the interview. Evidently the children were more likely to violate the law in this way in later than in first positions—a fact which suggests that some at least of these violations may have been due to lack of familiarity with the new law which required a separate certificate for each position. Often, however, in positions for which certificates were eventually secured, they were not taken out until the children had been at work for some time. For instance, about one-tenth of the children did not take out certificates for their first regular positions until they had been at work more than 10 days. In many cases these children may have been found at work by school attendance officers or factory inspectors who ordered that they secure employment certificates or be discharged.

Five provisions of law, one of the school-attendance law and four of the labor law, related to hours of labor. A child could work too short hours (less than 6 a day or 36 a week, while school was in session) to be legally entitled to exemption from school attendance. On the other hand, he could work too long hours, either by the day or by the week; and he could be employed at night or seven days a week. Each kind of violation could occur in combination with other kinds.

One or more of these five legal provisions as to hours was broken in over one-fifth of all the regular positions held by the children interviewed. Moreover, violations did not usually occur singly. In about three-fourths of all the positions in which any violation occurred more than one provision of the law was broken, and in over one-fourth three or four provisions were broken. In four cases children were employed in violation of all four provisions of the labor law, too long hours a day and a week, at night, and seven days a week.

The most common violation was too long daily hours, and the next was too long weekly hours. In over one-sixth of all the positions held the provisions of law relating to daily hours were violated, and in about one-seventh those relating to weekly hours were violated. Usually too long daily hours meant also too long weekly hours. Frequently, too, when children were employed for too many hours daily or weekly, or both, they were also employed at night, and occasionally they were required to work seven days a week. In about one position in twelve the children were employed in violation of the night-work provision, but in only about one in a hundred were they employed in violation of the seven-day provision of the law. In a few positions—about one in fifty—they worked less than the 6 hours a day or 36 a week required for exemption from school attendance, and in some of these cases too short weekly hours were combined with too long daily hours or too short daily or weekly hours with night work.

In 36 positions (also about one in every fifty), although no violation was found because the law limiting hours did not apply to the

particular occupations, the hours were excessive—i. e., longer than permitted by the law in occupations which it covered.

Condition of Children Studied, After Three Years of Work.

WHEN the children answered the questionnaire sent them in December, 1918, they were all from 17 to 19 years of age and were therefore still minors and subject to certain restrictions in hours and occupations as well as to the requirement that in most positions they hold educational certificates. They were no longer, however, subject to the eight-hour law or obliged to attend continuation school, and their choice of occupations was wide as compared with the choice they had before they became 16.

Wider opportunities, combined with the greater strength and experience which the children must have acquired during these three years, are doubtless responsible for their drift away from messenger, errand, and delivery work and from cash and messenger work in department stores. The first of these occupations accounted for only about one-sixteenth of the positions held in 1918 as compared with not far from two-fifths of those held before the date of the interview; and the last accounted for little more than one in a hundred of those held in 1918, as compared with about one in nine of those held before the date of the interview.

At the same time the proportion in factory and mechanical occupations rose from less than one-third before the interview to considerably over half three years later. This tendency to enter factory and mechanical occupations as they grew older was particularly pronounced among the boys, and was due in large part to their employment as apprentices or helpers in skilled trades—an occupation from which they had been in most industries debarred before their sixteenth birthdays by the legal prohibition of work on or about dangerous machinery. In nearly three-tenths of their positions in 1918, as compared with less than one-fortieth of those which they held before the date of the interview, the boys were employed as apprentices or helpers in skilled trades. Even in factory operative positions, however, perhaps also because of the removal of legal restrictions, there was a decided increase in the proportion of positions held by both boys and girls.

The differences in occupational distribution between retarded and normal children appears to have increased, instead of diminished, as the children grew older. The proportion of positions in factory and mechanical occupations held by children who had been in normal grades for their ages when they left school increased 62.9 per cent between the date of the interview and 1918. During the same period, however, the proportion held in these occupations by children who had been retarded when they left school increased 72.2 per cent. Conversely the normal children showed a greater tendency than did the retarded children to remain in clerical and other similar occupations. This was especially true of office work, in which in 1918 only about one in a hundred of the retarded children, but nearly one in five of the normal children was found.

As for wages, the children from normal grades for their ages appear to have continued to hold three years later the advantage which

they were found to have had before they were interviewed. The wage increases, moreover, during the three years following the interviews were large as compared with those between the first and last regular positions before the children were interviewed. All the children reported higher weekly wages in 1918 than when interviewed, and more than half reported increases of \$10 or more.

Conclusion.

IN CONCLUSION, this study appears to show that for the child workers who had definitely left school for industry the period between the date of leaving school and the sixteenth birthday was in nearly all cases almost, if not completely, wasted, and that for many it was worse than wasted. Equipped with at best only a rudimentary education and guided, except in rare instances, only by chance, these children were necessarily excluded by law from all trades involving the use of dangerous machinery, and by their own ignorance and inexperience from practically all other occupations which would offer them any opportunity to acquire either mental or manual skill. In the vast majority of cases even the little dexterity which they might have obtained in a position was soon lost because as they grew older they passed on from their children's tasks to entirely different occupations.

Thus, with no opportunity to acquire industrial experience of any real value, these children drifted about restlessly from one simple task or errand position to another, on the one hand often unemployed for long periods, and on the other hand frequently obliged to work excessively, and generally illegally, long hours or at night—all for wages which averaged only \$16.68 a month. Permanently handicapped, in most cases for life, by an educational training inadequate either to make them adaptable to the changing industrial conditions of modern life, or to give them the background necessary for an understanding of the duties of citizenship, they were subjected also to positive damage from irregular habits of work, from labor unadapted to their needs and capacities, and from unsuitable associations and environments.

The problems here studied are those of practically all the larger cities of the United States, and the main facts shown, with only slight modifications due to local conditions, are probably as true of other cities as of Boston. Massachusetts, indeed, through its continuation school law, its law requiring evening school attendance of all minors who are unable to read and write English; its eight-hour law and other acts, has done more to improve conditions than most other States. Since the period of this study, moreover, Massachusetts has raised the educational requirement for employment under 16 to completion of the sixth grade, has elaborated its certificate system, has made compulsory continuation school attendance State wide, and has made special efforts to enforce the physical requirements for an employment certificate. Nevertheless, although the degree of damage caused by employment is thus doubtless somewhat reduced, even a child who is in perfect health and has completed the sixth grade is very poorly equipped to assume the burdens of adult life.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

THE 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 October 15 and November 15, 1920, and on November 15, 1919, as well as the percentage changes in the month and in the year. For example, the price of rice on November 15, 1919, was 17.6 cents; on October 15, 1920, 16.1 cents; and on November 15, 1920, 14.2 cents. These figures show decreases of 19 per cent in the year and 12 per cent in the month.

The cost of 22 food articles,² combined, showed an increase of 1 per cent in November, 1920, as compared with November, 1919, but a decrease of 2.5 per cent in November, 1920, as compared with October, 1920.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, NOV. 15, 1920, COMPARED WITH NOV. 15, 1919, AND OCT. 15, 1920.

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

Article.	Unit.	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (—) Nov. 15, 1920, compared with—	
		Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.
		<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>		
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	39.3	44.5	43.5	+11	— 2
Round steak.....	do.....	36.2	41.9	39.6	+ 9	— 5
Rib roast.....	do.....	30.2	33.3	32.6	+ 8	— 2
Chuck roast.....	do.....	24.2	25.9	25.3	+ 5	— 2
Plate beef.....	do.....	17.3	17.8	17.7	+ 2	— 1
Pork chops.....	do.....	42.1	49.9	44.1	+ 5	—12
Bacon.....	do.....	51.0	54.6	53.0	+ 4	— 3
Ham.....	do.....	50.5	59.8	57.1	+13	— 5
Lamb.....	do.....	33.4	37.9	37.1	+11	— 2
Hens.....	do.....	39.2	43.9	42.9	+ 9	— 2
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	35.7	39.0	38.8	+ 9	— 1
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	16.4	17.3	17.3	+ 5	0
Milk, evaporated.....	15-16 oz. can.....	16.8	15.3	15.1	—10	— 1
Butter.....	Pound.....	75.4	68.9	69.4	— 8	+ 1
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	43.0	41.5	41.0	— 5	— 1
Nut margarine.....	do.....	35.8	35.7	35.3	— 1	— 1
Cheese.....	do.....	43.0	40.6	39.8	— 7	— 2
Lard.....	do.....	36.5	29.2	28.9	—21	— 1
Crisco.....	do.....	37.8	32.1	31.4	—17	— 2

¹ In addition to monthly retail prices of food and coal, the Bureau secures prices of gas and dry goods from each of 51 cities and publishes these prices as follows: Gas in the June issue and dry goods in the April, July, October, and December issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

² The 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 figures.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE, NOV. 15, 1920, COMPARED WITH NOV. 15, 1919, AND OCT. 15, 1920—Concluded.

Articles.	Unit.	Average retail price on—			Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (–) Nov. 15, 1920, compared with—	
		Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.
		<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>	<i>Cents.</i>		
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	81.0	80.8	86.1	+ 6	+ 7
Eggs, storage.....	do.....	61.8	64.4	66.2	+ 7	+ 3
Bread.....	Pound.....	10.2	11.8	11.6	+14	- 2
Flour.....	do.....	7.4	7.8	7.3	- 1	- 6
Corn meal.....	do.....	6.6	6.5	5.9	-11	- 9
Rolled oats.....	do.....	9.2	11.6	11.5	+25	- 1
Corn flakes.....	8-oz. pkg.....	14.1	14.4	14.3	+ 1	- 1
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.....	25.2	30.4	30.4	+21	0
Macaroni.....	Pound.....	19.6	22.0	22.0	+12	0
Rice.....	do.....	17.6	16.1	14.2	-19	-12
Beans, navy.....	do.....	12.3	10.9	10.0	-19	- 8
Potatoes.....	do.....	3.9	3.4	3.3	-15	- 3
Onions.....	do.....	6.9	4.7	4.3	-38	- 9
Cabbage.....	do.....	4.5	3.6	3.5	-22	- 3
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can.....	17.0	16.7	16.5	- 3	- 1
Corn, canned.....	do.....	18.9	18.5	18.3	- 3	- 1
Peas, canned.....	do.....	19.1	19.2	19.0	- 1	- 1
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	16.1	14.5	13.7	-15	- 6
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound.....	12.5	13.9	12.9	+ 3	- 7
Tea.....	do.....	71.3	72.4	73.6	+ 3	+ 2
Coffee.....	do.....	48.9	43.4	41.3	-16	- 5
Prunes.....	do.....	30.2	27.9	27.1	-10	- 3
Raisins.....	do.....	22.7	31.4	32.3	+42	+ 3
Bananas.....	Dozen.....	39.9	47.2	46.6	+17	- 1
Oranges.....	do.....	54.2	71.3	67.4	+24	- 5
22 weighted articles ¹					+ 1	- 2.5

¹ See note 2, p. 60.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on November 15 of each year, 1913 to 1920, together with the percentage changes in November of each year compared with November, 1913. For example, the price of rice, as compared with the price in November, 1913, showed the following increases: 1 per cent in 1914; 3 per cent in 1915; 5 per cent in 1916; 31 per cent in 1917; 61 per cent in 1918; 102 per cent in 1919; and 63 per cent in 1920.

The cost of 22 food articles, combined, showed an increase of 85 per cent in November, 1920, as compared with November, 1913.

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

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

Article.	Unit.	Average retail prices Nov. 15—								Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) Nov. 15 of each specified year compared with Nov. 15, 1913.							
		1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.								
Sirloin steak..	Pound	25.4	25.5	25.6	27.0	31.6	40.5	39.3	43.5	+0.4	+	1	+ 6	+ 24	+ 59	+ 55	+ 71
Round steak..	do.	22.8	23.4	22.8	24.1	29.7	38.5	36.2	39.6	+ 3	0	+ 6	+ 30	+ 69	+ 59	+ 74	
Rib roast.....	do.	19.8	20.3	20.1	21.0	25.1	32.0	30.2	32.6	+ 3	+ 2	+ 6	+ 27	+ 62	+ 53	+ 65	
Chuck roast..	do.	16.3	16.7	15.9	17.1	21.1	27.5	24.2	25.3	+ 2	- 2	+ 5	+ 29	+ 69	+ 48	+ 55	
Plate beef.....	do.	12.4	12.7	11.9	12.8	16.2	21.2	17.3	17.7	+ 2	- 4	+ 3	+ 31	+ 71	+ 40	+ 43	
Pork chops....	do.	21.5	21.8	20.8	23.4	34.6	43.3	42.1	44.1	+ 1	- 3	+ 9	+ 61	+ 101	+ 96	+ 105	
Bacon.....	do.	27.2	28.2	27.4	29.9	48.4	58.3	51.0	53.0	+ 4	+ 1	+ 10	+ 78	+ 114	+ 88	+ 95	
Ham.....	do.	26.9	27.4	26.8	30.6	42.6	52.4	50.5	57.1	+ 2	- 0.4	+ 14	+ 58	+ 95	+ 88	+ 112	
Lamb.....	do.	18.5	19.2	19.8	22.2	30.1	35.1	33.4	37.1	+ 4	+ 7	+ 20	+ 63	+ 90	+ 81	+ 101	
Hens.....	do.	20.6	20.6	20.3	23.9	29.4	39.3	39.2	42.9	0	- 1	+ 16	+ 43	+ 91	+ 90	+ 108	
S a l m o n , canned.	do.			19.8	20.8	28.7	31.3	35.7	38.8								
Milk, fresh....	Quart.	9.1	9.0	8.9	9.7	12.8	15.4	16.4	17.3	- 1	- 2	+ 7	+ 41	+ 69	+ 80	+ 90	
Milk, evapor- ated.	15-16oz. can.							16.8	15.1								
Butter.....	Pound	38.7	39.3	36.5	43.6	52.7	66.8	75.4	69.4	+ 2	- 6	+ 13	+ 36	+ 73	+ 95	+ 79	
Oleomargarine	do.							43.0	41.0								
Nutmargarine	do.							35.8	35.3								
Cheese.....	do.	22.5	23.0	23.1	29.2	34.5	40.6	43.0	39.8	+ 2	+ 3	+ 30	+ 53	+ 80	+ 91	+ 77	
Lard.....	do.	15.9	15.6	14.5	21.4	32.7	34.2	36.5	28.9	- 2	- 9	+ 35	+ 106	+ 115	+ 130	+ 82	
Crisco.....	do.							37.8	31.4								
Eggs, strictly fresh.	Dozen.	49.7	45.1	45.9	51.4	58.1	74.1	81.0	86.1	- 9	- 8	+ 3	+ 17	+ 49	+ 63	+ 73	
Eggs, storage.	do.	34.3	31.3	31.1	38.7	44.7	54.1	61.8	66.2	- 9	- 9	+ 13	+ 30	+ 58	+ 80	+ 93	
Bread.....	Pound	5.6	6.4	6.9	8.4	9.9	9.8	10.2	11.6	+ 14	+ 23	+ 50	+ 77	+ 75	+ 82	+ 107	
Flour.....	do.	3.3	3.7	3.7	5.7	6.9	6.7	7.4	7.3	+ 12	+ 12	+ 73	+ 109	+ 103	+ 124	+ 121	
Corn meal.....	do.	3.1	3.3	3.2	3.8	7.1	6.5	6.6	5.9	+ 6	+ 3	+ 23	+ 129	+ 110	+ 113	+ 90	
Rollod oats..	do.							9.2	11.5								
Corn flakes...	8-oz. pkg.							14.1	14.3								
Cream of Wheat.	28-oz. pkg.							25.2	30.4								
Macaroni.....	Pound							19.6	22.0								
Rice.....	do.	8.7	8.8	9.0	9.1	11.4	14.0	17.6	14.2	+ 1	+ 3	+ 5	+ 31	+ 61	+ 102	+ 63	
Beans, navy..	do.			8.5	13.6	18.9	16.1	12.3	10.0								
Potatoes.....	do.	1.8	1.4	1.6	3.4	3.1	3.3	3.9	3.3	- 22	- 11	+ 89	+ 72	+ 83	+ 117	+ 83	
Onions.....	do.			3.3	5.1	5.8	4.0	6.9	4.3								
Cabbage.....	do.							4.5	3.5								
Beans, baked.	No. 2 can.							17.0	16.5								
Corn, canned	do.							18.9	18.3								
Peas, canned	do.							19.1	19.0								
Tomatoes, canned.	do.							16.1	13.7								
Sugar, granu- lated.	Pound	5.4	6.2	6.6	8.6	9.6	10.8	12.5	12.9	+ 15	+ 22	+ 59	+ 78	+ 100	+ 131	+ 139	
Tea.....	do.	54.5	54.7	54.6	54.6	61.8	67.9	71.3	73.6	+0.4	+0.2	+0.2	+ 13	+ 25	+ 31	+ 35	
Coffee.....	do.	29.8	29.6	29.9	29.9	30.3	30.8	48.9	41.3	- 1	+0.3	+0.3	+ 2	+ 3	+ 64	+ 39	
Prunes.....	do.			13.3	13.8	16.6	18.4	30.2	27.1								
Raisins.....	do.			12.5	13.7	14.8	15.8	22.7	32.3								
Bananas.....	Dozen							39.9	46.6								
Oranges.....	do.							54.2	67.4								
22 weighted articles. ²										+0.4	- 1	+ 19	+ 48	+ 75	+ 84	+ 85	

² See note 2, p. 60.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 articles of food as well as the changes in the amounts of the articles that could be purchased for \$1, each year, 1913 to 1919, and in November, 1920.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR \$1, 1913 TO NOVEMBER, 1920.

Year.	Sirloin steak.		Round steak.		Rib roast.		Chuck roast.		Plate beef.		Pork chops.	
	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.	Average retail price.	Amt. for \$1.
	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1913.....	\$0.254	3.9	\$0.223	4.5	\$0.198	5.1	\$0.160	6.3	\$0.121	8.3	\$0.210	4.8
1914.....	.259	3.9	.236	4.2	.204	4.9	.167	6.0	.126	7.9	.220	4.5
1915.....	.257	3.9	.230	4.3	.201	5.0	.161	6.2	.121	8.3	.203	4.9
1916.....	.273	3.7	.245	4.1	.212	4.7	.171	5.8	.128	7.8	.227	4.4
1917.....	.315	3.2	.290	3.4	.249	4.0	.209	4.8	.157	6.4	.319	3.1
1918.....	.389	2.6	.369	2.7	.307	3.3	.266	3.8	.206	4.9	.390	2.6
1919.....	.417	2.4	.389	2.6	.325	3.1	.270	3.7	.202	5.0	.423	2.4
1920: November	.435	2.3	.396	2.5	.326	3.1	.253	4.0	.177	5.6	.441	2.3
	Bacon.		Ham.		Lard.		Hens.		Eggs.		Butter.	
	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per dz.</i>	<i>Dozs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1913.....	\$0.270	3.7	\$0.269	3.7	\$0.158	6.3	\$0.213	4.7	\$0.345	2.9	\$0.383	2.6
1914.....	.275	3.6	.273	3.7	.156	6.4	.218	4.6	.353	2.8	.362	2.8
1915.....	.269	3.7	.261	3.8	.148	6.8	.208	4.8	.341	2.9	.358	2.8
1916.....	.287	3.5	.294	3.4	.175	5.7	.236	4.2	.375	2.7	.394	2.5
1917.....	.410	2.4	.382	2.6	.276	3.6	.286	3.5	.481	2.1	.487	2.1
1918.....	.529	1.9	.479	2.1	.333	3.0	.377	2.7	.569	1.8	.577	1.7
1919.....	.554	1.8	.534	1.9	.369	2.7	.411	2.4	.628	1.6	.678	1.5
1920: November	.630	1.9	.571	1.8	.289	3.5	.429	2.3	.861	1.2	.694	1.4
	Cheese.		Milk.		Bread.		Flour.		Corn meal.		Rice.	
	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per qt.</i>	<i>Qts.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>
1913.....	\$0.221	4.5	\$0.089	11.2	\$0.056	17.9	\$0.033	30.3	\$0.030	33.3	\$0.087	11.5
1914.....	.229	4.4	.089	11.2	.063	15.9	.034	29.4	.032	31.3	.088	11.4
1915.....	.232	4.3	.088	11.4	.070	14.3	.042	23.8	.033	30.3	.091	11.0
1916.....	.258	3.9	.091	11.0	.073	13.7	.044	22.7	.034	29.4	.091	11.0
1917.....	.332	3.0	.112	9.0	.092	10.9	.070	14.3	.058	17.2	.104	9.6
1918.....	.359	2.8	.139	7.2	.098	10.2	.067	14.9	.058	14.7	.129	7.8
1919.....	.426	2.3	.155	6.5	.100	10.0	.072	13.9	.064	15.6	.151	6.6
1920: November	.398	2.5	.173	5.8	.116	8.6	.073	13.7	.059	16.9	.142	7.0
	Potatoes.		Sugar.		Coffee.		Tea.					
	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>	<i>Per lb.</i>	<i>Lbs.</i>				
1913.....	\$0.017	58.8	\$0.055	18.2	\$0.298	3.4	\$0.544	1.8				
1914.....	.018	55.6	.059	16.9	.297	3.4	.546	1.8				
1915.....	.015	66.7	.066	15.2	.300	3.3	.545	1.8				
1916.....	.027	37.0	.080	12.5	.299	3.3	.546	1.8				
1917.....	.043	23.3	.093	10.8	.302	3.3	.582	1.7				
1918.....	.032	31.3	.097	10.3	.305	3.3	.648	1.5				
1919.....	.068	26.3	.113	8.8	.433	2.3	.701	1.4				
1920: November	.033	30.3	.103	9.7	.413	2.4	.736	1.4				

Relative Retail Prices of 22 Articles of Food.

IN Table 4 the average monthly and yearly prices of 22 food articles³ 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 numbers⁴ 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 198 in October and 193 in November. This shows that during the month from October to November there was a decrease of two and one-half per cent.

The curve shown in the chart on page 68 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 decreases in the cost of these articles since July brings the curve down in November to a point slightly above that in November, 1919. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale,⁵ because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

³ For list of articles, see note 2, p. 60.

⁴ For a discussion of the method used in the computation of these index figures, see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1920, p. 34.

⁵ 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. 29-34. Also, "The 'ratio' chart," by Prof. Irving Fisher, reprinted from Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association, June, 1917, 24 pp.

TABLE 4.—RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, 1907 TO NOVEMBER, 1920.

[Average for year 1913=100.]

Year and month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.	Plate beef.	Pork chops.	Ba- con.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes.	Su- gar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	22 weight- ed arti- cles.	
1907.....	71	68	76	74	74	76	81	81	84	85	87	95	88	105	105	82	
1908.....	73	71	78	76	77	78	80	83	86	86	90	102	92	111	108	84	
1909.....	77	74	81	83	83	82	90	89	93	90	91	109	94	112	107	89	
1910.....	80	78	85	92	95	91	104	94	98	94	95	108	95	101	109	93	
1911.....	81	79	85	85	91	89	88	91	93	88	96	103	94	130	111	92	
1912.....	91	89	94	91	91	94	93	99	99	98	97	115	102	132	115	98	
1913: Av. for year.	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
January.....	94	92	95	93	92	89	94	93	97	95	108	107	100	100	100	100	99	99	91	106	100	100	100	98
February.....	94	93	95	93	93	90	95	94	98	97	91	108	100	100	100	100	98	99	90	100	100	100	100	97
March.....	97	96	98	98	98	97	97	99	100	77	108	100	100	100	100	100	98	99	88	99	100	100	100	97
April.....	101	99	101	101	103	99	99	100	104	73	106	100	100	100	100	100	98	99	87	98	100	100	100	98
May.....	101	100	101	101	101	100	100	99	100	104	76	94	99	99	100	101	98	99	91	97	100	100	100	97
June.....	102	101	102	102	101	99	101	102	100	103	81	92	99	99	100	101	98	99	104	97	100	100	100	98
July.....	104	104	102	103	101	103	104	104	101	102	87	91	99	99	100	101	98	100	110	100	100	100	100	100
August.....	104	104	102	103	101	104	105	106	102	101	96	92	100	99	100	100	100	100	109	102	100	100	100	101
September.....	103	104	101	103	102	108	104	104	102	101	109	98	100	100	100	100	102	100	110	104	100	100	100	102
October.....	101	104	101	103	102	107	103	102	101	100	120	100	101	101	100	99	103	100	106	101	100	100	100	104
November.....	100	102	100	102	102	102	101	100	101	97	144	101	102	102	100	99	104	100	107	99	100	100	100	105
December.....	99	101	100	101	102	97	99	99	100	98	138	104	102	102	100	99	104	100	106	98	100	100	100	104
1914: Av. for year.	102	106	103	104	104	105	102	102	99	102	102	94	104	100	112	104	105	101	108	108	100	100	102	102
January.....	99	102	100	102	102	99	98	98	100	100	126	104	104	102	110	98	104	100	108	95	99	100	100	104
February.....	99	102	101	103	102	100	98	99	99	104	106	93	104	102	110	99	103	100	108	94	99	100	100	101
March.....	100	103	101	102	102	100	99	99	99	105	90	92	105	101	110	99	103	100	107	93	100	100	100	99
April.....	100	103	102	103	102	103	99	99	99	108	74	86	104	100	110	99	103	100	105	91	100	100	100	97
May.....	102	105	102	103	103	106	99	99	98	106	77	85	103	100	110	99	103	100	112	91	100	101	101	98
June.....	103	106	103	104	103	103	100	100	97	103	82	88	103	100	100	99	103	100	132	93	100	101	101	99
July.....	106	109	105	106	104	106	101	103	97	103	87	89	103	100	110	98	103	101	155	95	99	101	101	102
August.....	110	113	108	109	107	119	107	108	99	104	96	94	103	100	112	106	105	101	111	143	100	101	101	107
September.....	107	110	105	108	107	113	108	108	99	103	107	98	104	100	114	113	109	101	105	145	100	101	101	107
October.....	103	107	104	106	106	110	106	105	98	100	113	98	104	101	114	111	109	101	89	132	99	101	101	105
November.....	100	105	103	104	105	104	104	102	99	97	131	103	104	101	114	112	109	101	83	113	99	101	101	105
December.....	101	103	101	103	103	93	103	100	97	94	139	103	104	101	116	113	107	101	84	110	99	101	101	105
1915: Av. for year.	101	103	101	101	100	96	100	97	93	97	99	93	105	99	124	126	108	104	89	120	101	100	101	101
January.....	100	102	101	101	102	88	101	98	97	85	129	101	105	101	120	124	109	104	85	110	101	100	100	103
February.....	98	100	100	99	101	85	99	96	97	97	98	98	106	100	126	138	110	104	84	118	101	100	100	101
March.....	97	99	99	98	100	85	98	95	96	99	74	94	106	99	126	136	110	104	82	120	101	100	100	98
April.....	99	100	100	99	100	94	98	94	96	100	75	94	105	99	126	137	109	104	86	122	101	100	100	99

[95]

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

65

TABLE 4.—RELATIVE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, 1907 TO NOVEMBER, 1920—Concluded.

Year and month.	Sirloin steak.	Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.	Plate beef.	Pork chops.	Bacon.	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	Butter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Potatoes.	Sugar.	Coffee.	Tea.	22 weighted articles.	
1915: Av. for year.																								
May.....	101	103	101	101	101	99	98	95	96	101	76	91	106	98	128	139	109	104	89	124	101	100	100	
June.....	103	105	103	103	101	98	98	97	95	98	78	90	106	98	128	130	109	104	99	126	101	100	100	
July.....	105	107	104	103	101	100	100	98	93	97	81	90	105	98	126	125	108	104	85	127	101	100	100	
August.....	104	107	104	103	101	103	100	98	89	97	88	88	103	99	126	124	108	104	82	123	101	100	100	
September.....	104	106	103	102	101	107	100	97	88	97	101	88	103	99	124	117	108	104	79	118	100	100	100	
October.....	103	104	102	101	99	110	101	99	91	97	117	92	104	100	124	113	108	104	94	111	100	100	103	
November.....	101	102	101	99	98	99	101	100	92	95	133	95	105	100	122	113	107	104	97	119	100	100	104	
December.....	99	101	100	99	98	87	101	100	92	95	135	101	107	100	122	114	107	104	106	124	100	100	105	
1916: Av. for year.	108	110	107	107	106	108	106	109	111	111	109	103	117	162	130	135	113	105	159	146	100	100	114	
January.....	101	102	101	99	99	89	101	101	93	101	123	100	110	100	122	120	107	105	136	123	100	100	107	
February.....	101	102	102	99	100	92	101	102	94	104	101	99	112	100	124	125	108	104	141	125	100	100	106	
March.....	104	104	104	103	102	104	103	104	96	107	82	105	113	100	124	120	107	104	140	137	100	100	107	
April.....	106	108	106	106	105	107	104	107	100	111	79	108	113	99	124	119	108	104	138	145	100	100	109	
May.....	109	112	110	109	107	109	105	109	106	113	82	97	112	99	124	119	108	104	140	156	100	100	109	
June.....	113	117	113	113	111	110	107	110	108	114	87	95	111	99	124	119	108	104	140	156	100	100	109	
July.....	113	116	112	112	109	111	107	111	110	113	93	93	110	100	124	116	108	105	134	160	100	100	111	
August.....	112	115	111	110	107	116	108	111	111	112	105	95	111	101	126	134	110	105	141	155	100	100	113	
September.....	111	115	110	110	107	125	110	114	118	113	120	102	116	102	136	148	113	105	161	141	100	100	118	
October.....	108	111	108	108	106	118	110	114	123	114	132	109	122	105	144	155	117	105	165	149	100	100	121	
November.....	106	108	106	107	106	111	111	114	135	112	149	114	132	109	150	174	126	105	198	157	100	100	126	
December.....	106	107	106	106	106	106	110	114	137	112	154	118	140	112	138	167	131	105	198	151	100	100	126	
1917: Av. for year.	124	130	126	131	130	152	152	142	175	134	139	127	150	125	164	211	192	119	253	169	101	107	146	
January.....	109	111	109	108	113	110	114	136	119	158	118	141	112	140	171	152	105	225	146	100	100	128		
February.....	113	117	114	116	116	125	114	118	138	126	147	122	142	112	142	171	136	104	290	148	100	100	133	
March.....	116	119	118	128	121	133	123	125	151	129	101	121	146	112	144	174	137	104	297	160	101	101	133	
April.....	125	130	127	131	132	146	141	136	167	136	112	133	150	114	150	206	154	108	339	175	101	101	145	
May.....	127	133	130	134	135	146	155	144	176	138	116	122	153	117-	168	266	178	121	352	183	101	103	151	
June.....	129	135	132	137	137	148	158	145	177	136	119	123	153	119	170	246	182	125	366	166	103	110	146	
July.....	129	137	130	137	136	151	159	147	174	131	122	120	149	125	176	220	195	123	246	166	103	111	149	
August.....	130	138	129	136	134	164	160	147	176	131	134	124	148	128	182	229	219	122	206	181	102	112	153	
September.....	131	133	131	137	135	185	164	152	188	142	152	129	152	132	176	223	272	124	172	179	102	112	157	
October.....	130	138	130	136	136	185	178	159	198	146	160	133	158	143	176	214	232	128	178	174	102	114	155	
November.....	124	133	127	132	134	165	179	159	207	138	168	138	156	144	176	208	235	131	183	174	102	114	155	
December.....	126	134	128	134	134	161	181	161	211	143	184	142	156	147	166	205	235	133	178	172	102	114	157	
1918: Av. for year.	153	165	155	166	170	186	196	178	211	177	165	151	162	156	175	203	227	148	183	176	102	110	167	
January.....	129	137	130	138	142	163	180	162	208	154	195	148	156	151	168	200	233	134	188	173	102	115	160	
February.....	132	141	133	142	146	160	179	163	209	170	182	151	158	151	170	200	233	136	188	193	102	112	161	

1961

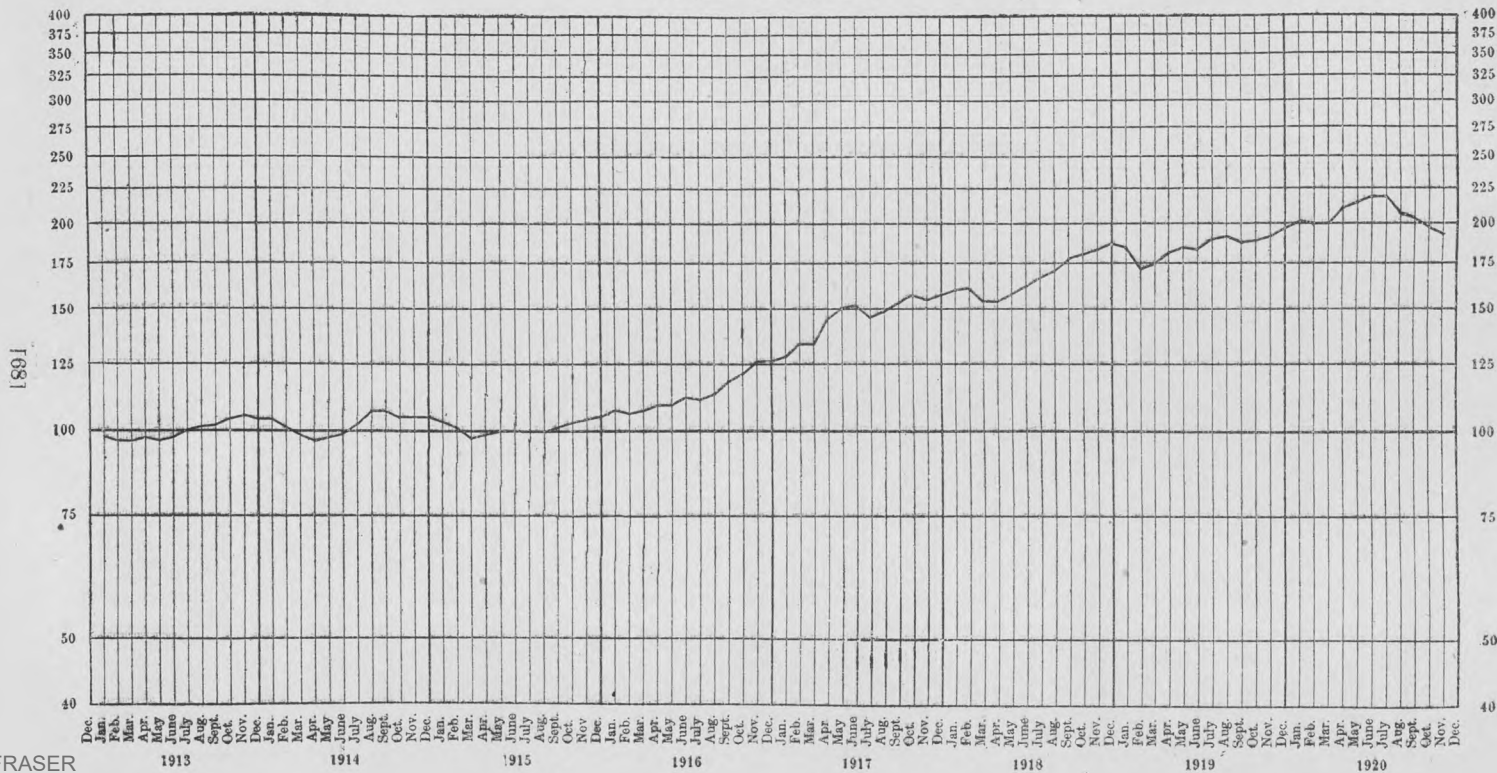
March.....	133	143	135	145	150	161	181	164	210	(1)	128	144	159	151	171	200	240	138	147	167	102	113	154	
April.....	144	155	148	159	164	170	183	166	209	(1)	123	132	154	148	175	200	237	139	129	165	101	117	154	
May.....	157	170	161	174	181	175	187	170	208	178	123	133	151	148	177	200	233	141	129	165	101	117	158	
June.....	168	182	169	184	188	177	191	173	206	177	123	133	150	146	179	203	223	144	171	165	101	119	162	
July.....	166	181	168	182	185	180	194	181	206	178	142	137	152	148	179	203	223	148	229	167	101	120	167	
August.....	163	178	165	177	179	201	200	180	209	181	155	141	157	153	177	206	227	154	229	169	101	121	171	
September.....	164	178	165	178	181	220	208	193	213	185	170	155	163	161	177	206	230	157	229	175	102	122	178	
October.....	161	175	163	174	178	216	214	193	216	183	186	170	174	166	175	203	227	161	206	193	102	124	181	
November.....	159	173	162	172	175	206	216	195	216	185	215	174	184	173	175	203	217	161	194	196	103	125	183	
December.....	159	171	161	171	174	197	217	198	216	180	235	190	193	176	175	203	213	160	188	196	109	124	187	
1919: Av. for year:	164	174	164	169	167	201	205	209	134	193	182	177	193	174	179	218	213	174	224	205	145	129	186	
January.....	162	175	165	175	181	193	217	199	211	188	218	184	201	175	175	200	207	159	188	196	117	127	185	
February.....	162	174	165	174	181	180	205	193	203	186	147	149	185	174	175	203	200	164	182	195	123	126	172	
March.....	165	177	169	178	183	184	203	191	211	193	140	174	183	172	175	206	197	154	171	193	126	129	175	
April.....	172	182	175	184	187	197	212	197	223	202	143	186	190	169	175	218	200	154	182	193	129	128	182	
May.....	175	187	178	186	186	205	210	203	246	204	154	177	191	167	175	227	207	154	194	193	136	128	185	
June.....	170	181	171	176	174	202	212	205	254	200	155	165	192	167	177	227	210	159	224	193	143	129	184	
July.....	171	183	169	173	168	220	215	211	266	197	164	164	195	169	179	227	217	168	282	198	155	130	190	
August.....	166	177	164	166	160	223	214	212	266	196	174	167	197	174	180	224	220	178	294	202	160	130	192	
September.....	161	170	158	158	150	219	206	205	242	194	183	172	195	176	180	221	223	190	253	200	164	130	188	
October.....	157	165	155	153	145	211	196	195	228	189	209	186	192	180	180	221	220	199	224	207	163	131	189	
November.....	155	162	153	151	143	200	189	188	231	184	235	197	195	184	182	224	220	202	229	227	164	131	192	
December.....	154	161	153	152	143	181	186	186	221	184	261	204	196	188	182	233	220	202	253	264	164	127	197	
1920:																								
January.....	159	166	159	158	152	178	186	187	215	197	240	194	196	187	195	245	220	208	318	324	165	132	201	
February.....	160	187	159	157	152	180	186	188	204	210	199	190	196	188	198	245	217	210	353	342	165	131	200	
March.....	161	168	161	157	150	186	186	190	192	215	161	196	194	187	200	242	217	211	400	340	165	135	200	
April.....	170	179	169	166	157	206	191	199	191	224	153	199	194	183	200	245	217	214	535	367	165	135	211	
May.....	171	179	169	166	155	202	195	206	189	221	153	187	194	182	205	264	223	215	565	462	165	136	215	
June.....	182	191	176	174	157	194	200	215	185	216	155	175	189	182	211	267	230	215	606	485	165	136	219	
July.....	192	202	181	179	158	208	203	222	184	211	166	177	186	188	213	264	233	214	524	482	165	137	219	
August.....	186	196	176	172	154	219	203	223	177	212	184	175	183	191	213	255	230	210	294	416	162	137	207	
September.....	185	193	175	170	152	238	202	224	177	214	206	179	184	193	213	252	227	202	222	333	153	137	203	
October.....	177	188	168	162	147	238	202	222	185	207	234	180	184	194	211	236	213	185	200	253	146	133	198	
November.....	171	178	165	158	146	210	196	212	183	201	250	181	180	194	207	221	197	163	194	235	139	135	193	

[67]

¹ No hens sold in this month by order of Food Administration.

TREND IN RETAIL COST OF 22 FOOD ARTICLES, COMBINED, FOR THE UNITED STATES BY MONTHS, JANUARY, 1913, TO NOVEMBER, 1920.

[Average cost for 1913=100.]



Retail Prices of Food in 51 Cities on Specified Dates.

AVERAGE retail food prices are shown in Table 5 for 39 cities for November 15 of each year, 1913, 1919, and 1920, and for October 15, 1920. These cities are as follows:

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

Average prices are shown for November 15, 1919, and for October 15 and November 15, 1920, for 11 other cities from which prices were not secured in 1913, as follows:

Bridgeport, Conn.	Mobile, Ala.	Rochester, N. Y.
Butte, Mont.	Norfolk, Va.	St. Paul, Minn.
Columbus, Ohio.	Peoria, Ill.	Springfield, Ill.
Houston, Tex.	Portland, Me.	

Average prices are shown for Savannah, Ga., for October 15 and November 15, 1920, only, as prices were not secured from this city until January, 1920.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

[The prices shown in this table are computed from reports sent monthly to the Bureau by retail dealers

Article.	Unit.	Atlanta, Ga.				Baltimore, Md.				Birmingham, Ala.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
		1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	24.2	38.3	40.8	38.2	22.8	39.4	44.0	42.0	28.0	39.1	45.1	42.9
Round steak	do	21.3	35.3	38.2	35.3	21.3	37.1	42.6	40.2	23.0	36.8	41.4	39.1
Rib roast	do	19.0	28.1	30.9	31.4	17.5	32.1	34.3	32.7	19.4	31.3	33.1	31.7
Chuck roast	do	15.8	22.8	24.6	23.6	15.0	24.4	26.5	26.3	16.5	26.2	27.4	25.7
Plate beef	do	9.9	17.4	17.7	17.0	12.2	17.9	17.9	17.9	10.0	17.9	17.6	17.0
Pork chops	do	25.0	41.5	48.1	40.6	18.2	39.8	46.4	43.1	23.0	42.5	48.7	41.1
Bacon	do	31.1	56.7	57.0	54.3	21.5	46.2	47.5	46.6	34.0	57.6	61.7	58.3
Ham	do	30.8	54.0	59.2	56.4	27.5	54.4	63.6	61.1	32.0	53.6	62.3	58.3
Lamb	do	20.2	36.5	39.1	39.4	18.0	32.5	39.0	39.4	21.9	39.2	44.0	44.5
Hens	do	21.0	38.4	42.4	39.3	20.2	41.2	45.2	43.5	19.3	37.1	41.3	38.8
Salmon, canned	do	30.6	28.2	26.8	26.8	33.5	35.3	35.1	35.1	38.4	40.4	40.1	40.1
Milk, fresh	Quart	10.6	25.0	25.0	25.0	8.7	16.0	16.0	16.0	10.0	25.0	25.0	25.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16oz. can	17.9	17.1	16.5	16.5	16.4	14.6	14.6	14.6	17.9	16.3	16.0	16.0
Butter	Pound	39.8	76.5	73.3	73.8	38.4	78.1	72.8	73.4	41.7	79.0	73.1	73.1
Oleomargarine	do	44.4	46.0	44.0	44.0	40.4	41.0	41.0	41.0	45.4	44.1	42.2	42.2
Nut margarine	do	40.4	39.4	39.5	39.5	36.1	35.1	34.8	34.8	39.2	40.0	40.1	40.1
Cheese	do	25.0	42.2	40.0	38.9	23.3	42.8	41.0	40.4	23.0	41.5	40.9	39.4
Lard	do	15.3	36.5	30.3	29.7	15.0	35.5	29.4	28.3	15.1	36.2	28.9	28.8
Crisco	do	35.9	31.5	30.4	30.4	35.3	28.9	28.3	28.3	38.7	33.6	33.1	33.1
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	40.0	71.8	69.7	75.4	45.9	76.3	75.9	87.1	39.0	67.3	68.6	73.9
Eggs, storage	do	60.5	60.5	67.5	33.1	61.1	59.3	63.6	32.5	60.0	64.4	65.0	65.0
Bread	Pound	5.6	10.0	12.8	12.3	5.5	9.6	10.8	10.8	5.4	9.6	11.5	11.4
Flour	do	3.5	7.3	8.1	7.8	3.1	7.7	7.7	7.2	3.6	7.6	8.5	8.2
Corn meal	do	2.6	5.6	5.1	4.8	2.6	5.6	5.3	4.9	2.5	5.3	5.0	4.6
Rolled Oats	do	10.6	12.2	13.6	13.6	7.8	11.3	11.5	11.5	11.1	14.0	14.3	14.3
Cornflakes	8-oz. pkg.	14.0	14.7	15.0	15.0	13.1	13.5	13.6	13.6	14.6	14.9	14.9	14.9
Cream of Wheat	28-oz. pkg.	24.4	31.6	31.6	31.6	23.3	29.1	29.1	29.1	25.9	33.3	33.1	33.1
Macaroni	Pound	20.5	23.9	23.2	23.2	17.8	21.6	21.4	21.4	21.0	23.1	23.1	23.1
Rice	do	8.6	17.3	14.4	11.9	9.0	18.0	15.6	13.6	8.2	17.8	15.9	14.1
Beans, navy	do	14.5	12.8	12.8	12.8	11.9	10.6	9.8	9.8	14.0	13.2	12.2	12.2
Potatoes	do	2.3	5.0	4.5	4.3	1.8	3.7	3.2	3.0	2.2	5.0	4.4	4.5
Onions	do	8.2	6.4	6.0	6.0	6.4	4.1	4.1	4.1	8.4	5.4	5.4	5.4
Cabbage	do	6.2	5.0	4.6	4.6	4.0	2.8	2.6	2.6	5.4	5.2	5.2	5.2
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	15.9	15.7	16.4	16.4	15.8	14.9	14.8	14.8	17.9	18.0	18.2	18.2
Corn, canned	do	20.3	20.2	19.8	19.8	18.1	18.0	18.1	18.1	18.9	19.3	18.9	18.9
Peas, canned	do	20.4	20.1	19.8	19.8	18.4	18.4	18.1	18.1	21.7	21.2	21.0	21.0
Tomatoes, canned	do	14.5	14.1	13.4	13.4	15.2	12.8	12.2	12.2	14.4	14.0	11.6	11.6
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.7	13.5	14.9	13.7	4.8	11.0	13.7	12.9	5.4	20.3	14.8	13.2
Tea	do	60.0	87.6	94.2	94.3	56.0	71.1	69.2	69.0	61.3	87.1	87.5	87.1
Coffee	do	32.0	49.8	44.3	41.5	24.4	46.1	39.5	38.4	28.8	49.6	45.7	44.8
Prunes	do	24.4	28.3	29.5	29.5	30.0	26.2	24.9	24.9	30.0	30.2	29.3	29.3
Raisins	do	21.5	28.3	31.5	31.5	22.6	32.9	33.1	33.1	20.9	32.5	32.8	32.8
Bananas	Dozen	37.7	37.1	33.8	33.8	31.8	33.5	32.3	32.3	41.6	46.7	46.3	46.3
Oranges	do	40.6	70.8	40.3	40.3	59.1	68.8	66.2	66.2	45.5	55.0	47.8	47.8

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

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES.

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

Boston, Mass.				Bridgeport, Conn.				Buffalo, N. Y.				Butte, Mont.				Charleston, S. C.			
Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.		
1913	1919						1913	1919						1913	1919			1913	1919
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.		
34.0	60.2	69.3	67.1	51.1	52.5	51.2	22.2	35.9	41.5	39.7	31.8	37.1	33.9	21.4	37.7	41.5	40.3		
35.0	55.7	65.3	62.9	46.9	49.8	48.2	19.4	32.4	37.3	35.8	27.1	32.7	29.8	20.8	37.2	41.6	40.6		
23.9	41.3	44.9	42.9	37.3	37.7	37.3	16.4	28.7	32.0	31.0	24.1	28.4	26.3	20.0	30.0	33.0	33.3		
16.2	30.9	34.4	33.6	29.2	29.4	29.2	15.2	24.2	25.7	25.5	17.9	22.4	20.7	15.0	25.4	26.8	25.0		
.....	15.9	13.9	13.9	11.7	17.3	17.5	17.6	12.7	16.2	15.3	12.0	18.8	21.8	20.4		
22.4	46.5	57.1	50.4	45.0	52.5	46.2	19.8	42.7	52.3	46.5	40.9	50.8	48.0	25.0	44.7	53.2	47.3		
24.6	47.9	51.1	50.5	54.8	60.5	58.5	21.2	41.2	47.5	44.7	60.0	64.0	63.0	26.6	55.4	55.8	54.0		
31.0	54.8	70.3	66.6	59.8	73.0	70.1	26.3	51.1	57.9	56.3	59.5	64.9	64.1	27.5	53.0	56.9	55.6		
20.5	37.0	41.6	42.3	35.4	40.1	40.4	15.6	25.6	31.8	31.9	26.9	32.3	28.1	22.5	41.1	44.7	45.5		
24.3	45.5	51.9	49.7	43.5	46.4	46.0	20.0	37.5	43.0	41.8	30.6	42.4	39.3	21.5	47.9	50.0	48.5		
.....	34.3	37.9	39.4	37.9	40.6	40.6	33.3	36.3	36.1	43.2	44.8	45.4	33.1	36.3	36.7		
8.9	17.0	18.4	18.4	18.0	18.0	18.0	8.0	16.0	17.0	17.0	15.5	15.8	15.8	12.0	24.7	23.3	23.3		
.....	17.0	15.8	15.7	16.6	15.2	15.0	16.2	14.4	14.1	18.3	16.4	16.2	16.9	15.2	14.9		
38.2	71.1	69.4	68.3	69.7	67.9	66.3	38.1	74.7	68.3	69.7	70.2	69.5	67.4	37.8	73.6	68.0	67.6		
.....	42.4	43.8	44.1	41.3	40.9	40.6	42.5	40.7	39.6	46.3	40.0	40.0	45.0	43.5	43.6		
.....	35.0	36.0	35.9	35.4	35.6	35.5	34.2	34.0	33.4	39.7	39.0	45.7	38.3	37.0		
23.4	42.2	40.9	40.5	43.2	41.5	40.0	21.5	40.9	39.1	38.2	45.4	42.5	42.4	21.0	41.9	39.4	37.7		
15.8	37.3	29.4	29.2	35.6	28.0	27.8	14.2	34.7	27.9	27.3	38.6	33.1	34.5	15.0	38.3	28.8	28.9		
.....	36.7	32.5	31.7	36.3	30.9	30.0	35.9	29.7	29.2	44.0	41.7	40.8	39.0	32.3	31.1		
60.6	102.1	105.7	119.6	96.3	96.4	109.5	48.5	79.0	80.4	91.2	87.1	80.6	93.9	40.0	68.6	68.5	69.7		
35.2	64.7	66.3	69.2	62.2	66.5	69.1	30.6	59.0	61.1	63.1	62.8	66.4	68.5	33.5	57.0	59.4	60.1		
6.0	9.7	11.4	11.4	10.4	12.7	12.7	5.6	10.0	11.5	11.5	12.4	12.8	12.1	6.4	10.0	13.2	12.9		
3.6	8.1	8.3	8.0	7.4	8.0	7.4	3.0	7.0	7.1	6.3	8.1	8.8	7.8	3.7	7.7	9.0	8.5		
3.5	7.3	7.7	7.5	8.8	9.0	9.1	2.6	6.3	6.5	5.7	8.0	7.8	7.5	2.6	5.3	5.2	4.5		
.....	7.9	10.6	10.3	9.7	11.7	11.8	7.6	9.1	9.4	9.4	10.2	10.1	10.4	12.5	12.7		
.....	14.0	14.4	14.3	13.5	13.7	13.8	12.9	13.2	13.1	14.5	15.3	15.4	14.9	14.8	14.8		
.....	24.7	30.5	30.4	23.8	29.3	28.9	24.1	28.3	28.4	30.0	33.9	34.1	25.0	30.3	30.3		
.....	21.9	25.6	25.6	21.6	25.0	24.9	20.2	22.9	23.2	20.3	22.1	22.1	20.9	23.7	22.8		
9.4	17.5	18.1	15.8	17.0	16.5	14.9	9.3	17.7	16.3	14.8	16.7	16.4	14.8	5.6	14.8	11.7	10.0		
.....	11.5	10.4	9.7	11.5	11.6	11.0	11.5	10.9	10.1	12.9	11.5	10.8	14.8	14.3	13.5		
1.7	3.5	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.1	3.3	1.8	3.1	2.6	2.8	3.5	2.5	2.4	2.2	4.7	3.6	3.7		
.....	6.4	4.3	4.2	6.3	4.7	4.1	6.4	4.2	4.0	6.5	4.6	4.2	7.9	5.2	4.8		
.....	4.5	4.3	4.4	4.4	3.5	3.6	4.8	1.7	1.4	5.1	3.8	3.5	5.9	4.7	4.6		
.....	17.5	18.0	18.0	16.2	15.2	15.1	13.9	14.2	14.1	22.2	22.2	22.2	15.4	14.6	14.5		
.....	21.0	20.9	20.3	21.3	21.4	21.2	18.2	18.0	17.7	18.8	18.6	18.6	21.0	19.1	18.3		
.....	20.1	22.2	22.3	20.0	22.2	22.0	17.7	17.5	17.3	18.8	18.5	18.6	21.8	21.8	21.3		
.....	15.8	15.5	13.7	16.2	14.2	12.5	16.4	15.3	14.4	17.9	16.3	16.6	15.6	14.0	13.0		
5.4	10.9	13.2	12.2	11.0	14.1	13.3	5.3	11.0	14.4	13.2	13.7	16.2	14.9	5.0	11.1	14.5	13.2		
58.6	66.6	69.9	69.1	60.8	64.0	64.5	45.0	66.0	67.5	66.6	75.3	78.2	78.9	50.0	81.1	79.6	79.1		
33.0	52.7	49.5	46.0	47.6	42.1	41.2	29.3	46.6	43.7	40.8	57.9	58.4	56.9	26.8	48.4	42.7	40.6		
.....	29.0	29.3	27.2	29.2	26.7	24.9	28.0	27.6	26.5	26.5	29.1	28.3	30.0	28.1	26.4		
.....	22.9	31.9	32.8	23.0	30.8	31.7	20.0	31.8	31.8	21.5	31.5	32.9	22.5	31.4	33.6		
.....	46.9	56.2	59.2	40.6	45.9	43.9	42.2	50.8	50.7	47.5	63.3	63.3	44.0	53.8	50.0		
.....	61.7	72.8	71.0	61.2	76.9	80.0	58.5	73.2	76.8	56.6	75.0	62.3	47.0	83.6	47.9		

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

Article	Unit.	Chicago, Ill.				Cincinnati, Ohio.				Cleveland, Ohio.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
		1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak	Pound	24.7	37.0	47.3	44.8	22.7	30.4	38.3	36.9	25.0	37.1	45.3	43.7
Round steak	do	21.4	32.5	39.0	37.2	20.7	29.5	35.7	34.6	22.4	33.4	40.5	38.7
Rib steak	do	19.5	29.6	35.0	34.2	19.2	25.7	31.6	31.1	18.6	27.8	31.2	30.5
Chuck roast	do	15.9	24.3	27.0	25.6	16.1	19.1	22.7	22.5	17.0	24.0	27.2	26.5
Plate beef	do	12.0	17.0	19.1	17.3	11.5	17.4	19.1	18.6	12.6	16.7	17.1	17.8
Pork chops	do	19.3	36.8	46.0	39.3	19.8	38.1	48.2	41.2	21.6	41.7	52.4	43.1
Bacon	do	32.4	54.2	59.4	57.2	24.6	44.8	48.9	48.5	28.1	48.3	55.3	54.1
Ham	do	32.3	52.3	61.9	58.4	28.5	49.5	62.0	60.8	35.7	54.2	62.8	60.8
Lamb	do	19.3	32.9	38.7	38.7	17.5	29.4	32.5	34.9	18.1	31.9	37.3	37.0
Hens	do	17.4	33.3	36.9	37.3	20.2	36.6	44.3	43.7	19.9	37.3	44.4	43.6
Salmon, canned	do		36.2	38.6	38.4		35.5	36.8	37.1		36.1	39.0	38.6
Milk, fresh	Quart	8.0	15.0	16.0	15.0	8.0	15.0	15.0	15.0	8.0	16.0	16.0	15.0
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can		15.5	14.2	13.7		16.2	14.6	14.6		17.1	15.5	15.0
Butter	Pound	36.5	73.6	63.3	67.9	38.2	76.4	69.0	69.2	40.7	79.8	70.0	73.7
Oleomargarine	do		41.7	37.0	35.9		42.0	38.1	38.2		45.5	42.6	42.3
Nut margarine	do		33.5	32.7	31.2		34.6	34.2	34.1		35.5	34.8	34.9
Cheese	do	25.3	44.6	41.3	39.9	21.0	43.4	42.5	42.3	24.0	41.9	40.9	40.1
Lard	do	15.0	34.4	27.6	27.1	14.2	32.1	27.8	26.8	16.3	36.1	30.3	30.4
Crisco	do		36.3	31.1	30.2		35.1	31.0	29.6		37.6	32.9	31.5
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	39.8	74.2	71.5	81.4	44.3	74.0	71.3	82.8	50.0	84.2	79.5	83.9
Eggs, storage	do	30.3	58.2	60.6	63.2	33.6	59.3	62.3	63.9	35.7	63.1	63.2	67.6
Bread	Pound	6.1	10.6	12.4	12.4	4.8	9.9	11.5	11.5	5.6	9.3	11.8	11.8
Flour	do	2.9	7.3	7.0	6.2	3.3	7.4	7.8	7.4	3.2	7.6	8.0	7.3
Corn meal	do	2.9	6.7	6.7	6.8	2.8	5.5	5.2	4.9	3.0	6.6	6.5	6.1
Rolled Oats	do		7.1	10.3	10.2		7.3	11.6	11.6		9.5	12.0	12.4
Cornflakes	8-oz. pkg		13.0	13.7	13.7		13.9	14.2	14.2		14.2	15.3	15.2
Cream of Wheat	28-oz. pkg		24.4	28.9	28.7		24.8	30.2	30.4		24.6	30.5	30.5
Macaroni	Pound		18.0	20.7	20.7		17.4	19.9	19.8		18.8	23.5	23.3
Rice	do	9.0	16.7	15.8	14.4	8.8	17.8	15.9	14.2	9.0	18.4	17.5	15.0
Beans, navy	do		12.0	13.7	9.9		10.7	9.9	8.6		11.7	10.3	9.3
Potatoes	do	1.7	3.8	3.0	3.2	1.9	4.3	3.8	3.8	2.0	4.0	4.1	3.5
Onions	do		6.8	4.0	4.1		6.5	2.4	4.5		6.8	4.8	4.4
Cabbage	do		4.6	2.6	2.7		4.5	3.8	3.6		4.5	3.3	3.4
Beans, baked	No. 2 can		16.2	16.3	15.9		15.7	15.5	15.5		15.7	16.0	16.2
Corn, canned	do		17.4	17.4	16.5		16.7	17.5	17.3		19.3	20.1	20.3
Peas, canned	do		17.5	17.2	16.6		17.1	18.0	18.1		18.7	20.6	20.8
Tomatoes, canned	do		15.8	14.4	13.9		15.3	14.6	14.0		16.0	15.3	14.8
Sugar, granulated	Pound	5.1	13.2	12.4	11.2	5.3	14.4	12.5	12.1	5.4	12.7	13.6	13.1
Tea	do	55.0	64.7	72.0	69.6	60.0	77.1	76.6	76.2	50.0	72.8	76.7	76.2
Coffee	do	30.7	44.8	39.7	38.6	25.6	42.5	35.9	34.1	26.5	50.2	46.6	45.0
Prunes	do		28.9	28.6	28.0		28.3	30.9	30.0		28.3	29.2	28.8
Raisins	do		23.3	30.3	31.1		22.1	35.2	33.6		22.8	31.5	31.2
Bananas	Dozen		38.7	43.4	43.5		39.0	49.6	48.9		46.4	54.7	55.3
Oranges	do		52.3	70.5	73.1		41.9	65.2	49.9		57.7	71.0	71.7

² The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "rump" steak.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

73

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Columbus, Ohio.			Dallas, Tex.				Denver, Colo.				Detroit, Mich.				Fall River, Mass.				
Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	
			1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919	1920.	1920.	1913	1919			
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
35.9	40.4	38.2	23.6	36.9	39.3	39.3	22.9	33.6	36.7	35.8	25.6	36.7	43.5	41.6	34.3	59.5	269.3	268.3	
32.9	36.6	35.0	21.0	36.6	37.5	37.5	20.3	29.9	32.5	30.8	20.6	32.1	37.7	36.2	27.3	47.1	54.8	53.9	
28.7	31.6	31.0	20.1	31.3	32.1	31.9	16.7	25.8	27.0	26.6	20.0	29.6	32.7	32.3	23.3	34.4	36.5	35.6	
25.1	26.2	26.1	16.4	26.4	27.5	26.3	15.3	21.2	21.2	21.0	15.2	22.2	24.7	24.3	18.3	26.6	28.2	27.9	
18.5	19.0	18.6	15.0	22.9	21.6	21.3	9.9	14.2	14.0	14.1	11.4	16.0	17.8	17.3					
37.3	44.3	36.7	21.8	44.8	48.8	43.6	20.4	42.6	50.0	43.2	19.4	41.8	50.8	43.7	23.3	43.9	52.0	46.3	
49.1	51.4	51.1	37.5	53.6	58.2	57.4	28.0	53.9	58.3	56.0	22.3	46.7	53.0	49.3	25.7	48.9	51.9	50.9	
51.6	51.7	58.0	31.6	57.1	61.1	58.8	29.2	55.0	64.0	62.3	27.0	53.7	64.1	59.4	30.4	52.6	63.9	59.7	
30.0	28.3	26.7	22.5	32.5	44.3	41.4	15.2	28.3	32.5	30.5	15.1	33.3	38.5	37.2	19.3	33.0	39.7	38.6	
32.1	39.4	39.4	18.4	35.3	38.6	36.0	18.5	35.4	40.0	38.7	19.2	36.8	42.3	39.7	24.6	46.3	53.7	49.1	
31.9	36.4	36.4	39.3	37.9	37.5	36.1	40.7	40.7	36.0	39.5	39.1	33.6	38.5	38.4	
14.7	15.0	15.0	10.8	21.0	20.0	19.7	8.4	12.8	12.8	12.8	9.0	16.0	16.0	16.0	9.0	15.7	17.0	17.0	
16.5	14.9	14.9	18.1	15.9	15.7	16.6	14.7	14.5	16.5	15.4	15.1	16.6	16.7	16.7	
77.2	68.9	72.5	40.0	73.0	66.2	66.9	35.0	74.3	63.9	66.0	37.1	76.7	69.7	71.7	36.0	68.9	67.6	65.9	
42.7	40.1	39.3	37.0	36.3	36.3	41.5	43.1	42.6	41.5	43.1	42.3	41.4	41.9	42.7	
35.2	34.9	35.0	36.3	37.0	37.0	35.3	35.5	35.2	34.4	34.5	34.1	36.5	37.4	37.5	
43.0	39.6	38.5	20.0	43.4	40.2	39.9	26.1	45.1	43.6	42.5	22.3	43.1	40.5	40.4	23.6	42.6	41.0	40.7	
34.2	26.3	26.0	16.8	36.8	32.4	32.1	16.0	38.4	31.2	31.4	16.4	36.5	29.7	29.6	15.3	35.6	28.0	27.8	
36.5	31.4	30.6	36.8	30.1	30.4	37.7	31.9	32.0	36.9	30.5	30.7	36.9	34.5	33.7	
77.2	74.3	84.0	40.0	65.0	65.8	74.1	45.0	75.8	71.9	81.1	41.0	80.8	80.5	90.2	58.8	106.3	103.3	114.5	
60.6	69.7	64.7	35.0	61.3	60.0	65.7	33.0	62.8	63.5	66.7	32.2	59.9	63.8	65.9	34.6	63.1	64.4	65.3	
9.8	12.1	11.9	5.3	10.0	12.0	12.1	5.5	11.2	12.1	11.4	5.6	10.1	12.1	12.1	6.2	10.9	12.0	12.0	
6.9	7.5	7.3	3.3	7.6	7.8	7.4	2.5	6.2	6.3	5.7	3.1	7.4	7.5	7.0	3.3	7.7	8.5	7.6	
5.8	5.4	4.8	3.6	6.9	6.2	5.8	2.6	5.9	5.7	4.8	2.9	7.2	7.2	6.5	3.6	8.8	8.7	8.5	
10.2	12.8	13.0	10.9	14.1	14.0	8.7	11.1	10.8	8.3	12.4	12.3	9.8	12.1	12.5	
14.1	14.3	14.2	13.9	14.7	14.6	14.6	15.1	14.7	14.2	14.3	14.0	14.2	15.0	15.0	
24.9	29.8	29.9	27.0	31.5	31.5	24.8	30.3	30.3	25.0	29.7	29.7	25.5	29.5	29.3	
19.8	21.4	20.7	19.9	22.5	21.6	19.3	20.5	20.5	19.6	20.6	20.3	22.9	25.8	25.9	
18.2	16.7	14.4	9.3	18.6	16.0	13.8	8.6	17.8	16.3	14.8	8.4	18.5	16.1	14.6	10.0	17.3	17.5	17.0	
11.3	9.5	8.6	13.7	11.4	10.1	13.2	12.2	11.2	11.3	9.6	8.8	12.1	11.0	10.4	
4.1	3.3	3.4	2.3	5.1	4.2	4.3	1.6	4.1	3.0	2.9	1.7	3.5	2.7	2.7	1.8	3.5	3.2	3.3	
7.4	5.2	4.5	7.1	6.5	6.1	7.1	4.2	3.9	6.6	4.2	4.0	7.1	5.0	4.7	
5.1	2.8	3.7	6.3	6.4	5.9	3.9	2.1	2.2	4.1	2.7	2.6	4.4	3.2	3.2	
16.6	15.9	16.0	18.8	18.9	18.5	17.7	17.9	17.7	16.2	15.5	15.3	16.4	17.0	16.3	
16.5	15.5	15.2	21.3	20.9	20.5	18.2	18.4	18.5	19.3	19.6	19.6	20.5	19.3	19.3	
16.5	16.5	15.5	21.6	23.6	23.4	19.5	18.9	18.7	18.6	19.1	18.9	20.8	20.0	19.7	
15.2	13.6	13.1	15.3	15.0	15.0	15.2	15.1	15.1	16.9	14.3	13.1	16.9	14.9	14.3	
12.6	13.7	13.3	5.6	12.8	14.0	12.7	5.1	12.6	14.2	13.3	5.2	13.0	12.8	12.5	5.3	11.3	14.3	13.3	
82.1	87.6	86.4	66.7	81.1	87.2	87.6	52.8	70.0	74.3	74.3	43.3	64.3	69.0	68.2	44.2	59.5	60.3	59.8	
49.3	42.3	40.9	36.7	54.3	47.2	44.8	29.4	49.8	44.6	42.8	29.3	49.0	42.7	40.5	33.0	50.3	50.3	47.1	
31.5	30.3	29.8	30.2	28.7	28.6	29.6	29.0	27.9	31.9	28.9	28.0	25.8	26.2	25.7	
24.2	30.5	33.2	22.8	32.6	33.2	23.6	30.4	31.9	23.5	30.9	31.0	23.2	28.6	32.8	
42.1	50.7	50.0	41.0	45.0	45.0	43.5	54.3	56.5	38.3	41.8	39.1	40.3	47.0	46.1	
53.1	64.0	66.6	59.9	66.3	61.2	53.6	70.3	75.7	54.0	70.8	70.5	49.2	62.1	62.4	

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

Article.	Unit.	Houston, Tex.			Indianapolis, Ind.				Jacksonville, Fla.			
		Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
					1913	1919			1913	1919		
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	32.8	36.7	35.7	26.0	35.2	39.6	37.4	25.6	38.8	39.3	40.0
Round steak.....	do.....	32.8	35.3	35.0	24.7	34.4	39.4	36.1	21.2	36.1	36.6	36.3
Rib roast.....	do.....	26.7	30.1	30.2	17.8	26.9	29.0	27.9	21.6	28.5	29.9	29.4
Chuck roast.....	do.....	22.5	27.0	26.8	16.3	24.3	25.8	24.9	14.4	22.8	23.4	23.2
Plate beef.....	do.....	18.8	21.2	21.3	12.9	17.4	18.3	17.7	11.2	16.1	16.0	15.5
Pork chops.....	do.....	41.8	50.4	43.8	21.5	39.6	47.9	38.8	24.0	43.7	49.6	42.1
Bacon.....	do.....	62.1	63.0	61.5	29.2	49.3	53.7	51.1	30.9	52.9	53.7	52.1
Ham.....	do.....	50.0	58.8	60.4	30.3	53.4	62.1	58.9	30.2	50.8	57.5	56.4
Lamb.....	do.....	35.6	40.8	42.0	19.0	35.0	37.0	38.2	21.6	34.3	35.0	36.0
Hens.....	do.....	37.8	43.3	41.3	19.8	34.4	39.3	38.4	24.6	43.4	45.0	43.2
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	33.8	37.2	37.4	28.3	32.1	32.4	37.5	33.4	32.1
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	20.0	20.5	20.5	8.0	14.0	14.0	14.0	12.3	20.0	25.0	25.0
Milk, evaporated.....	15-16 oz. can.....	16.5	15.8	15.3	17.2	15.5	15.0	16.8	15.3	15.1
Butter.....	Pound.....	74.3	63.8	64.7	37.5	75.7	67.4	68.4	39.0	77.1	69.9	70.7
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	42.9	41.5	41.4	44.1	40.8	40.3	43.0	41.4	40.6
Nut margarine.....	do.....	37.3	37.4	36.6	35.6	34.8	34.6	39.0	38.5	38.2
Cheese.....	do.....	39.6	38.9	38.1	21.3	45.1	40.7	39.9	22.5	41.2	38.6	38.1
Lard.....	do.....	33.7	28.7	27.5	15.0	34.0	27.5	27.2	15.7	35.6	30.9	30.5
Crisco.....	do.....	33.8	30.6	30.1	37.5	31.3	31.0	38.4	31.8	30.2
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	67.7	69.1	74.8	43.5	74.7	68.4	81.2	45.0	76.3	73.2	78.8
Eggs, storage.....	do.....	55.6	63.5	64.4	35.8	59.4	57.5	63.8	40.0	60.0	66.3	68.1
Bread.....	Pound.....	9.2	10.3	10.2	5.1	9.7	11.6	11.6	6.2	10.0	12.2	12.2
Flour.....	do.....	7.4	8.3	8.0	3.2	7.1	7.5	7.0	3.7	7.7	8.6	8.4
Corn meal.....	do.....	6.0	5.4	4.8	2.6	5.6	6.0	5.1	2.9	5.5	5.1	4.7
Roll'd Oats.....	do.....	9.7	13.0	13.3	9.6	11.8	11.8	10.8	12.8	13.0
Cornflakes.....	8-oz. pkg.....	14.6	14.6	14.6	14.7	15.1	14.6	15.0	15.2	15.0
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.....	24.8	30.2	29.9	25.4	32.9	33.1	25.2	31.1	30.8
Macaroni.....	Pound.....	19.7	21.5	21.4	21.3	22.9	22.8	20.6	22.9	22.7
Rice.....	do.....	16.1	13.5	10.9	9.2	19.4	18.1	15.4	6.8	16.1	13.1	11.9
Beans, navy.....	do.....	12.4	11.0	10.4	11.9	9.3	8.0	13.9	12.6	12.0
Potatoes.....	do.....	4.6	4.8	4.7	1.7	3.9	3.2	3.2	2.5	4.8	4.1	4.0
Onions.....	do.....	6.9	5.8	5.5	7.6	4.6	4.1	8.0	6.1	5.9
Cabbage.....	do.....	5.6	5.5	5.3	4.7	3.9	3.5	6.4	4.9	4.9
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can.....	18.3	16.7	17.0	18.1	16.2	16.3	17.4	16.0	16.0
Corn, canned.....	do.....	17.9	15.2	15.4	18.5	16.7	15.9	20.9	20.2	18.6
Peas, canned.....	do.....	19.7	20.3	20.2	17.5	16.3	16.1	20.3	22.2	22.1
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	14.6	14.3	13.0	15.9	14.6	13.6	15.4	13.4	12.7
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound.....	16.3	14.7	12.4	5.7	13.3	13.7	12.4	5.9	13.2	14.5	14.1
Tea.....	do.....	64.4	75.7	74.9	60.0	85.0	88.1	86.7	60.0	84.3	90.0	90.3
Coffee.....	do.....	45.7	38.2	35.9	30.0	51.0	46.8	43.7	34.5	53.8	44.4	42.2
Prunes.....	do.....	28.1	26.2	26.1	31.3	29.4	29.3	33.7	27.2	26.6
Raisins.....	do.....	18.5	31.9	32.7	25.4	36.1	35.3	25.1	29.7	34.9
Bananas.....	Dozen.....	39.2	45.6	43.6	34.3	34.1	31.8	40.0	46.7	42.9
Oranges.....	do.....	49.2	60.9	62.1	49.9	66.7	61.1	35.0	61.7	36.4

³ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

75

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Kansas City, Mo.			Little Rock, Ark.			Los Angeles, Calif.			Louisville, Ky.			Manchester, N. H.							
Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.					
1913	1919		1913	1919		1913	1919		1913	1919		1913	1919						
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.					
24.6	34.5	42.0	40.5	25.0	34.7	38.1	36.9	23.9	31.7	37.9	37.1	23.0	33.1	35.7	34.0	34.8	35.5	367.2	362.3
22.3	31.5	37.0	35.5	20.0	32.5	36.4	35.6	21.4	28.7	32.7	32.5	20.0	30.4	34.2	33.1	29.5	47.8	56.6	53.8
18.1	25.7	29.0	28.7	20.0	27.9	30.9	30.8	18.9	26.4	31.7	31.1	18.1	26.2	28.1	26.9	20.8	30.3	34.7	32.9
15.6	19.8	21.3	21.7	16.3	23.7	23.9	23.7	16.0	19.6	21.8	22.4	15.5	22.3	23.6	22.6	18.0	26.6	30.4	28.9
12.2	15.0	16.0	16.0	13.0	17.7	18.4	18.5	13.4	16.0	17.8	19.2	13.1	18.5	19.5	19.4
20.8	37.4	45.9	39.9	21.0	41.3	47.1	42.2	26.0	46.8	53.6	53.0	19.6	37.6	46.5	38.3	22.0	44.3	54.1	46.0
30.9	52.7	56.5	55.0	36.7	55.6	57.8	56.5	33.5	57.0	65.5	63.9	28.6	52.0	51.8	51.6	24.0	47.8	50.4	49.7
28.8	53.2	60.6	58.5	27.5	53.0	61.8	59.7	35.0	59.0	69.5	71.1	29.0	48.8	58.4	53.5	28.3	48.9	61.6	58.5
18.3	29.1	33.8	32.3	18.8	35.6	42.2	37.5	18.6	30.8	35.2	35.2	18.2	29.2	34.0	32.3	20.0	36.1	40.1	37.5
15.8	33.8	38.1	36.8	18.8	35.5	39.4	37.1	26.3	46.8	49.5	51.0	23.0	37.9	42.0	40.1	23.7	45.9	52.9	51.2
....	33.1	37.0	36.8	33.6	38.3	39.0	45.8	50.9	50.3	32.3	34.8	31.2	36.2	40.8	40.8
9.1	16.0	16.0	16.0	10.5	20.0	20.0	20.0	10.0	16.0	18.0	18.0	8.6	15.0	16.0	16.0	8.0	15.0	16.8	16.8
....	17.7	15.4	15.3	18.2	16.1	15.8	14.9	12.8	12.6	17.2	15.7	15.3	18.1	17.4	17.1
39.1	76.4	67.6	69.3	45.0	73.8	69.5	68.3	39.7	74.1	72.0	67.4	40.0	77.5	68.7	71.1	41.8	76.4	73.1	71.9
....	41.3	40.6	39.8	44.1	42.2	41.8	45.3	43.8	43.4	43.8	42.3	42.3	43.4	41.8	42.3
....	35.4	34.8	34.6	37.8	37.8	37.3	36.0	35.2	35.2	33.5	35.1	34.8	34.8	34.7	35.3
22.0	44.4	42.4	40.7	23.3	42.5	40.2	40.1	19.5	44.0	44.1	43.7	22.5	41.8	39.1	38.9	22.0	42.9	41.1	40.2
16.4	38.3	30.3	29.9	16.5	39.8	29.0	28.1	18.1	34.8	30.2	30.6	15.8	34.8	28.0	27.1	15.8	37.8	28.9	28.2
....	39.8	33.9	33.9	39.8	30.5	29.5	36.5	31.4	30.8	35.2	33.0	32.6	38.1	34.9	33.4
35.3	70.9	67.9	75.2	37.5	68.6	65.8	74.3	58.8	83.5	85.9	96.3	41.3	74.7	65.7	78.3	60.0	104.5	95.1	106.7
32.5	59.3	62.2	66.3	61.4	68.8	37.0	63.8	66.8	71.3	35.0	59.3	55.3	60.9	40.0	63.8	66.8	71.5
6.0	10.0	2.6	12.1	10.0	11.0	11.0	6.0	9.7	10.6	9.7	5.7	10.0	10.4	10.2	5.9	9.5	11.3	11.2
3.0	7.0	7.3	6.9	3.6	7.4	8.3	7.9	3.5	7.3	7.9	7.3	3.5	7.3	7.8	7.1	3.4	7.9	8.1	7.7
2.9	6.9	7.4	6.6	2.8	5.6	4.8	4.4	3.4	7.5	7.6	7.2	2.4	5.2	4.6	3.7	3.4	7.4	8.1	7.4
....	11.6	14.0	13.8	11.1	13.0	13.2	8.7	11.4	10.8	9.8	11.4	11.6	9.7	12.3	12.4
....	15.0	15.0	15.0	14.6	14.7	14.8	13.0	13.5	13.5	14.0	14.3	14.3	14.9	15.3	15.1
....	25.9	31.1	30.8	25.4	31.2	31.5	24.4	29.6	29.7	25.9	30.1	30.5	25.0	29.7	29.8
....	19.0	23.4	24.6	19.0	23.2	23.8	17.2	19.7	19.5	17.8	21.2	21.2	24.0	27.2	27.4
8.7	18.7	14.7	13.2	8.3	17.0	13.9	11.7	7.7	16.5	14.8	13.3	8.7	18.5	15.5	12.6	8.8	17.1	16.9	14.4
....	12.3	10.5	10.0	13.1	11.0	10.6	10.6	9.2	8.6	12.1	9.4	8.3	12.5	11.0	10.3
2.0	4.3	3.5	3.4	2.4	4.2	3.9	3.6	1.9	4.1	3.7	3.3	2.1	3.7	2.7	2.7	1.6	3.4	3.0	3.1
....	7.9	5.1	5.1	8.0	5.8	5.4	6.1	4.1	3.7	5.8	3.6	3.6	6.3	4.4	3.6
....	4.5	4.2	3.7	5.7	5.1	4.4	3.0	3.9	3.5	4.6	4.0	3.3	3.7	3.1	3.0
....	17.3	16.8	16.5	16.6	15.9	15.6	17.7	18.4	18.1	15.8	16.0	16.0	18.4	17.8	17.8
....	16.4	15.9	15.4	17.9	17.3	17.3	18.4	18.8	18.8	18.0	17.0	17.1	21.8	20.5	20.5
....	16.8	16.8	17.7	18.4	18.5	18.8	18.9	19.5	19.6	17.9	17.6	17.7	21.3	22.5	22.5
....	15.5	14.6	13.2	14.9	14.4	13.4	14.8	15.4	15.0	15.3	13.4	13.1	18.3	14.3	13.8
5.7	13.0	14.8	12.9	5.3	17.6	14.5	13.5	5.3	12.4	12.6	12.3	5.3	11.7	13.0	12.5	5.3	11.2	13.8	13.1
54.0	78.8	86.3	87.3	50.0	87.4	94.9	97.6	54.5	69.1	75.8	73.9	65.0	79.9	86.6	84.9	47.5	61.9	63.0	62.1
27.8	45.2	45.2	41.6	30.8	51.7	45.7	43.5	36.3	45.0	41.9	41.3	27.5	49.3	44.2	43.1	32.0	51.9	47.4	45.2
....	29.6	29.0	27.6	27.5	28.6	28.6	27.0	27.4	27.0	29.8	27.3	27.7	28.5	27.8	28.2
....	25.4	35.2	35.3	23.4	29.5	32.2	21.0	29.3	30.6	23.1	31.5	33.6	25.1	33.1	33.3
....	51.7	52.5	55.9	36.3	47.1	50.0	41.7	65.0	57.5	36.7	42.5	41.1	38.8	45.0	48.8
....	57.3	75.1	82.3	52.9	74.2	61.6	38.9	59.5	62.0	45.0	64.3	47.7	56.6	72.1	66.5

⁴ No 2½ can.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

Article.	Unit.	Memphis, Tenn.				Milwaukee, Wis.				Minneapolis, Minn.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
		1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919		
		<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>	<i>Cts.</i>
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	24.0	36.3	38.1	35.9	23.6	34.6	41.6	40.2	20.0	31.9	35.7	32.7
Round steak.....	do.....	20.0	33.6	35.5	32.4	21.6	32.7	38.5	36.7	18.7	28.4	30.8	28.8
Rib roast.....	do.....	21.0	28.2	30.2	29.4	18.4	27.8	31.7	30.4	17.7	25.9	28.0	25.9
Chuck roast.....	do.....	15.0	22.8	22.7	20.7	16.2	24.4	27.4	26.7	15.3	20.4	22.4	21.1
Plate beef.....	do.....	12.5	18.2	17.8	17.9	12.1	17.0	17.4	17.5	10.1	13.8	13.6	14.1
Pork chops.....	do.....	20.5	40.7	46.7	39.3	19.6	37.3	46.0	39.7	18.0	36.8	42.7	37.3
Bacon.....	do.....	30.0	53.6	57.8	57.2	27.8	50.9	57.2	55.6	27.7	54.5	57.9	55.0
Ham.....	do.....	29.0	54.6	58.9	55.0	28.2	50.0	57.4	55.9	30.0	51.0	60.8	56.1
Lamb.....	do.....	20.6	38.0	42.1	40.4	19.0	32.3	38.0	39.3	14.6	27.5	30.0	29.4
Hens.....	do.....	19.5	36.6	40.9	37.9	17.2	30.3	35.6	35.8	16.4	28.8	32.4	31.8
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	35.7	40.5	38.6	36.9	44.1	42.8	41.9	47.5	47.6
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	10.0	19.0	20.0	20.0	7.0	13.0	12.0	11.0	8.0	13.0	14.0	14.0
Milk, evaporated.....	15-16 oz. can	17.3	16.4	16.4	17.1	15.2	15.2	17.8	15.5	15.5
Butter.....	Pound.....	38.8	76.9	67.1	67.0	36.6	76.3	64.6	68.5	36.3	71.9	62.1	64.8
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	43.1	42.0	41.8	42.8	38.1	37.3	41.4	41.2	41.3
Nut margarine.....	do.....	39.7	36.2	36.3	35.1	33.2	33.0	33.1	32.9	32.5
Cheese.....	do.....	22.0	42.1	38.1	36.2	22.3	42.0	37.0	36.0	21.3	41.4	38.1	38.2
Lard.....	do.....	15.6	36.6	29.8	26.7	16.0	36.7	29.3	28.9	15.6	35.5	28.2	28.4
Crisco.....	do.....	36.8	32.2	30.2	36.8	32.9	31.1	38.0	32.4	32.1
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	38.0	68.7	68.1	72.9	45.0	73.5	67.0	77.5	41.6	71.8	68.1	79.2
Eggs, storage.....	do.....	30.0	56.3	65.0	33.0	58.6	60.1	61.7	31.6	58.5	60.2	61.4
Bread.....	Pound.....	6.0	10.0	13.5	13.3	5.7	10.0	11.0	11.0	5.6	9.6	11.1	10.3
Flour.....	do.....	3.5	7.4	8.3	7.9	3.1	7.5	7.6	6.9	2.8	7.4	7.0	6.1
Corn meal.....	do.....	2.5	5.3	4.8	4.0	3.3	6.4	6.8	6.3	2.5	6.4	6.7	5.5
Rolled Oats.....	do.....	11.0	12.7	12.8	8.2	8.9	8.7	7.7	9.3	9.0
Cornflakes.....	8-oz. pkg.....	14.2	14.5	14.5	14.2	14.4	14.3	14.6	15.5	14.6
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.....	24.3	30.1	30.1	25.4	30.0	29.8	25.4	31.4	31.4
Macaroni.....	Pound.....	18.8	20.6	21.6	18.4	20.6	20.5	17.5	19.3	19.6
Rice.....	do.....	8.1	16.5	12.8	10.1	9.0	17.7	17.1	15.9	8.6	18.8	16.0	14.6
Beans, navy.....	do.....	13.9	11.6	9.6	11.5	10.1	9.4	11.6	11.5	10.3
Potatoes.....	do.....	2.0	4.5	3.6	3.6	1.7	3.6	2.9	2.9	1.6	3.4	2.7	2.7
Onions.....	do.....	7.9	4.1	3.8	7.3	3.7	3.4	6.7	5.1	4.5
Cabbage.....	do.....	5.1	3.5	3.3	3.4	2.1	2.2	3.8	4.1	3.1
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can.....	18.0	17.4	17.2	16.2	15.4	15.1	18.4	18.0	18.3
Corn, canned.....	do.....	18.3	18.9	18.4	17.8	17.1	17.0	17.5	17.4	17.2
Peas, canned.....	do.....	18.5	18.9	18.2	17.8	17.1	16.2	16.9	18.3	18.2
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	16.2	14.0	12.4	16.4	14.9	14.4	16.4	16.4	16.2
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound.....	5.1	21.5	14.6	13.4	5.3	13.7	13.1	12.3	5.1	13.4	13.2	12.9
Tea.....	do.....	63.8	89.9	93.5	93.1	50.0	69.1	72.4	72.2	45.0	62.6	70.9	69.9
Coffee.....	do.....	27.5	52.3	40.9	37.8	27.5	47.5	39.4	37.3	30.8	53.0	44.6	42.0
Prunes.....	do.....	35.8	27.3	29.3	28.6	28.5	27.4	29.4	28.6	27.7
Raisins.....	do.....	24.2	33.0	34.0	22.8	31.4	31.2	19.4	30.4	31.1
Bananas.....	Dozen.....	40.6	46.5	43.2	39.3	41.7	41.7	44.3	60.0	63.3
Oranges.....	do.....	49.0	63.6	45.6	58.6	71.4	73.7	57.8	71.8	78.9

* Whole.

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Mobile, Ala.			Newark, N. J.				New Haven, Conn.				New Orleans, La.				New York, N. Y.				
Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	
			1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919			
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
32.7	35.5	36.7	27.4	44.6	50.7	49.6	32.2	52.7	59.5	57.3	21.5	31.3	33.1	33.6	25.9	42.5	50.1	47.9	
32.3	35.9	35.3	27.3	45.2	50.4	49.2	29.6	46.9	53.7	50.8	19.0	28.1	31.2	31.0	25.4	44.4	50.3	47.7	
29.5	30.5	29.3	21.3	35.8	39.7	38.8	23.8	36.9	43.7	42.0	18.0	27.8	30.0	29.6	21.3	37.6	41.7	40.7	
23.4	26.0	24.9	17.8	26.3	27.6	27.5	19.6	30.6	33.9	32.6	14.9	20.6	21.9	22.0	16.0	27.6	28.8	28.2	
19.3	20.2	20.5	12.4	18.5	16.2	17.0	11.9	17.9	18.4	19.4	14.5	24.7	22.7	21.7	
46.8	56.9	48.0	23.7	44.7	52.7	46.2	23.0	43.6	54.3	46.2	24.5	45.2	53.7	49.5	22.6	46.7	52.1	47.1	
58.8	60.5	58.6	25.3	46.1	47.4	47.1	28.8	53.7	56.2	55.4	30.5	52.3	57.7	56.1	25.6	48.0	52.0	50.9	
52.3	60.0	57.3	19.8	35.0	42.4	39.7	32.4	55.2	69.1	64.0	26.0	46.3	57.8	57.1	27.8	56.3	63.1	60.4	
33.6	37.8	38.3	19.7	35.4	39.3	40.2	19.8	37.1	41.3	41.9	20.5	37.3	42.1	42.3	15.1	29.3	32.3	32.0	
41.4	48.6	46.4	22.0	41.6	46.9	44.8	23.8	45.6	51.3	49.6	20.5	42.7	46.7	46.0	21.1	39.9	46.5	44.4	
34.5	39.3	33.1	37.8	39.7	39.1	37.1	41.5	40.8	36.7	40.0	40.5	42.4	43.6	42.7	
22.0	23.5	23.5	9.0	17.5	19.0	19.0	9.0	16.0	17.0	17.0	9.8	18.5	18.5	18.5	17.7	18.0	18.0	
18.0	17.6	16.3	15.7	14.6	14.3	16.6	15.2	15.0	16.5	15.3	15.1	15.8	14.5	14.2	
76.9	72.5	72.5	42.7	79.1	71.5	74.4	36.3	70.4	67.1	65.3	38.1	76.1	71.5	70.0	39.9	77.9	69.9	71.6	
44.5	42.6	41.2	42.5	40.7	40.4	43.1	42.1	41.8	44.3	43.5	42.4	42.3	41.9	41.9	
40.9	41.5	38.5	35.5	35.8	35.1	36.2	36.1	35.8	36.2	35.0	35.6	34.5	34.9	34.4	
43.7	41.1	38.4	24.8	43.9	42.5	42.0	23.5	42.8	40.0	39.6	21.9	42.9	40.5	39.5	20.2	42.9	41.6	40.8	
38.9	29.3	28.2	16.3	37.2	29.3	29.0	15.7	36.4	27.9	27.8	15.0	36.4	27.3	27.8	16.2	36.3	30.1	29.9	
38.9	35.3	32.0	36.2	29.9	29.5	35.6	30.5	29.8	39.1	32.4	31.9	36.9	30.4	30.2	
75.0	70.3	79.4	67.0	86.6	91.0	101.9	59.7	96.5	97.8	103.1	41.3	69.3	66.3	68.8	56.1	88.1	87.4	99.9	
64.5	64.0	70.5	36.8	64.3	68.1	72.1	33.0	63.3	71.5	72.1	30.0	61.0	62.7	61.7	37.3	62.5	66.7	68.9	
9.6	11.0	11.0	5.6	9.8	11.4	11.4	6.0	10.6	11.8	12.0	4.8	9.2	10.7	10.5	6.0	10.0	11.9	11.9	
7.1	8.6	8.3	3.6	7.5	8.1	7.4	3.2	7.5	7.9	7.3	3.7	7.5	8.5	8.2	3.2	7.7	8.3	7.3	
6.0	5.4	4.7	3.6	7.3	8.1	7.7	3.2	7.8	7.9	7.8	2.8	5.5	5.1	4.7	3.5	7.6	8.1	7.9	
11.2	13.3	13.3	8.9	10.4	10.0	9.6	11.2	11.6	8.9	11.9	11.8	7.8	10.0	9.9	
14.7	14.7	14.6	12.3	13.0	13.1	14.2	13.8	13.8	14.4	14.1	14.1	12.1	12.7	12.6	
25.2	30.9	31.4	24.1	28.4	28.3	24.5	29.5	29.3	24.8	30.0	30.0	24.2	28.8	28.8	
19.2	21.6	21.2	21.8	25.3	25.6	20.6	22.5	22.5	11.4	11.6	11.7	21.0	24.2	24.0	
16.2	13.3	11.9	9.0	17.2	15.9	14.4	9.3	17.4	16.9	15.3	7.5	15.1	11.6	10.5	8.0	16.7	15.6	13.6	
14.2	12.2	10.4	12.3	11.0	10.4	12.1	11.0	10.7	11.6	10.2	9.6	12.6	11.2	10.6	
4.8	4.6	4.4	2.7	4.3	3.5	3.5	1.8	3.5	3.2	3.3	2.2	4.9	4.3	4.2	2.3	4.4	3.6	3.8	
7.3	5.1	4.7	7.3	5.4	4.9	7.2	4.9	4.3	6.7	4.6	4.1	6.8	4.8	4.6	
5.6	4.5	4.4	4.4	3.8	3.6	3.7	3.8	3.7	4.5	3.3	3.1	4.2	2.9	3.3	
18.2	16.1	15.7	14.9	14.4	14.2	17.6	16.9	16.5	17.2	16.7	16.3	15.3	15.2	14.9	
19.8	18.5	18.3	20.6	18.5	18.3	21.7	21.3	21.1	17.8	16.2	16.1	19.2	18.1	17.7	
19.6	18.9	20.0	19.8	19.2	18.7	22.1	22.4	22.9	17.8	17.5	17.7	18.0	18.2	17.4	
15.7	14.9	14.1	15.8	12.8	12.1	22.2	22.5	21.8	15.1	14.5	14.2	16.0	12.9	12.1	
23.0	14.8	13.8	5.2	11.0	13.6	12.2	5.2	11.6	14.0	13.0	5.1	11.1	13.9	12.3	4.9	10.8	13.1	11.9	
78.4	81.0	80.7	53.8	56.6	53.5	52.5	55.0	62.9	63.0	61.5	62.1	68.6	74.1	73.1	43.3	57.0	58.4	53.4	
46.2	40.8	40.4	29.3	46.1	36.3	34.8	33.8	50.5	46.7	43.7	25.7	42.5	35.3	34.4	27.2	45.1	37.4	34.6	
27.8	28.6	28.5	28.2	26.6	24.5	28.9	26.9	25.2	31.3	26.4	26.4	31.7	26.2	25.2	
25.2	30.7	34.1	21.6	31.2	31.7	24.1	31.1	33.6	22.5	30.1	32.4	22.2	32.0	32.4	
30.0	33.8	32.5	40.4	51.8	50.0	37.9	43.4	42.3	25.0	25.0	30.0	38.2	47.3	45.9	
41.7	55.0	49.6	65.0	73.9	73.9	61.3	68.4	77.1	41.0	51.0	45.6	61.0	75.7	82.4	

⁶ No. 3 can.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

Article.	Unit.	Norfolk, Va.			Omaha, Nebr.				Peoria, Ill.		
		Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
					1913	1919					
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	44.9	49.9	48.8	25.9	34.8	43.0	41.6	32.5	36.4	35.2
Round steak.....	do.....	40.0	44.1	43.1	23.1	31.6	39.3	38.1	30.3	35.1	34.6
Rib roast.....	do.....	34.8	38.8	37.8	20.0	25.8	30.0	29.3	24.3	26.8	26.4
Chuck roast.....	do.....	25.9	29.0	27.1	17.0	21.0	23.5	22.5	21.2	23.9	23.5
Plate beef.....	do.....	18.3	18.0	18.4	11.1	15.0	14.5	15.2	15.3	15.8	15.8
Pork chops.....	do.....	42.3	49.4	45.9	21.1	38.6	47.8	41.9	34.9	44.9	40.4
Bacon.....	do.....	50.6	54.6	52.3	28.8	54.7	59.2	58.2	51.2	55.6	54.1
Ham.....	do.....	50.0	53.3	52.0	31.3	55.0	64.2	61.6	52.3	60.6	57.5
Lamb.....	do.....	37.4	43.3	42.9	16.7	31.9	38.5	37.4	31.3	35.3	35.1
Hens.....	do.....	44.8	50.0	48.5	16.3	32.9	34.3	35.1	32.5	37.6	36.3
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	34.7	35.5	34.5	37.5	40.4	39.8	33.3	37.5	37.9
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	21.0	21.3	21.3	8.7	15.2	15.5	15.5	14.3	15.1	15.1
Milk, evaporated.....	15-16oz. can.....	16.2	13.1	14.8	17.6	15.9	15.5	17.7	15.7	15.3
Butter.....	Pound.....	76.4	73.4	72.8	37.0	75.8	64.6	66.7	72.9	63.5	65.3
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	45.8	45.8	45.8	44.2	43.9	42.9	44.4	40.2	39.9
Nut margarine.....	do.....	39.0	35.5	35.5	35.8	36.1	35.7	35.5	35.4	35.3
Cheese.....	do.....	41.7	39.1	39.2	23.3	43.6	39.1	38.7	43.7	39.3	38.5
Lard.....	do.....	39.2	29.6	29.3	17.7	37.6	31.7	31.0	36.1	29.1	28.9
Crisco.....	do.....	37.8	32.9	31.8	39.7	35.3	33.3	38.7	32.2	32.6
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	75.7	73.4	81.5	43.3	73.2	65.6	72.4	74.4	68.1	80.2
Eggs, storage.....	do.....	61.8	62.0	64.0	30.0	59.5	65.5	62.3	60.8	63.3	64.9
Bread.....	Pound.....	9.9	11.5	11.4	5.2	10.0	11.6	11.5	10.0	12.6	12.6
Flour.....	do.....	7.6	8.0	7.7	2.7	7.0	7.3	6.6	8.0	8.1	7.7
Corn meal.....	do.....	5.9	5.5	5.1	2.7	6.7	5.8	5.6	6.3	6.0	5.4
Roll'd Oats.....	do.....	10.1	11.5	11.6	9.2	13.9	13.5	9.1	13.0	12.6
Cornflakes.....	8-oz. pkg.....	14.4	14.2	13.9	15.0	15.4	15.0	14.7	15.3	15.1
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.....	25.8	28.9	28.3	25.9	31.7	31.5	26.0	31.9	32.0
Macaroni.....	Pound.....	19.3	22.4	21.1	21.6	23.2	23.1	19.2	22.1	21.8
Rice.....	do.....	19.0	18.9	18.0	8.5	18.6	16.4	14.8	17.9	16.8	14.7
Beans, navy.....	do.....	14.0	11.9	10.7	13.2	11.5	10.0	12.2	10.9	9.4
Potatoes.....	do.....	4.0	3.7	3.6	1.8	4.3	2.9	3.0	3.6	3.0	2.9
Onions.....	do.....	7.8	5.4	4.9	7.8	4.4	4.1	7.5	5.1	4.5
Cabbage.....	do.....	4.6	4.7	4.6	4.4	2.9	3.2	4.4	3.8	3.6
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can.....	14.1	13.9	13.6	20.0	19.6	18.9	18.0	17.5	17.2
Corn, canned.....	do.....	20.8	20.9	20.4	18.3	17.9	17.2	17.4	17.3	17.3
Peas, canned.....	do.....	21.2	22.1	21.9	18.9	18.4	17.7	18.5	18.4	17.9
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	15.1	14.1	12.6	17.5	16.1	15.6	15.9	15.3	15.1
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound.....	11.5	13.5	13.0	5.7	13.1	14.2	12.6	13.1	13.7	13.1
Tea.....	do.....	84.0	90.4	87.2	56.0	76.9	80.2	80.2	73.7	72.7	72.7
Coffee.....	do.....	52.1	48.7	47.0	30.0	52.4	43.7	41.6	46.9	43.7	42.3
Prunes.....	do.....	31.3	27.6	25.9	29.9	30.5	29.4	31.7	32.1	30.7
Raisins.....	do.....	21.8	29.1	30.2	25.8	32.2	32.5	22.4	31.1	33.4
Bananas.....	Dozen.....	39.5	44.5	45.6	46.3	46.7	60.0	11.0	14.3	13.9
Oranges.....	do.....	50.0	75.5	56.8	58.9	75.8	78.5	53.7	66.0	71.5

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

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Philadelphia, Pa.				Pittsburgh, Pa.				Portland, Me.				Portland, Oreg.				Providence, R. I.			
Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	
1913	1919			1913	1919						1913	1919			1913	1919			
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
730.5	749.3	757.0	755.3	27.3	45.2	49.5	48.3	755.3	763.3	761.4	22.9	30.6	32.3	31.6	739.8	765.3	777.8	775.8	
25.7	45.0	49.9	48.8	24.0	40.8	44.5	43.5	46.8	52.5	50.3	21.0	29.1	30.4	30.0	31.0	53.6	60.8	58.7	
21.5	38.0	41.7	40.3	21.7	34.8	38.0	36.6	31.1	31.8	30.6	19.1	27.9	29.3	29.0	24.2	42.0	45.9	44.1	
18.0	29.3	30.2	29.0	17.3	28.2	29.1	28.4	24.4	24.6	23.4	16.7	21.1	21.4	21.0	18.8	34.8	35.7	34.0	
12.0	17.5	16.8	15.9	12.8	18.2	18.0	18.2	13.5	15.9	16.4	16.2	
22.5	43.1	50.1	45.0	22.5	44.6	51.0	45.0	47.6	54.5	47.7	21.4	41.5	47.5	44.6	22.0	48.7	58.4	50.6	
26.9	51.3	50.2	49.2	30.4	54.9	56.4	55.3	48.8	51.1	50.8	30.3	55.6	60.2	57.7	22.8	48.1	50.4	48.8	
30.4	56.7	66.0	62.6	29.8	57.7	65.0	63.6	51.9	66.5	63.9	30.0	52.9	60.6	57.2	32.7	61.1	70.5	64.5	
18.8	39.2	43.0	42.6	20.3	39.1	42.6	43.0	33.5	39.2	38.1	17.5	30.7	32.9	32.9	18.7	41.1	45.3	45.2	
23.1	44.1	49.7	46.9	23.8	43.4	49.1	48.8	45.4	52.5	49.2	20.3	37.5	38.9	40.1	25.0	47.2	49.8	52.3	
.....	32.5	35.8	35.8	36.3	40.1	40.4	34.9	38.8	38.6	40.4	48.2	46.3	40.0	43.0	42.5	
8.0	14.0	15.0	15.0	9.2	16.0	16.0	16.0	15.0	17.0	17.0	9.7	15.9	15.6	15.6	9.0	17.0	18.1	18.1	
.....	16.2	15.1	15.1	16.4	15.1	14.8	17.4	16.1	15.8	17.2	14.5	14.0	17.4	16.0	16.0	
44.3	81.9	75.8	76.0	40.4	78.5	70.8	73.9	76.9	73.3	70.1	40.4	74.1	66.2	66.1	38.4	72.3	68.8	67.5	
.....	45.7	44.4	41.9	43.1	38.8	37.7	44.6	43.3	43.1	43.0	42.0	41.0	40.5	41.6	41.6	
.....	38.0	36.8	36.6	35.8	35.3	34.1	35.9	35.4	34.9	38.6	38.0	37.1	35.0	35.5	35.2	
25.0	45.9	41.9	41.3	24.5	43.5	41.1	40.4	44.8	41.6	41.6	20.8	43.8	42.1	40.6	22.0	42.8	40.5	41.1	
15.5	35.7	29.0	28.3	15.7	36.6	28.6	28.4	37.1	28.3	28.2	17.8	40.7	33.8	34.1	15.8	36.6	27.5	28.6	
.....	35.2	29.5	29.2	37.4	30.4	30.1	38.0	32.6	31.9	42.1	35.7	34.7	37.4	31.4	31.7	
50.8	82.9	80.4	90.8	46.3	78.6	75.9	86.6	98.3	95.0	110.8	55.0	87.9	77.8	85.2	63.0	104.7	100.7	111.2	
34.7	62.8	66.2	68.2	33.4	60.9	63.6	67.1	67.4	69.0	70.1	37.5	69.5	63.6	67.9	36.8	62.8	67.3	68.7	
4.8	9.4	10.6	10.6	5.4	10.3	11.8	11.8	11.0	12.0	12.0	5.5	10.6	11.3	10.4	6.1	10.6	12.3	12.3	
3.2	7.4	7.9	7.5	3.2	7.6	7.8	7.3	7.6	7.9	7.4	2.9	6.8	7.1	6.4	2.9	8.0	8.2	7.7	
2.9	6.5	5.9	5.3	3.0	7.3	7.5	6.9	6.9	7.1	5.9	3.5	7.6	7.3	6.7	3.1	6.4	6.6	6.2	
.....	8.3	10.3	9.7	9.5	11.6	11.3	8.2	10.0	9.3	9.1	12.2	12.0	9.4	12.3	11.9	
.....	12.4	12.8	12.8	13.8	14.0	13.9	14.3	15.1	14.7	14.6	14.5	14.4	13.9	14.1	14.1	
.....	24.7	28.5	28.7	25.1	29.8	29.9	25.2	29.9	29.9	28.2	33.8	33.4	24.7	30.6	30.5	
.....	20.7	22.8	22.2	18.9	22.5	22.6	22.8	24.8	24.7	17.4	18.7	18.5	22.6	25.0	24.3	
9.8	18.1	16.9	15.6	9.2	18.6	17.8	16.1	16.6	18.3	16.1	8.6	18.8	17.1	15.6	9.3	17.4	17.4	15.1	
.....	11.9	10.8	10.1	12.1	10.0	9.3	12.1	10.9	10.2	11.8	9.4	8.6	11.7	10.1	9.8	
2.3	4.5	3.5	3.4	2.0	3.9	3.3	3.3	3.4	2.8	3.0	1.2	3.3	2.8	2.4	1.7	3.7	3.2	3.4	
.....	6.8	4.2	4.0	7.2	4.9	4.6	6.3	4.4	3.6	5.6	4.2	4.0	6.6	4.5	4.1	
.....	5.3	3.4	3.3	4.6	3.9	4.1	2.7	2.3	2.2	3.4	3.0	2.8	4.1	4.0	3.9	
.....	14.6	15.1	14.9	16.3	16.5	16.4	19.4	18.5	18.8	21.8	21.0	21.2	16.4	16.4	16.2	
.....	18.0	17.5	17.3	18.8	17.8	17.2	19.8	19.7	19.2	22.5	22.4	21.9	20.0	20.8	20.6	
.....	18.5	17.9	17.3	19.1	17.8	17.9	20.6	20.5	20.7	22.5	21.2	20.7	19.8	21.6	21.3	
.....	15.7	14.8	12.6	15.1	14.1	12.9	19.0	17.8	16.7	17.8	13.9	13.6	17.3	15.1	14.8	
5.0	10.8	13.6	11.9	5.7	12.1	13.7	13.2	11.0	14.3	13.0	6.1	11.8	13.8	12.8	5.0	11.1	15.0	13.0	
54.0	61.6	61.2	61.2	58.0	82.6	78.7	77.9	63.6	63.2	62.9	55.0	63.2	68.3	68.2	48.3	60.2	59.9	60.1	
24.5	44.5	33.9	32.5	30.0	50.0	44.6	42.9	51.0	47.5	44.5	35.0	50.4	44.7	43.4	30.0	52.1	47.7	44.7	
.....	30.3	26.0	25.9	31.0	29.3	28.2	28.1	25.4	25.3	25.2	21.7	19.1	29.0	28.0	25.0	
.....	21.2	31.2	29.9	24.5	33.9	34.3	24.3	30.1	31.2	20.9	30.0	30.9	22.8	30.0	29.8	
.....	40.0	41.5	40.0	47.9	49.7	52.6	38.3	65.0	65.0	45.9	56.0	56.3	42.0	51.9	50.6	
.....	57.1	69.3	66.9	53.2	75.3	78.2	64.7	84.8	81.0	64.6	82.5	91.7	64.3	77.8	74.1	

8 Per pound.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

Article.	Unit.	Richmond, Va.				Rochester, N. Y.			St. Louis, Mo.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
		1913	1919						1913	1919		
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
Sirloin steak.....	Pound.....	22.2	42.3	46.1	44.8	38.0	43.6	42.0	26.6	34.5	40.6	40.0
Round steak.....	do.....	20.0	38.5	42.2	41.1	35.0	39.9	38.2	23.6	34.5	39.6	38.5
Rib roast.....	do.....	18.9	32.7	34.2	34.2	30.6	33.0	32.3	20.1	28.6	31.5	31.4
Chuck roast.....	do.....	15.9	27.9	28.2	27.9	27.2	28.8	28.2	16.0	20.8	22.7	22.5
Plate beef.....	do.....	13.2	22.3	22.5	22.1	18.8	18.9	18.7	12.4	17.5	18.3	17.9
Pork chops.....	do.....	21.2	43.1	48.9	44.6	41.4	49.4	44.9	17.8	36.7	44.4	37.4
Bacon.....	do.....	27.2	48.9	50.0	49.5	42.4	45.4	44.9	25.8	48.2	50.9	48.1
Ham.....	do.....	25.0	49.0	55.5	54.7	49.1	58.2	56.1	27.3	52.1	54.4	55.5
Lamb.....	do.....	19.3	39.4	44.4	45.0	30.1	36.8	36.6	18.3	32.2	33.8	34.5
Hens.....	do.....	19.5	41.3	45.7	45.3	41.1	47.5	45.4	16.5	31.9	34.6	33.4
Salmon, canned.....	do.....	26.7	26.4	25.1	35.8	40.2	38.8	34.2	36.4	37.1
Milk, fresh.....	Quart.....	10.0	16.7	16.5	16.0	14.5	15.5	15.5	8.8	16.0	16.8	16.9
Milk, evaporated.....	15-16 oz. can.....	17.1	16.5	16.5	17.3	15.9	15.8	16.2	13.9	13.8
Butter.....	Pound.....	41.2	79.8	75.1	75.9	72.9	68.6	68.6	38.1	78.5	69.8	71.7
Oleomargarine.....	do.....	43.8	44.5	43.4	44.6	42.8	41.9	40.5	38.6	37.9
Nut margarine.....	do.....	37.3	37.8	37.6	34.6	35.1	34.7	35.0	34.3	33.9
Cheese.....	do.....	22.8	43.4	40.5	39.9	42.0	39.6	39.2	20.3	41.3	38.1	36.7
Lard.....	do.....	15.4	37.4	29.7	29.5	36.4	27.6	27.7	12.9	31.5	24.4	23.9
Crisco.....	do.....	38.7	32.8	31.2	36.7	31.0	29.8	35.8	30.7	28.7
Eggs, strictly fresh.....	Dozen.....	40.0	76.9	78.4	79.2	94.4	83.0	96.7	38.9	71.9	69.2	77.7
Eggs, storage.....	do.....	33.0	64.5	66.5	66.0	61.2	63.5	65.1	32.5	57.8	59.4	61.4
Bread.....	Pound.....	5.3	11.1	13.1	12.8	10.0	11.4	11.2	5.6	10.0	12.1	12.0
Flour.....	do.....	3.2	7.7	8.0	7.5	7.5	7.9	7.4	2.9	6.9	7.1	6.6
Corn meal.....	do.....	2.3	6.1	6.2	5.5	7.0	7.3	7.0	2.5	5.5	5.1	4.6
Roll'd Oats.....	do.....	10.8	12.2	12.2	7.4	8.7	7.7	6.4	10.6	10.0
Cornflakes.....	8-oz. pkg.....	14.7	14.6	14.3	13.8	14.6	14.5	13.2	12.9	12.8
Cream of Wheat.....	28-oz. pkg.....	25.7	30.9	31.4	24.8	30.1	30.1	24.4	30.2	30.1
Macaroni.....	Pound.....	18.2	21.5	20.9	20.5	21.9	22.3	18.3	20.2	20.8
Rice.....	do.....	10.0	19.1	18.9	17.2	18.0	17.3	14.9	8.1	16.8	14.4	12.9
Beans, navy.....	do.....	14.0	12.0	10.8	12.1	11.1	10.6	11.7	9.4	8.7
Potatoes.....	do.....	2.0	4.8	4.5	4.1	2.9	2.4	2.5	1.8	4.1	3.8	3.6
Onions.....	do.....	6.9	5.6	4.9	6.4	4.4	3.9	6.8	4.4	4.2
Cabbage.....	do.....	5.1	4.2	4.1	3.4	2.7	1.8	4.2	3.7	3.3
Beans, baked.....	No. 2 can.....	14.9	13.9	13.3	15.2	14.3	14.4	15.3	15.1	15.1
Corn, canned.....	do.....	19.4	19.9	19.2	19.8	19.8	19.6	16.7	15.5	15.6
Peas, canned.....	do.....	22.4	21.4	21.2	19.7	20.6	20.0	15.9	15.8	15.8
Tomatoes, canned.....	do.....	18.3	14.4	13.3	16.2	15.7	15.5	15.0	13.9	12.7
Sugar, granulated.....	Pound.....	5.4	11.3	14.8	13.8	11.0	14.0	12.9	5.1	13.0	12.5	12.0
Tea.....	do.....	56.0	83.3	89.6	90.8	63.3	68.1	67.5	55.0	72.0	74.9	74.3
Coffee.....	do.....	27.4	47.4	44.2	42.4	46.4	40.5	38.1	24.4	46.7	38.2	37.6
Prunes.....	do.....	33.3	28.6	28.0	28.7	27.7	25.8	30.2	29.3	28.0
Raisins.....	do.....	21.9	31.7	32.8	21.8	31.1	31.2	26.2	31.4	31.7
Bananas.....	Dozen.....	45.4	52.4	51.8	41.1	48.5	49.3	36.0	38.9	39.4
Oranges.....	do.....	50.9	75.0	59.3	57.2	73.3	81.3	44.4	64.1	57.9

⁹ No. 2½ can.

OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

St. Paul, Minn.				Salt Lake City, Utah.				San Francisco, Calif.				Savannah, Ga.		Scranton, Pa.			
Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.
1913	1919			1913	1919			1913	1919					1913	1919		
Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.
25.0	31.3	39.2	37.7	22.4	30.9	33.7	33.3	21.0	29.1	32.1	34.4	39.6	37.9	26.0	43.2	52.3	51.9
20.8	27.5	32.4	31.6	20.0	28.8	31.7	30.2	19.7	28.1	30.3	32.1	35.4	34.6	21.5	37.5	44.9	43.7
20.0	27.3	30.7	30.0	19.0	25.3	27.0	25.9	21.3	28.7	30.8	31.5	30.2	29.4	23.0	34.4	38.9	38.4
16.0	21.9	23.6	23.4	14.5	20.8	23.1	22.3	15.5	20.4	21.1	22.4	23.8	22.5	17.6	27.5	31.7	31.1
10.8	13.7	14.5	14.5	12.5	15.1	15.8	15.6	14.3	17.3	17.8	19.5	18.4	19.3	11.9	17.4	18.7	18.6
18.8	35.4	42.8	37.8	23.4	41.3	50.0	47.3	24.2	43.2	46.4	46.4	48.3	42.9	21.8	45.1	52.7	47.4
25.3	47.4	54.7	53.3	30.0	53.7	56.5	55.8	34.4	59.1	64.8	64.8	53.5	50.0	27.5	53.7	56.2	54.2
28.3	48.8	58.8	57.1	30.0	53.0	58.7	56.4	32.0	55.7	62.5	62.8	56.7	53.3	29.3	50.0	64.5	59.7
16.1	26.2	31.0	31.5	18.0	27.4	31.3	31.0	17.0	31.4	35.2	35.9	45.0	43.3	18.7	39.9	46.3	46.0
16.4	28.9	33.3	32.4	22.6	32.6	40.2	42.5	24.8	47.9	49.8	51.6	50.0	46.0	21.0	45.5	51.8	50.3
.....	36.9	41.7	40.7	35.0	40.0	40.4	33.4	34.6	34.9	43.8	43.8	39.2	42.7	43.6
7.8	13.0	14.0	14.0	8.7	12.5	12.5	12.5	10.0	15.0	16.8	16.8	24.7	24.7	8.8	15.0	16.0	16.0
14.8	17.4	15.6	14.8	16.9	14.9	14.8	15.2	13.2	13.0	15.0	14.7	16.1	15.1	15.1
35.0	72.9	62.4	65.3	39.2	74.4	69.5	66.1	40.4	74.3	70.0	66.9	72.1	71.2	37.1	69.6	68.0	63.9
.....	41.1	42.5	42.6	42.9	40.2	41.5	37.5	38.1	37.9	44.8	43.7	44.4	42.5	42.2
.....	34.6	34.8	34.4	39.3	37.7	37.5	35.5	35.3	35.3	38.6	37.4	37.6	36.7	36.4
21.0	41.9	39.6	37.8	24.2	42.7	38.7	38.6	21.0	44.4	43.0	42.1	40.5	38.1	18.3	41.1	39.4	38.3
14.8	35.4	29.4	29.0	20.0	36.8	31.7	31.5	17.7	36.8	31.7	32.1	31.0	33.0	16.5	37.5	29.6	29.7
.....	41.2	36.2	34.9	43.2	36.1	35.6	38.9	32.5	32.4	33.0	32.0	37.9	32.3	32.4
39.6	73.8	67.8	77.0	46.7	82.7	77.8	84.3	65.0	88.7	90.5	95.5	69.4	80.0	51.3	88.6	80.4	96.1
31.2	60.5	60.5	62.5	35.0	65.2	67.9	70.0	40.7	60.8	62.2	64.4	61.7	63.3	32.5	63.1	63.7	67.9
6.0	9.4	11.4	10.4	5.9	10.0	12.4	12.2	5.9	11.7	10.9	10.9	12.4	12.4	5.6	10.0	13.9	13.9
2.9	7.5	7.2	6.4	2.4	6.2	5.9	5.5	3.4	7.2	7.7	7.4	8.3	7.9	3.6	7.9	8.6	7.9
2.5	6.5	6.9	6.1	3.3	7.4	7.1	6.9	3.5	7.2	7.3	6.8	5.0	4.6	8.7	8.2	8.4
.....	7.8	10.2	9.5	10.2	10.6	10.4	8.6	11.1	11.1	13.0	13.5	10.4	12.2	11.9
14.4	15.3	14.9	14.7	15.2	15.0	14.2	14.7	14.6	14.9	15.0	14.2	14.4	14.4	
25.6	31.2	31.0	26.5	34.0	34.0	24.6	29.1	29.0	31.4	31.2	25.4	29.6	29.9	
19.2	20.3	19.9	19.8	22.7	23.0	13.4	14.2	13.9	22.9	23.1	21.9	25.9	25.4	
10.0	19.0	17.0	14.6	8.2	17.8	15.0	13.5	8.5	16.0	15.3	13.9	13.8	11.6	8.5	18.0	17.3	15.0
.....	12.0	11.3	10.4	12.9	10.7	10.9	9.8	8.8	7.8	14.3	13.2	14.8	12.7	11.8
1.4	3.2	2.6	2.6	1.3	3.3	2.6	2.6	1.9	3.6	3.6	2.9	4.1	3.8	1.8	3.4	3.0	3.0
.....	6.7	3.9	3.3	6.1	3.4	3.4	5.2	2.8	2.4	5.8	5.4	6.3	5.2	5.0
.....	3.5	2.9	3.1	5.4	3.1	3.2	5.0	5.0	3.0	2.6	2.6
19.3	19.0	19.0	19.3	20.0	20.0	18.6	18.2	18.2	17.6	17.9	16.3	15.4	15.0	
18.0	17.7	17.6	18.1	18.9	18.9	18.0	18.0	19.0	17.7	18.3	20.0	18.0	18.0	
.....	17.1	17.4	17.2	18.0	17.7	17.3	17.5	19.1	18.7	18.3	18.2	19.1	18.5	18.4
.....	16.3	14.8	14.4	17.0	15.3	15.0	13.9	13.9	13.8	14.3	13.8	17.5	15.1	14.9
5.1	13.8	14.3	13.1	5.7	12.3	15.0	13.8	5.4	10.8	13.7	12.5	14.5	12.5	5.6	11.6	14.8	13.8
45.0	63.4	73.1	73.4	65.7	79.9	82.3	83.8	50.0	58.9	59.3	59.8	81.0	78.2	52.5	67.2	69.5	68.3
30.0	50.8	47.7	43.3	35.8	58.6	56.3	54.6	32.0	44.7	39.4	39.2	39.6	36.1	31.3	50.0	47.8	45.7
.....	29.1	30.1	28.6	18.8	26.8	26.4	22.4	22.5	21.7	30.7	31.4	27.9	26.4	24.6
.....	22.9	32.5	33.1	23.1	31.1	30.8	20.3	30.1	29.7	30.6	31.8	22.0	31.0	31.5
.....	55.0	67.5	60.0	51.0	68.3	60.0	46.0	45.0	43.6	60.0	55.0	34.6	39.2	39.5
.....	58.4	71.8	87.4	56.4	73.0	73.8	57.7	64.3	70.0	116.7	47.0	58.6	70.8	70.6

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Concluded.

Article.	Unit.	Seattle, Wash.						Springfield, Ill.			Washington, D. C.			
		Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1919.	Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15—		Oct. 15, 1920.	Nov. 15, 1920.		
		1913	1919						1913	1919				
		Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.	Cts.		
Sirloin steak	Pound	23.6	35.2	36.0	35.8	31.5	41.0	39.2	26.5	47.9	52.0	50.5		
Round steak	do	20.6	32.6	33.3	32.3	31.4	39.8	38.5	22.5	43.3	47.4	45.1		
Rib roast	do	20.0	28.5	29.7	28.8	22.7	27.2	26.5	21.0	37.0	41.3	39.8		
Chuck roast	do	15.6	22.2	21.3	20.9	19.9	23.7	22.0	17.6	29.0	30.6	30.2		
Plate beef	do	12.8	17.8	17.0	16.6	15.5	17.2	17.2	12.8	18.6	18.2	18.5		
Pork chops	do	24.0	45.1	50.9	46.2	37.6	46.9	41.2	21.4	45.2	53.0	48.2		
Bacon	do	32.0	59.2	64.5	61.4	45.7	50.0	48.7	26.4	50.0	51.8	50.6		
Ham	do	30.0	56.5	63.2	58.7	43.8	58.9	56.4	31.3	56.3	62.1	61.2		
Lamb	do	18.4	32.2	33.3	32.5	33.3	37.5	36.7	19.1	39.0	45.7	45.7		
Hens	do	24.2	42.3	36.8	39.7	33.0	35.3	38.5	21.3	45.3	49.3	48.6		
Salmon, canned	do	34.2	38.0	37.8	35.6	39.5	40.5	34.5	38.7	37.7		
Milk, fresh	Quart.	10.0	15.0	14.0	13.0	16.7	16.7	16.7	9.0	18.0	18.0	18.0		
Milk, evaporated	15-16 oz. can	16.5	13.5	13.0	18.3	17.4	17.3	16.5	15.2	15.1		
Butter	Pound	40.8	74.5	65.1	63.4	77.8	69.3	73.4	40.3	78.1	72.5	74.1		
Oleomargarine	do	40.4	41.3	41.3	45.4	40.8	40.5	42.6	42.3	42.6		
Nut margarine	do	36.7	36.7	36.1	36.0	35.7	35.9	35.5	35.9	35.6		
Cheese	do	22.8	43.0	40.8	40.5	44.6	41.9	40.9	23.5	42.5	40.7	40.3		
Lard	do	16.9	39.1	31.8	31.8	36.3	29.3	28.5	15.0	36.1	29.3	28.9		
Crisco	do	42.1	35.4	34.3	40.2	34.3	34.6	37.7	31.7	30.7		
Eggs, strictly fresh	Dozen	59.2	90.1	85.3	85.2	72.8	70.3	82.2	47.9	84.3	79.5	90.6		
Eggs, storage	do	37.5	66.6	66.7	67.0	61.1	64.7	68.3	35.0	62.1	65.5	68.9		
Bread	Pound	5.6	11.5	11.5	11.4	10.0	13.5	13.5	5.7	10.1	12.0	12.0		
Flour	do	2.9	6.8	6.9	6.2	7.6	8.0	7.4	3.8	7.7	8.2	7.8		
Corn meal	do	3.2	7.3	7.0	6.3	6.6	6.9	6.1	2.6	5.6	5.4	4.8		
Rolled Oats	do	8.7	10.5	10.3	10.5	13.7	13.7	10.7	12.4	12.9		
Cornflakes	8-oz. pkg.	14.9	14.8	14.7	14.9	15.5	15.4	14.0	14.0	13.9		
Cream of Wheat	28-oz. pkg.	27.5	31.8	31.5	27.5	31.3	31.4	24.8	29.7	29.8		
Macaroni	Pound	17.0	19.2	19.0	18.9	23.4	23.6	20.4	24.5	24.4		
Rice	do	7.7	18.3	18.0	15.6	18.8	18.5	15.9	9.4	18.1	17.0	15.5		
Beans, navy	do	11.9	9.5	8.5	12.7	10.8	9.6	12.6	10.7	10.2		
Potatoes	do	1.4	3.7	2.8	2.7	4.1	3.4	3.3	1.8	3.7	2.9	3.1		
Onions	do	7.1	4.2	3.7	6.9	5.5	4.2	6.7	4.8	4.6		
Cabbage	do	4.9	3.0	2.9	4.4	3.7	3.3	4.5	3.3	3.4		
Beans, baked	No. 2 can	21.6	19.8	19.5	17.9	18.3	18.1	14.7	14.7	14.6		
Corn, canned	do	20.2	20.5	20.1	16.9	16.8	17.2	18.9	17.4	17.3		
Peas, canned	do	20.7	20.3	20.3	18.0	18.2	18.3	19.0	17.9	17.8		
Tomatoes, canned	do	18.0	16.0	15.3	17.0	15.7	15.3	16.3	13.4	12.7		
Sugar, granulated	Pound	6.1	11.6	14.1	12.8	13.9	14.7	13.9	5.1	11.5	14.0	12.8		
Tea	do	50.0	63.2	69.8	69.3	84.4	86.6	88.2	57.5	75.9	77.5	78.8		
Coffee	do	28.0	48.2	44.1	42.1	50.6	46.3	43.0	28.8	47.7	41.6	39.1		
Prunes	do	27.7	26.8	25.8	31.7	29.9	28.7	31.3	29.8	28.5		
Raisins	do	22.4	30.2	30.8	25.0	35.1	35.4	22.8	30.9	32.5		
Bananas	Dozen	52.1	65.0	65.0	38.3	51.0	55.0	44.8	48.4	48.6		
Oranges	do	56.6	79.2	80.4	52.2	78.4	72.5	57.6	73.1	57.7		

¹⁰ No. 2½ can.

Comparison of Retail Food Costs in 51 Cities.

TABLE 6 shows for 39 cities the percentage of increase or decrease in the retail cost of 22 food articles⁶ in November, 1920, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in November, 1919, and in October, 1920. For 11 other cities comparisons are given for the one-year and one-month periods. These cities have been scheduled by the bureau at different dates since 1913. For Savannah, Ga., the comparison is given only for the month, as this city was first scheduled by the bureau in 1920. 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.⁷

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have perfect reporting cities. For the month of November, 98 per cent of all the firms reporting in the 51 cities sent in a report promptly. The following were perfect reporting cities; that is, every merchant in the following-named 32 cities who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report in time for his prices to be included in the city averages: Bridgeport, Buffalo, Butte, Charleston, Chicago, Cleveland, Columbus, Denver, Detroit, Kansas City, Little Rock, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Milwaukee, Minneapolis, Newark, New Haven, Peoria, Philadelphia, Portland, Me., Portland, Oreg., Providence, Richmond, Rochester, St. Louis, St. Paul, Salt Lake City, San Francisco, Scranton, Seattle, and Washington, D. C.

The following summary shows the promptness with which the merchants responded in November:

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING NOVEMBER.

Item.	United States.	Geographical division.				
		North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.
Percentage of reports received.....	98	99	97	99	95	100
Number of cities in each section from which every report was received.....	32	10	3	10	2	a7

^a Total number of cities in this division.

⁶ For list of articles, see note 2, p. 60.

⁷ The consumption figure used for each article in each city is given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1918, pp. 94 and 95.

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE RETAIL COST OF 22 FOOD ARTICLES IN NOVEMBER, 1920, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN OCTOBER, 1920, NOVEMBER, 1919, AND WITH THE AVERAGE COST IN THE YEAR 1913, BY CITIES.

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

City.	Percent- age in- crease Novem- ber, 1920, com- pared with year 1913.	Percent- age in- crease (+) or de- crease (-) Novem- ber, 1920, com- pared with Novem- ber, 1919.	Percent- age de- crease Novem- ber, 1920, com- pared with October, 1920.	City.	Percent- age in- crease Novem- ber, 1920, com- pared with year 1913.	Percent- age in- crease (+) or de- crease (-) Novem- ber, 1920, com- pared with Novem- ber, 1919.	Percent- age de- crease Novem- ber, 1920, com- pared with October, 1920.
Atlanta.....	91	-2	3	Milwaukee.....	92	-3	2
Baltimore.....	100	+1	2	Mimeapolis.....	88	-3	3
Birmingham.....	98	-3	4	Mobile.....	-3	3
Boston.....	101	+6	1	Newark.....	90	+3	1
Bridgeport.....	+3	1	New Haven.....	94	+3	3
Buffalo.....	102	+4	2	New Orleans.....	92	+1	2
Butte.....	+2	3	New York.....	97	+1	1
Charleston.....	98	-2	3	Norfolk.....	+1	2
Chicago.....	94	-0.2	2	Omaha.....	93	-3	2
Cincinnati.....	94	+2	2	Peoria.....	+1	1
Cleveland.....	96	+1	3	Philadelphia.....	92	+0.1	2
Columbus.....	-0.3	1	Pittsburgh.....	95	+1	1
Dallas.....	85	-3	3	Portland, Me.....	+3	2
Denver.....	82	-3	2	Portland, Oreg.....	73	-3	2
Detroit.....	101	-0.2	2	Providence.....	104	+3	2
Fall River.....	99	+4	2	Richmond.....	106	0	3
Houston.....	0	3	Rochester.....	+2	1
Indianapolis.....	86	-2	3	St. Louis.....	96	-2	3
Jacksonville.....	84	-0.4	2	St. Paul.....	-1	2
Kansas City, Mo.....	92	-1	3	Salt Lake City.....	75	0	2
Little Rock.....	83	-3	3	San Francisco.....	82	+3	1
Los Angeles.....	77	+4	2	Savannah.....	3
Louisville.....	83	-3	3	Seranton.....	102	+5	1
Manchester.....	100	+4	3	Seattle.....	73	-7	4
Memphis.....	88	-7	5	Springfield, Ill.....	+3	0.4
				Washington, D. C.....	101	+0.4	1

Retail Prices of Coal in the United States.¹

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on January 15, October 15, and November 15, 1920, for the United States and for each of the cities included in the total for the United States. Prices for coal are secured from the cities from which monthly retail prices of food are received.

In addition to the prices for Pennsylvania anthracite, prices are shown for Colorado, Arkansas, and New Mexico anthracite in those cities where these coals form any considerable portion of the sales for household use.

The prices shown for bituminous coal are averages of prices of the several kinds used. The coal dealers in each city are asked to quote prices on the kinds of bituminous coal usually sold for household use.

The prices quoted are for coal delivered to consumers but do not include charges for storing the coal in cellar or coal bin where an extra handling is necessary.

¹ Prices of coal have formerly been secured semiannually and published in the March and September issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW. Since June, 1920, these prices have been secured and published monthly.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS OF COAL FOR HOUSEHOLD USE,
ON JAN. 15, OCT. 15, AND NOV. 15, 1920.

City, and kind of coal.	1920		
	Jan. 15.	Oct. 15.	Nov. 15.
United States:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	\$12.588	\$16.077	\$16.216
Chestnut.....	12.768	16.151	16.292
Bituminous.....	8.808	12.502	12.530
Atlanta, Ga.:			
Bituminous.....	9.050	14.596	14.375
Baltimore, Md.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.500	15.500	15.708
Chestnut.....	12.600	15.500	15.708
Bituminous.....	7.500	11.125	11.594
Birmingham, Ala.:			
Bituminous.....	7.496	10.269	10.421
Boston, Mass.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.750	16.000	16.000
Chestnut.....	12.750	16.000	16.000
Bridgeport, Conn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.500	17.954	17.500
Chestnut.....	12.500	17.954	17.500
Bituminous.....	8.500		
Buffalo, N. Y.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	10.890	13.220	13.220
Chestnut.....	10.990	13.240	13.240
Butte, Mont.:			
Bituminous.....	10.381	12.570	12.801
Charleston, S. C.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.400	17.875	17.875
Chestnut.....	13.500	17.725	17.725
Bituminous.....	8.500	13.000	13.250
Chicago, Ill.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.590	16.710	16.635
Chestnut.....	12.690	16.750	16.663
Bituminous.....	8.020	10.940	10.661
Cincinnati, Ohio:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.500	15.725	16.215
Chestnut.....	12.667	15.500	16.250
Bituminous.....	6.739	9.000	9.000
Cleveland, Ohio:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.300	16.540	16.290
Chestnut.....	12.233	16.513	16.263
Bituminous.....	7.911	12.350	12.064
Columbus, Ohio:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Chestnut.....	12.000	16.300	16.500
Bituminous.....	6.513	11.508	10.875
Dallas, Tex.:			
Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg.....	18.500	20.000	20.500
Bituminous.....	14.583	15.583	15.583
Denver, Colo.:			
Colorado anthracite—			
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed.....	14.000	17.600	17.600
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed.....	13.500	17.600	17.600
Bituminous.....	8.908	11.667	11.691
Detroit, Mich.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.650	16.500	17.700
Chestnut.....	12.750	16.438	17.600
Bituminous.....	8.781	14.029	13.706
Fall River, Mass.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.000	17.500	16.333
Chestnut.....	12.750	16.500	16.250
Bituminous.....	10.000	14.000	14.000
Houston, Tex.:			
Bituminous.....	12.000	16.132	16.610
Indianapolis, Ind.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.000	16.430
Chestnut.....	13.167	16.415
Bituminous.....	8.188	10.729	10.708

¹ Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS OF COAL FOR HOUSEHOLD USE
ON JAN. 15, OCT. 15, AND NOV. 15, 1920—Continued.

City, and kind of coal.	1920		
	Jan. 15.	Oct. 15.	Nov. 15.
Jacksonville, Fla.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	17.000	23.000	23.000
Chestnut.....	17.000	23.000	23.000
Bituminous.....	11.000	18.000	16.000
Kansas City, Mo.:			
Arkansas anthracite—			
Furnace.....	15.950	19.100	19.100
Stove, or No. 4.....	16.583	19.500	19.500
Bituminous.....	8.625	11.496	11.438
Little Rock, Ark.:			
Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg.....		17.000	17.000
Bituminous.....	10.375	15.462	15.385
Los Angeles, Calif.:			
Bituminous.....	16.000	19.111	19.222
Louisville, Ky.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.750		
Chestnut.....	13.750	17.000	17.000
Bituminous.....	6.836	11.043	11.176
Manchester, N. H.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.417	18.000	18.000
Chestnut.....	13.417	18.000	18.000
Bituminous.....	10.000	16.000	15.000
Memphis, Tenn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	16.000	18.000	18.000
Chestnut.....	16.000	18.000	18.000
Bituminous.....	8.000	11.550	11.550
Milwaukee, Wis.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.600	15.970	16.200
Chestnut.....	12.700	16.050	16.300
Bituminous.....	8.900	14.510	14.469
Minneapolis, Minn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	14.000	18.350	18.390
Chestnut.....	14.100	18.430	18.470
Bituminous.....	10.425	15.131	15.547
Mobile, Ala.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	17.000		
Chestnut.....	17.000		
Bituminous.....	10.333	14.202	14.235
Newark, N. J.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	10.483	13.000	13.000
Chestnut.....	10.483	13.000	13.000
New Haven, Conn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.250	17.750	18.000
Chestnut.....	12.250	17.750	18.000
New Orleans, La.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	17.500	22.500	22.500
Chestnut.....	17.500	22.500	22.500
Bituminous.....	9.269	14.327	14.145
New York, N. Y.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	11.536	14.398	14.873
Chestnut.....	11.600	14.398	14.873
Norfolk, Va.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.000	16.000	16.000
Chestnut.....	13.000	16.000	16.000
Bituminous.....	9.750	13.679	13.679
Omaha, Nebr.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	17.275	23.900	23.900
Chestnut.....	17.450	24.000	24.000
Bituminous.....	10.108	14.753	14.753
Peoria, Ill.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.000		16.500
Chestnut.....	13.000	16.000	16.500
Bituminous.....	6.000	9.313	9.031

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

87

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS OF COAL FOR HOUSEHOLD USE,
ON JAN. 15, OCT. 15, AND NOV. 15, 1920—Concluded.

City, and kind of coal.	1920		
	Jan. 15.	Oct. 15.	Nov. 15.
Philadelphia, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	² 11.881	² 14.888	² 14.975
Chestnut.....	² 11.906	² 14.888	² 14.975
Pittsburgh, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	² 13.750	² 19.000	² 18.500
Chestnut.....	² 14.000	² 18.833	² 18.500
Bituminous.....	6.179	9.028	9.125
Portland, Me.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.440	17.280	17.280
Chestnut.....	13.440	17.280	17.280
Bituminous.....	9.370	14.700	14.373
Portland, Ore.:			
Bituminous.....	11.618	14.337	14.402
Providence, R. I.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	³ 12.950	³ 16.200	³ 17.100
Chestnut.....	³ 13.000	³ 16.200	³ 17.100
Bituminous.....	³ 10.000	³ 14.833	³ 14.667
Richmond, Va.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	12.125	15.125	15.500
Chestnut.....	12.125	15.125	15.500
Bituminous.....	8.931	12.236	12.528
Rochester, N. Y.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	10.800	13.375	13.400
Chestnut.....	10.900	13.475	13.500
St. Louis, Mo.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	13.100	16.250	16.250
Chestnut.....	13.225	16.250	16.250
Bituminous.....	5.970	8.463	8.400
St. Paul, Minn.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	14.000	18.292	18.458
Chestnut.....	14.100	18.325	18.492
Bituminous.....	11.531	16.879	16.824
Salt Lake City, Utah:			
Colorado anthracite—			
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed.....	16.313	18.400	17.900
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed.....	16.583	18.500	18.500
Bituminous.....	8.236	9.750	10.069
San Francisco, Calif.:			
New Mexico anthracite—			
Cerrojos egg.....	23.000	28.650	28.650
Colorado anthracite—			
Egg.....	21.750	26.750	26.750
Bituminous.....	15.100	19.400	19.400
Savannah, Ga.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	⁴ 15.100	⁴ 19.100	⁴ 19.100
Chestnut.....	⁴ 15.100	⁴ 19.100	⁴ 19.100
Bituminous.....	⁴ 11.100	⁴ 17.350	⁴ 17.350
Scranton, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	8.233	9.833	9.833
Chestnut.....	8.300	9.833	9.833
Seattle, Wash.:			
Bituminous.....	⁵ 9.588	⁵ 11.612	⁵ 11.612
Springfield, Ill.:			
Bituminous.....	3.950	4.815	4.740
Washington, D. C.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.....	² 12.447	² 15.543	² 15.600
Chestnut.....	² 12.538	² 15.500	² 15.529
Bituminous.....	² 8.267	² 11.515	² 11.510

² Per ton of 2,240 pounds.

³ Fifty cents per ton additional is charged for "binning." Most customers require binning or basketing the coal into the cellar.

⁴ All coal sold in Savannah is weighed by the city. A charge of 10 cents per ton or half ton is made. This additional charge has been included in the above prices.

⁵ Prices in zone A. The cartage charge in zone A is \$1.85, which has been included in the average. The cartage charges in Seattle range from \$1.85 to \$2.80, according to distance.

Index Numbers of Wholesale Prices in the United States.

THE downward trend of wholesale prices which began in June of the present year became more pronounced in November, according to information collected in representative markets by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Measured by changes in the bureau's weighted index number, which assigns to each commodity an influence proportionate to its importance in the country's markets, the November price level was 8 per cent below that of October and 24 per cent below the high peak reached in May.

Building materials showed the largest price recessions in November, the decline from the level of the previous month being $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Farm products followed next, with a drop of over $9\frac{1}{4}$ per cent from the October level. Cloths and clothing decreased approximately 9 per cent and fuel and lighting materials $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, while metals and metal products registered a decrease of more than $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in comparison with October prices.

Food products again showed a decline, the average for November being nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent under that of the month before. Chemicals and drugs also decreased over 4 per cent. In the group of miscellaneous commodities, which includes among others such important articles as cottonseed meal and oil, manila hemp, rubber, soap, linseed meal, millfeed middlings, and wood pulp, the decrease was nearly 4 per cent. Prices of house-furnishing goods also decreased slightly. In no group was there an increase over the level of prices in the preceding month.

Of 326 commodities or price quotations included in the comparison for October and November, 198 showed a decrease and only 41 showed an increase. In 87 cases, no change in price was recorded. Of these, a majority belong in the groups designated as cloths and clothing, fuel and lighting, metals and metal products, and building materials.

Some of the more important price changes occurring between October and November, as measured by average prices in each month, are as follows:

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICES IN NOVEMBER, AS COMPARED WITH OCTOBER, 1920, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Increases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
<i>Farm products.</i>		<i>Food, etc.—Concluded.</i>	
Hay, alfalfa, No. 1, Kansas City.....	4.9	Meat:	
Poultry, live fowls, New York.....	19.6	Lamb, Chicago.....	4.5
		Mutton, New York.....	9.0
		Potatoes, white, Chicago.....	12.0
<i>Food, etc.</i>		<i>Fuel and lighting.</i>	
Butter, extra:		Coal, anthracite, Philadelphia:	
Chicago.....	4.0	Chestnut.....	0.1
New York.....	3.3	Egg.....	1.5
St. Louis.....	3.7	Stove.....	0.7
Cheese, San Francisco.....	9.8		
Eggs:		<i>Building materials.</i>	
Boston.....	22.9	Brick, common, red, building, Cincinnati...	5.3
Chicago.....	18.4	Cement, Portland, New York.....	2.4
Cincinnati.....	17.4		
New York.....	20.2	<i>House-furnishing goods.</i>	
Philadelphia.....	21.3	Tables, kitchen, Chicago.....	4.6
San Francisco.....	11.4		
Fruit, Chicago:			
Apples, Baldwins.....	8.4		
Oranges, California.....	14.9		

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICES IN NOVEMBER, AS COMPARED WITH OCTOBER, 1920, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES—Continued.

Decreases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
<i>Farm products.</i>		<i>Cloths and clothing—Concluded.</i>	
Cotton, middling:		Muslin, bleached, 4-4, Fruit of Loom, New York.....	42.9
New Orleans.....	14.8	Underwear, men's, cotton, New York.....	23.7
New York.....	16.1	Cotton yarn, Boston:	
Flaxseed, No. 1, Minneapolis.....	19.5	Carded, white, 22-1 cones.....	15.7
Corn, No. 2, mixed, Chicago.....	9.1	Twisted, carded, 40-2.....	16.3
Oats, cash, Chicago.....	2.7	Leather:	
Rye, No. 2, Chicago.....	7.0	Chrome, calf, Boston.....	16.7
Wheat:		Side, black, Boston.....	10.0
No. 1, northern spring, Chicago.....	16.3	Linen shoe thread, New York.....	18.8
No. 2, hard, Kansas City.....	13.7	Hosiery, men's, seamless cashmere, New York.....	27.7
No. 1, northern spring, Minneapolis.....	16.8	Suits, New York, wool-dyed blue, Middlesex.....	19.1
Hides:		Trousers, cotton warp, New York.....	15.9
Calfskins, No. 1, Chicago.....	8.2	Women's dress goods, broadcloth, New York.....	15.4
Goatskins, Brazilian, New York.....	14.7	Wool, Ohio, Boston:	
Packers', heavy, native steers, Chicago.....	8.8	Fine clothing, unwashed.....	12.3
Live stock:		1/4 and 3/8 grades, unwashed.....	5.9
Cattle, steers, choice to prime, Chicago.....	4.4	Worsted yarns:	
Hogs, heavy, Chicago.....	18.0	2/32s, Boston.....	13.3
Sheep, ewes, Chicago.....	1.3	2/50s, Philadelphia.....	15.9
Sheep, lambs, Chicago.....	3.0		
Peanuts, No. 1, Norfolk.....	25.0		
Poultry, live fowls, Chicago.....	9.0		
<i>Food, etc.</i>		<i>Fuel and lighting.</i>	
Beans, medium, choice, New York.....	10.3	Coal, bituminous:	
Butter, extra, San Francisco.....	5.6	Mine run, Chicago.....	14.3
Canned goods:		Prepared sizes, Chicago.....	13.5
Corn, Maryland-Maine style, New York.....	5.7	Screenings, Chicago.....	22.6
Tomatoes, New Jersey standard, New York.....	6.7	Prepared sizes, Pittsburgh.....	16.7
Flour:		Run of mine, St. Louis.....	3.6
Buckwheat, New York State.....	6.1	Coke, Connellsville, furnace.....	38.2
Rye, white, Minneapolis.....	8.9		
Wheat—			
Winter patents, Kansas City.....	16.2	<i>Metals and metal products.</i>	
Winter straights, Kansas City.....	17.7	Bar iron, common, Pittsburgh.....	8.4
Standard patents, Minneapolis.....	17.1	Copper, ingot, electrolytic, New York.....	13.1
Bakers' patents, Minneapolis.....	16.8	Lead, pig, New York.....	14.1
Soft, patent, St. Louis.....	11.9	Pig iron:	
Straight, St. Louis.....	13.0	Basic, valley furnace.....	16.6
Lemons, California, Chicago.....	18.6	Bessemer, Pittsburgh.....	16.2
Glucose, New York.....	10.3	Foundry, No. 2, northern, Pittsburgh.....	13.8
Lard, New York.....	7.4	Foundry, No. 2, southern, Cincinnati.....	8.6
Corn meal, white, Decatur, Ill.....	19.2	Silver, bar, fine, New York.....	7.0
Meat, Chicago:		Steel billets, Bessemer, Pittsburgh.....	9.6
Bacon.....	11.9	Steel plates, tank, Pittsburgh.....	8.1
Carcaas beef.....	4.8	Structural steel, Chicago.....	3.2
Hams, smoked.....	14.3	Tin, pig, New York.....	9.4
Milk, Chicago.....	16.0	Tin plate, Pittsburgh.....	13.0
Molasses, New York.....	13.3	Spelter, New York.....	10.3
Oleo oil, extra, Chicago.....	13.4		
Rice, Blue Rose, New Orleans.....	18.6	<i>Building materials.</i>	
Sugar, New York:		Lath, eastern spruce, New York.....	13.1
Raw.....	18.7	Douglas fir, No. 1, mill.....	32.7
Granulated.....	10.8	Oak, white, quartered, New York.....	20.6
Tallow, Chicago.....	27.6	Pine, yellow, flooring, New York.....	18.1
Tea, Formosa, fine, New York.....	7.7	Pine, yellow, siding, Norfolk.....	22.8
Onions, Chicago.....	26.9	Lead, carbonate of, New York.....	4.0
Vinegar, cider, New York.....	15.4	Linseed oil, raw, New York.....	17.1
Poultry, dressed, Chicago.....	7.2	Turpentine, New York.....	10.7
<i>Cloths and clothing.</i>		<i>Chemicals and drugs.</i>	
Boots and shoes:		Acetic acid, New York.....	6.7
Children's, factory.....	7.9	Sulphuric acid, New York.....	1.8
Misses, vici, factory.....	5.2	Alcohol, refined, wood, New York.....	34.9
Men's, vici, calf, factory.....	2.4	Copper sulphate, New York.....	7.3
Carpets, Axminster, New York.....	6.9	Glycerine, New York.....	14.2
Drillings, Brown, Massachusetts, D standard, New York.....	9.4	Nitrate of soda, New York.....	5.2
Hosiery, women's, cotton, New York.....	8.3		
Print cloths, Boston.....	20.7	<i>House-furnishing goods.</i>	
Sheetings:		Chairs, kitchen, Chicago.....	9.5
Bleached, Pepperell, New York.....	20.5		
Brown, 4-4, Pepperell, New York.....	18.9		

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICES IN NOVEMBER, AS COMPARED WITH OCTOBER, 1920, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES—Concluded.

Decreases—Concluded.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
<i>Miscellaneous.</i>		<i>Miscellaneous—Concluded.</i>	
Cottonseed meal, New York.....	13.5	Hemp, manila, New York.....	10.2
Cottonseed oil, New York.....	8.2	Linseed meal, mill.....	6.7
Jute, raw, New York.....	8.8	Millfeed, middlings, Minneapolis.....	6.9
Phosphate rock, Tampa.....	2.3	Sisal, New York.....	12.3
Rope, manila, New York.....	2.8	Tankage, Chicago.....	33.9
Rubber, Para, fine, New York.....	11.5	Soya-bean oil, New York.....	12.7
Soap, Cincinnati.....	10.0	Wood pulp, sulphite, unbleached, New York.....	4.6
Soap, Philadelphia.....	12.3		

Comparing prices in November with those of a year ago, as measured by the changes in the index numbers, it is seen that foods have declined about 11 per cent, cloths and clothing 28 per cent, and farm products over 31 per cent. In all other groups, except the one designated as miscellaneous, increases have taken place, ranging from 3 $\frac{2}{3}$ per cent in metals and metal products to 44 per cent in the group of fuel and lighting materials. All commodities, taken together, declined 10 per cent in price in the year.

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

[1913=100.]

Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and metal products.	Building materials.	Chemicals and drugs.	House furnishing goods.	Miscellaneous.	All commodities.
1913.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100
January.....	97	99	100	103	107	100	101	100	100	100
April.....	97	96	100	98	102	101	101	100	98	98
July.....	101	102	100	99	98	101	99	100	101	100
October.....	103	102	100	100	99	98	100	100	100	101
1914.....	103	103	98	96	87	97	101	99	99	100
January.....	101	102	98	99	92	98	100	99	99	100
April.....	103	95	99	98	91	99	100	99	101	98
July.....	104	104	99	95	85	97	99	99	97	100
October.....	103	107	97	93	83	96	105	99	96	99
1915.....	105	104	100	93	97	94	114	99	99	101
January.....	102	106	96	93	83	94	103	99	100	99
April.....	107	105	99	89	91	94	102	99	99	100
July.....	108	104	99	90	102	93	108	99	98	101
October.....	105	103	103	96	100	93	124	99	99	101
1916.....	122	126	128	119	148	101	159	115	120	124
January.....	108	113	110	105	126	99	150	105	107	110
April.....	114	117	119	108	147	101	172	108	110	117
July.....	118	121	126	108	145	99	156	121	120	119
October.....	136	140	138	133	151	101	150	124	132	134
1917.....	189	176	181	175	208	124	198	144	155	176
January.....	148	150	161	176	183	106	159	132	138	151
April.....	181	182	169	184	208	114	170	139	149	172
July.....	199	181	187	192	257	132	198	152	153	186
October.....	208	183	193	146	182	114	252	152	163	181
1918.....	220	189	239	163	181	151	221	196	193	196
January.....	207	187	211	157	174	136	232	161	178	185
February.....	208	186	216	157	176	138	232	161	181	186
March.....	212	177	223	158	176	144	232	165	184	187
April.....	217	178	232	157	177	146	229	172	191	190
May.....	214	177	237	160	178	148	233	173	194	190
June.....	217	179	245	159	178	150	219	198	186	193
July.....	224	184	249	166	184	154	216	199	190	198
August.....	230	191	252	166	185	157	222	221	191	202

[90]

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

Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and Clothing.	Fuel and lighting.	Metals and metal products.	Building materials.	Chemicals and drugs.	House furnishing goods.	Miscellaneous.	All commodities.
1918—Continued.										
September.....	237	199	255	167	184	159	220	226	194	207
October.....	224	201	257	167	187	158	218	226	196	204
November.....	221	206	256	171	188	164	215	226	203	206
December.....	222	210	250	171	184	164	195	227	204	206
1919										
January.....	234	210	261	173	161	192	179	236	217	212
February.....	222	207	234	170	172	161	191	218	212	203
March.....	218	196	223	169	168	163 ¹	185	218	208	197
April.....	228	203	216	168	162	165	183	218	217	201
May.....	235	211	217	167	152	162	178	217	216	203
June.....	240	214	228	167	152	164	179	217	213	207
July.....	231	204	258	170	154	175	174	233	212	207
August.....	246	216	282	171	158	186	171	245	221	218
September.....	243	227	304	175	165	208	172	259	225	226
October.....	226	211	306	181	160	227	173	262	217	220
November.....	230	211	313	181	161	231	174	264	220	223
December.....	240	219	325	179	164	236	176	299	220	230
1920:	244	234	335	181	169	253	179	303	229	238
1920:										
January.....	246	253	350	184	177	268	189	324	227	248
February.....	237	214	356	187	189	300	197	329	227	249
March.....	239	246	356	192	192	324	205	329	230	253
April.....	246	270	353	213	195	341	212	331	238	265
May.....	244	287	347	235	193	341	215	329	246	272
June.....	243	279	335	246	190	337	218	362	247	269
July.....	236	268	317	252	191	333	217	362	243	262
August.....	222	235	299	268	193	328	216	366	240	250
September.....	210	223	278	284	192	318	222	371	239	242
October.....	182	204	257	282	184	313	216	371	229	225
November ¹	165	195	234	258	170	274	207	369	220	207

¹ Preliminary.

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

THE 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 each month specified in the table by the index for July, 1914, or the nearest period thereto as published. 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, also, 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.]

Year and month.	United States: 22 foodstuffs; 45 cities (variable). Weighted.	Australia: 26 foodstuffs; 30 towns. Weighted.	Belgium: 54 articles (variable); Brussels. Not weighted.	Canada: 29 foodstuffs; 60 cities. Weighted.	Denmark: Family food budget; 5 persons. Weighted.	France: Family budget, 13 articles.		Great Britain: 21 foodstuffs; 600 towns. Weighted.
						Cities over 10,000 population (except Paris). Weighted.	Paris only. Weighted.	
1914.								
July.....	100	100	100	100	100	2 100	100	100
October.....	103	99		108				112
1915.								
January.....	101	107		107		2 110	120	118
April.....	97	113		105			114	124
July.....	98	131		105	128	2 123	120	132
October.....	101	133		105			118	140
1916.								
January.....	105	129		112		2 133	134	145
April.....	107	131		112		2 137	132	149
July.....	109	130		114	146	2 141	129	161
October.....	119	125		125		2 146	135	168
1917.								
January.....	125	125		138		2 154	139	187
February.....	130	126		141	158			189
March.....	130	126		144				192
April.....	142	127		145		2 171	147	194
May.....	148	127		159				198
June.....	149	127		160				202
July.....	143	126		157	166	2 184	183	204
August.....	146	129		157				202
September.....	150	129		157				206
October.....	154	129		159		2 200	184	197
November.....	152	129		163				206
December.....	154	128		165				205
1918.								
January.....	157	129		167		2 211	191	206
February.....	158	130		169	173			208
March.....	151	131		170				207
April.....	151	131		169		2 232	218	206
May.....	155	132		171				207
June.....	159	132		172				208
July.....	164	131		175	187	2 244	206	210
August.....	168	128		181				218
September.....	175	128		179				216
October.....	177	131		182		2 260	238	229
November.....	179	133		182				233
December.....	183	134		184				229
1919.								
January.....	181	140	639	186	186	2 277	248	230
February.....	169	141	534	181			227	230
March.....	172	143	424	176			248	220
April.....	178	145	374	180		2 293	257	213
May.....	181	146	351	182			268	207
June.....	180	147	344	185			264	204
July.....	186	147	354	186	212	2 288	261	209
August.....	188	148	348	195			238	217
September.....	184	148	342	193			259	216
October.....	184	156	337	192		2 301	283	222
November.....	188	158	341	192			280	231
December.....	193	158	359	198			285	234
1920.								
January.....	197	160	410	206	251	2 320	290	236
February.....	196	163	445	212			297	235
March.....	196	163	473	215			339	233
April.....	207	173	488	215		2 378	358	235
May.....	211	176	492	224			379	246
June.....	215	187	490	228			369	255
July.....	215	194	479	227	253	2 388	373	258
August.....	203	194		221			373	262
September.....	199			215				267

¹ April, 1914.² Quarter beginning month specified.

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

Year and month.	India: 46 foodstuffs; Calcutta. Not weighted.	Italy: Family food budget; 5 persons; Rome. Weighted.	Netherlands: 27 foodstuffs; Amsterdam. Not weighted.	New Zealand: 59 foodstuffs; 25 towns. Weighted.	Norway: Family food budget. Weighted.	South Africa: 18 foodstuffs; 9 towns. Weighted.	Sweden: 21 articles; 44 towns. Weighted.	Switzerland: 9 groups of foodstuffs. Not weighted.
1914.								
July.....	100	³ 100	⁴ 100	100	100	⁵ 100	100	⁶ 100
October.....				102			7 107	⁶ 103
1915.								
January.....		95		111			7 113	⁶ 107
April.....		107		113			7 121	⁶ 114
July.....	108	95		112		⁵ 107	7 124	⁶ 119
October.....		100		112			7 128	⁶ 120
1916.								
January.....		111		116			7 130	⁶ 126
April.....		116		118			7 134	⁶ 129
July.....	110	111		119	⁵ 160	⁵ 116	7 142	⁶ 140
October.....		111		120			7 152	⁶ 144
1917.								
January.....		124		127			160	⁶ 148
February.....		127		126			166	
March.....		121		126			170	158
April.....		120		127			175	
May.....		123		128			175	
June.....		136		128			175	179
July.....	116	137		127		⁵ 128	177	
August.....		143		127			181	
September.....		142		129	214		187	192
October.....		148		130			192	
November.....		166		130			200	
December.....		157		132			212	197
1918.								
January.....		177		133		128	221	
February.....		181		134		129	227	
March.....		199		134		131	235	204
April.....	113	200		137		134	247	
May.....	117	202		139		136	258	
June.....	118	199		139		135	261	230
July.....	121	203		139		134	268	
August.....	124	208		141	279	134	280	
September.....	131	219		141		135	284	251
October.....	134	235		140		139	310	
November.....	135	249		144	275	135	320	
December.....	134	254		150	275	134	330	252
1919.								
January.....		259	195	145	279	136	339	
February.....		258	212	142	278	137	334	
March.....		243	205	141	278	137	331	287
April.....	140	230	196	142	276	139	337	
May.....		232	186	142	283	139	328	
June.....	143	225	204	143	290	141	316	261
July.....	155	206	210	144	289	139	310	
August.....	151	207	207	146	291	145	313	
September.....	154	214	203	148	298	145	309	
October.....	153	241	204	150	300	154	307	
November.....	153	246	202	153	297	167	309	
December.....	151	252	199	155	299	170	307	245
1920.								
January.....	153	275	203	158	299	177	298	
February.....	154	299	205	160	297	187	290	
March.....	151	300	205	162	298	183	291	244
April.....	151	310	206	162	305	183	297	
May.....	159	325	209	163	311	188	294	
June.....	164	325	210	163	311	194	294	
July.....	170	318	217	167	319	197	297	
August.....	167	322	219	171	333	196	308	
September.....	166	324	223	173	336	195	307	

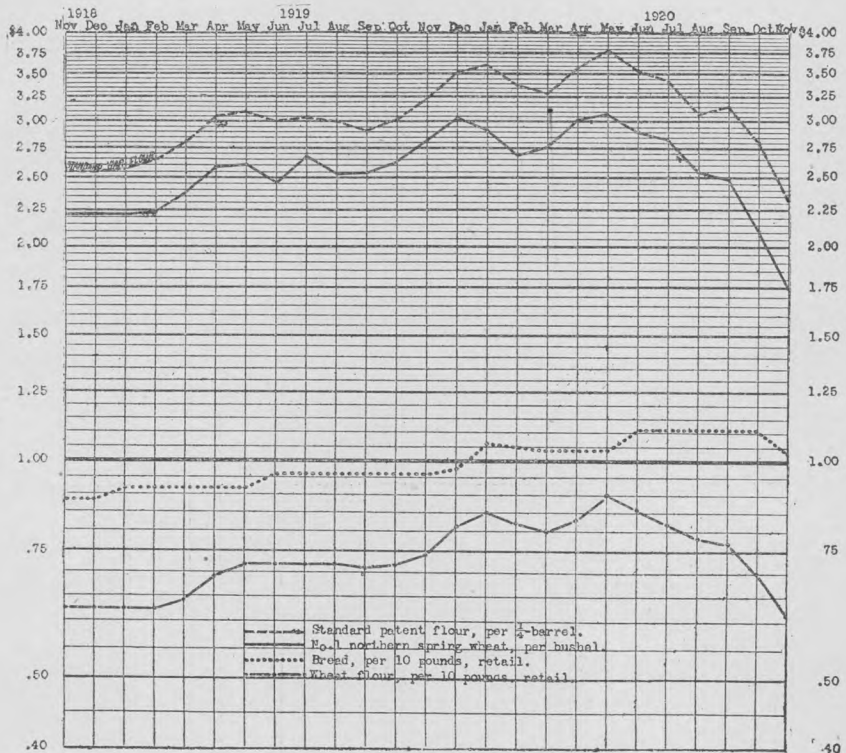
³ January-July.
⁴ Year 1913.

⁵ For calendar year.
⁶ Previous month.

⁷ Quarter beginning month specified.
⁸ August.

Prices of Wheat, Flour, and Bread Since the Armistice.

THE recent sharp decline in wheat prices at all primary markets of the country has caused popular attention to be directed to the prices of the more important wheat products, particularly flour and bread, in their relation to the lowered cost of wheat. The effect on these commodities of the drop in wheat has been watched with more than ordinary interest, in view of their vast importance and the abnormally high levels to which prices have risen in the past few years. To enable a ready comparison to be



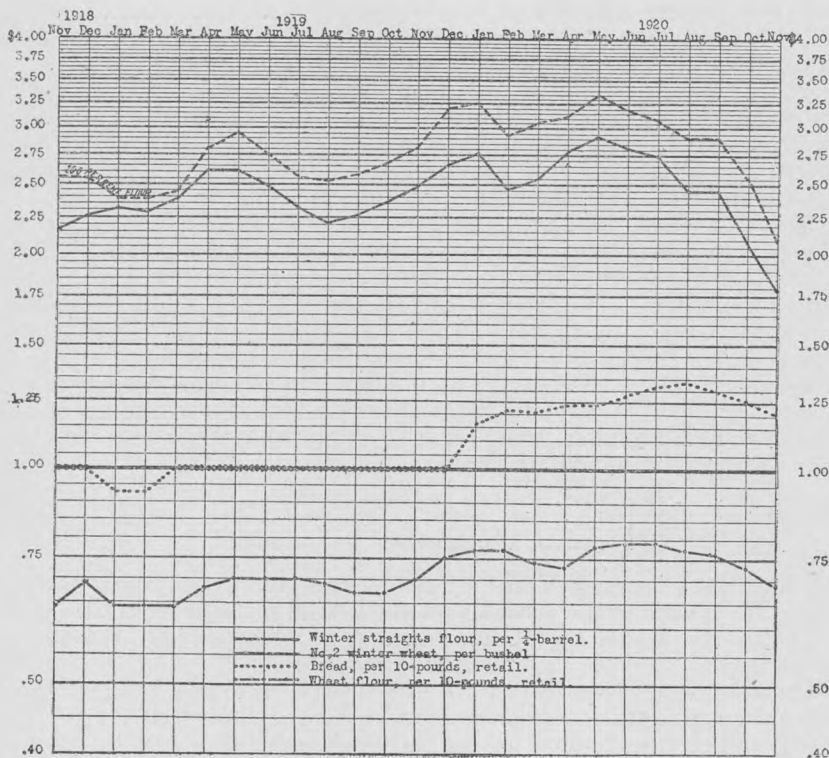
PRICES OF WHEAT AND FLOUR, WHOLESALE, AND FLOUR AND BREAD, RETAIL, AT MINNEAPOLIS, NOVEMBER, 1918, TO NOVEMBER, 1920.

made of the fluctuations of such prices since the armistice period in 1918, the two charts have been prepared.

The first of these charts shows changes in the price of spring wheat at Minneapolis, compared with patent flour at wholesale and with flour and bread at retail. Similar information for winter wheat and straight flour at wholesale and flour and bread at retail at Kansas City is given in the second chart. For convenience of comparison with wheat, the wholesale price of flour is shown on the quarter-barrel instead of the barrel basis. Also, to enable the price curves to be placed in convenient form on the charts, the unit for bread and flour prices at retail has been changed to 10 pounds instead of 1 pound.

A glance at the first chart shows how closely wholesale flour prices at Minneapolis have followed those of wheat throughout the period. In only three months have flour prices failed to respond promptly to changes in the price of wheat, and in none of these cases did the lag extend beyond the next month. It will be noted, however, that the margin between wheat and flour was appreciably wider in 1920 than in 1919. Both wheat and flour were much cheaper at the end of the period than at the beginning.

The curve for flour at retail shown on the lower part of the chart is remarkable for the fidelity with which it follows the wholesale price curve. While presenting a somewhat smoother appearance, as would



PRICES OF WHEAT AND FLOUR, WHOLESALE, AND FLOUR AND BREAD, RETAIL, AT KANSAS CITY, NOVEMBER, 1918, TO NOVEMBER, 1920.

be expected, it nevertheless shows practically the same percentages of elevation or depression at the high and low points as does the curve for wholesale prices. At the end of the period, however, a slight lag behind the wholesale price is evident.

The retail bread curve shows few price fluctuations in the period, as compared with the others. The upward swing of wheat and flour prices to October, 1920, is, however, reflected in the gradual rise of the bread curve to October of the same year. In only one instance prior to October was there a drop in bread prices following a decline in wheat and flour. This decline was manifested in the early months

of 1920, when bread prices subsided slightly in sympathy with a decided drop in wheat and flour. The sharp decline in wheat and flour after May, 1920, had no effect on the price of bread until November. Compared with prices at the time of the armistice, bread has advanced less than either wheat or flour, but is still above the level prevailing at that time, while wheat and flour at wholesale are far below that level.

In the second chart winter wheat and flour are seen to have fluctuated much alike since the first months of 1919, with a somewhat narrower margin between them than in the case of spring wheat and flour at Minneapolis. In the closing months of 1918 the large stocks of 100 per cent flour on hand and the removal of the Food Administration regulations caused a slump in the prices of that quality, which extended into 1919. At the end of the period both commodities were lower than at the beginning.

Wheat flour at retail in this chart shows a much smoother price curve than does flour at wholesale. The same general trend, however, is seen in both. Compared with November, 1918, retail flour prices had decreased less by November, 1920, than had wholesale prices, and were still above the level of the armistice period.

The curve for retail prices of bread at Kansas City shows plainly the effect of the drop in flour prices following the signing of the armistice, but does not reflect the second pronounced drop in the summer of 1919. The increase of retail bread prices since December, 1919, particularly in the summer of 1920, appears quite large. It is, however, no larger than the increase of wheat and flour prices at wholesale in May, 1920, over the low point reached in August of the preceding year. As seen from the chart, bread at retail had decreased but little in November, 1920, from the high peak attained in August, while wheat and flour had decreased greatly.

Rents in the District of Columbia.

THE Association of Chief Clerks of the Executive Departments, in Washington, recently made a study of the rent situation in the District of Columbia as it had affected Government employees.

Questionnaires were given to three employees of the several executive departments, independent establishments, the District government, and city post office, asking for a statement showing the amount of rent paid per month for the premises they occupied on April 1, 1917, or later date in case their renting did not extend back so far, together with any changes that may have been made in the rate of rent paid up to October 1, 1920.

Two difficulties were encountered in tabulating the answers to the questionnaires: First, the fact that the period covered varied materially, and second, the fact that in many cases families were living in different dwellings at the end of the period covered from those they occupied at the beginning of the period.

The data were divided into two sections, and the figures in the following table relate to families who occupied the same premises throughout the entire period. The data in this table have been arranged according to the length of time the families had occupied

the premises, that is column 1 shows the changes that took place from April 1, 1917, to October 1, 1920, inclusive, among families who had occupied the same quarters during that time or longer; column 2 shows the changes that took place from April 1, 1918 to October 1, 1920, inclusive, among families who had occupied the same quarters during that time or longer, but not as far back as April 1, 1917, etc. In columns 1 to 4, inclusive, there are no duplications, each column referring to different families. The figures in column 5 refer to the same families (in so far as they go) as are shown in columns 1, 2, and 3.

NUMBER OF FAMILIES OCCUPYING SAME QUARTERS DURING SPECIFIED PERIOD REPORTING EACH SPECIFIED PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN RENTALS.

Item.	Families who rented the same quarters during the period from ¹ —				
	Apr. 1, 1917, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Apr. 1, 1918, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Apr. 1, 1919, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Apr. 1, 1920, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Oct. 1, 1919, to Oct. 1, 1920.
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Number reporting.....	2,521	485	400	1,198	3,406
Number reporting no increase.....	877	172	257	996	1,983
Number reporting increase.....	1,644	313	143	202	1,423
Number reporting an increase of—					
Under 10 per cent.....	45	9	11	37	83
10 and under 25 per cent.....	487	93	66	96	648
25 and under 50 per cent.....	652	125	45	49	480
50 and under 75 per cent.....	333	64	14	15	142
75 and under 100 per cent.....	72	10	2	2	41
100 per cent and over.....	55	12	5	3	29

¹ See text.

The next table shows in similar manner the number of families who occupied different quarters at the beginning and at the end of the several periods, who reported each specified percentage increase in rent. It is difficult to make satisfactory comparisons under such circumstances, especially when the location, type, size, and conveniences of the two houses are not known. The fact is, however, that many of the families represented by this table were compelled to move because their houses were sold and the new owners wanted to occupy the premises themselves. Others moved because of what they considered unreasonable increases in the rent demanded. Such families were compelled, by the scarcity of houses, to take such as were available, often renting larger or more pretentious houses than they would have done if their choice had been less limited.

NUMBER OF FAMILIES OCCUPYING DIFFERENT QUARTERS DURING SPECIFIED PERIOD REPORTING EACH SPECIFIED PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN RENTALS.

Item.	Families who rented different quarters during the period from—			
	Apr. 1, 1917, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Apr. 1, 1918, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Apr. 1, 1919, to Oct. 1, 1920.	Apr. 1, 1920, to Oct. 1, 1920.
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Number reporting.....	851	506	673	527
Number reporting no increase.....	209	163	324	237
Number reporting increase.....	642	343	349	220
Number reporting an increase of—				
Under 10 per cent.....	30	13	14	14
10 and under 25 per cent.....	84	39	72	69
25 and under 50 per cent.....	148	83	110	67
50 and under 75 per cent.....	134	78	74	33
75 and under 100 per cent.....	61	44	23	12
100 per cent and over.....	185	86	56	25

Cost of Living in Mexico.

A RECENT publication¹ of the Mexican Department of Labor contains data on the cost of living in the Federal District in 1910 and in August and September, 1920. It is stated that the cost of living in September, 1920, was practically the same as in the preceding month, the index numbers being 230.61 and 230.62, respectively, with the average price for 1910 as the base or 100.

The table which is here reproduced gives the prices for the most important articles of consumption in August and September, 1920, and the average prices for the year 1910. It will be noted that in the cases of milk, lard, and maize there were increases in prices, while the prices of beans, rice, coffee, and sugar decreased.

AVERAGE PRICES OF PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF CONSUMPTION IN THE FEDERAL DISTRICT IN 1910, AND IN AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER, 1920.

[1 peso at par=49.9 cents; 1 kilogram=2.2 pounds; 1 liter=1.06 quarts; 1 meter=1.09 yards.]

Item.	Unit.	1910	1920	
			August.	September.
Food:		<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>	<i>Pesos.</i>
Maize.....	Kilogram	0.090	0.125	0.165
Flour, wheat.....	do.	.170	.375	.375
Bread, white.....	do.	.320	.375	.375
Beans, small brown.....	do.	.120	.280	.265
Rice, second grade.....	do.	.150	.575	.525
Beef.....	do.	.420	1.300	1.300
Lard.....	do.	.600	1.450	1.500
Coffee, unground.....	do.	.430	1.125	1.100
Coffee, roasted and ground.....	do.	.600	1.400	1.250
Milk.....	Liter	.150	.240	.260
Salt, coarse.....	Kilogram	.040	.090	.095
Peppers, small green.....	do.	.200	.700	.700
Sugar, granulated.....	do.	.170	.985	.875
Coal.....	do.	.040	.085	.075
Cotton cloth.....	do.	.020	.035	.040
Canvas, blue.....	Meter	.140	.400	.450
Percale.....	do.	.400	1.500	1.500
Shoes.....	Pair	.120	.450	.450
Hats, palm.....	Each	5.000	10.500	10.500
Blankets.....	Each	.440	.800	.800
Rent (one room).....	Month	2.750	6.000	6.000
Petroleum.....	Liter	5.000	11.620	11.620
Candles, paraffin.....	Kilogram	.120	.235	.235
Candles, tallow.....	do.	.330	.975	1.050
Baths.....	Each	.700	1.675	1.550
Soap.....	Kilogram	.250	.300	.300
			.850	.790

¹ Gaceta Mensual del Departamento del Trabajo de la Secretaría de Industria, Comercio y Trabajo, Mexico, Septiembre de 1920, p. 63.

Retail Price Changes in Great Britain.

THE following table gives for Great Britain the increase over July, 1914, in the cost of food and general family expenditure for December of each year, 1914 to 1920, and for each month in 1920. The food items included in this report are: Ribs and thin flanks 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, as is the table given for the United States. When making comparisons this should be borne in mind, and 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 is 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 182 per cent higher in December, 1920, than in July, 1914, and that the increased cost of all items in the family budget was 169 per cent.

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.]

Year and month.	Food.		All items in family budget.	
	Retail prices (assuming same kinds and quantities).	Expenditures (allowing for estimated changes in consumption).	Cost (assuming same kinds and quantities).	Expenditure (allowing for estimated changes in consumption).
December—				
1914.....	16			
1915.....	44			
1916.....	184		2 60	
1917.....	105	59	3 85	
1918.....	129	4 90	5 120	4 95
1919.....	134	4 116	125	4 110-115
1920.				
January.....	136	115	125	115
February.....	135	112	130	115
March.....	133	107	130	115
April.....	135	(6)	130-135	(6)
May.....	146	(6)	141	(6)
June.....	155	(6)	150	(6)
July.....	159	(6)	152	(6)
August.....	162	(6)	155	(6)
September.....	167	(6)	161	(6)
October.....	170	(6)	164	(6)
November.....	191	(6)	176	(6)
December.....	182	(6)	169	(6)

¹ Including tax on sugar and tea.

² Not including taxes.

³ Including taxes.

⁴ Based on change in standard of food consumption adopted by the Ministry of Food.

⁵ The increase, excluding additional taxation, is 7 per cent less.

⁶ No longer calculable, mainly owing to decontrol.

Maximum Wholesale Price for Apples in England.¹

AFTER December 31, the sale of imported apples in England must be through a broker registered by the Food Ministry. Importers desiring to sell their own apples are entitled to be registered as brokers on application V, Division of Food Ministry. The maximum wholesale prices for apples effective from November 15 are: For Canadian and United States apples, barrels not less than 120 pounds, 68s., 64s., and 53s. [\$16.54, \$15.57, and \$12.90, par] for sound, slack, and wasty grades, respectively; in cases not less than 37 pounds, Canadian, United States, and Australian apples, 21s. 6d., 20s. 3d., and 17s. [\$5.23, \$4.93, and \$4.14, par], respectively; for Canadian, United States, and Australian apples, cases not less than 40 pounds, 23s. 6d., 22s. 2d., and 18s. 6d. [\$5.72, \$5.39, and \$4.50, par], respective grades; any variety otherwise than in above packages, 60s. [\$14.60, par] per hundredweight.

 Increase in Cost of Living in Lisbon, Portugal.

THE United States consul general at Lisbon forwards the following tables depicting the increase in the cost of foodstuffs, fuel, and light, and of clothing in Lisbon in 1920 as compared with 1914, the index numbers being based on the first half of 1914 in the case of foods and on the year 1914 in the case of fuel and light and clothing. It is stated that the rise in the cost of living at Lisbon since 1914 was gradual though considerable until January, 1920, but that "since then it has become violent." These tables, it is explained, have been compiled by a large concern in Lisbon to be used as a basis for increasing the salaries of its employees, numbering several hundred. The first table is taken from an official Government publication entitled "Elementos para o estudo do custo da vida em Portugal nos anos de 1914 a 1916."

The prices for fuel and light are stated to be the average quoted by several dealers in each product except for kerosene and electricity. In using this table it must be borne in mind, states the report, that in 1914 most people were using coal at 5\$20 (\$5.62, par) a ton while in 1920 they have been using wood at 85\$00 (\$91.84, par) a ton. As to clothing, the report states that the "prices have been checked by several persons and are reasonably reliable." In the last table, which is a summary of the average index numbers in the three preceding tables, it is interesting to note that the prices for foodstuffs increased as much (within 0.8 per cent) from January to October, 1920, as they did from 1914 to January, 1920, and that most of this increase took place since June, 1920.

¹ Data furnished by the United States consul general at London, under date of Nov. 19, 1920, and published in Commerce Reports, Washington, for November 22.

INCREASES IN PRICES OF FOODSTUFFS IN JANUARY, JUNE, AND OCTOBER, 1920, OVER AVERAGE FOR FIRST HALF OF 1914.

[Price, first half of 1914=100. 1\$ (escudo) at par=\$1.03. 1 kilogram=2.2 pounds. 1 liter=1.06 quarts.]

Article.	Unit.	Price in first half of 1914.	January, 1920.		June, 1920.		Oct. 1, 1920.	
			Price.	Index number.	Price.	Index number.	Price.	Index number.
Bread.....	Kilogram	\$087.5	1 0320	267	1 0324	320	1 0341	547
Potatoes.....	do.	\$03	\$15	500	\$24	800	\$40	1333
Wine.....	Liter	\$05	\$30	600	\$40	800	\$50	1000
Oil.....	do.	\$29	\$90	310	\$90	310	\$380	897
Meat.....	Kilogram	\$26	1\$45	558	1\$50	577	\$390	1500
Milk.....	Liter	\$07	\$24	343	24	343	40	571
Butter.....	Kilogram	\$81	2\$40	296	2\$40	296	5\$20	642
Fat.....	do.	\$42	1\$90	452	2\$20	523	4\$60	1095
Bacon.....	do.	\$59	1\$60	271	2\$80	475	\$875	635
Ham.....	do.	\$46	2\$00	435	2\$80	609	\$380	826
Lard.....	do.	\$36	1\$60	444	1\$80	500	2\$00	555
Eggs.....	Dozen	18	\$90	500	1\$20	667	1\$60	889
Wheat.....	Liter	\$05					\$34	680
Maize.....	do.	\$04					\$36	900
Rye.....	do.	\$04					\$30	750
Oats.....	do.	\$03					\$28	933
Barley.....	do.	\$03					\$28	933
Rice.....	Kilogram	\$12	\$80	667	\$80	667	\$90	750
Flour.....	do.	\$07	\$60	857	\$80	857	2\$00	2 2857
Beans (Fr.).....	Liter	\$08	\$30	375			\$60	750
Beans.....	do.	\$04			\$20	500	\$36	900
Crabanzo.....	do.	\$08	\$34	425	\$34	425	\$50	625
Onions.....	Kilogram	\$03					\$10	333
Grapes.....	do.	\$03.5					\$50	1429
Brandy.....	Liter	\$17						
Vinegar.....	do.	\$05					\$50	1000
Sugar ²	Kilogram	\$24	4 \$60	250	4 \$60	250	\$340	1416
Dry cod ³	do.	\$36	1\$50	417	1\$50	417	1\$70	472
Hake ³	Each	\$40	\$300	500	\$300	500	\$600	1000
Dough ³	Kilogram	\$18	\$40	222	\$60	222	1\$60	889
Total.....				434.5		502.9		866

¹ Second-grade bread. The price for first-grade on Oct. 1, 1920, was \$360 with an index of 2333.

² Omitted in obtaining index of 866 for total.

³ This article has been added; it does not appear in the Portuguese Government publication mentioned.

⁴ Brown sugar.

INCREASES IN PRICES OF FUEL AND LIGHT IN JANUARY AND OCTOBER, 1920, OVER AVERAGE PRICES FOR 1914.

[Price in 1914=100. 1\$ (escudo) at par=\$1.03. 1 metric ton=2204.6 pounds. 1 liter=1.06 quarts.]

Article.	Unit.	1914	January, 1920.		October, 1920.	
		Price.	Price.	Index.	Price.	Index.
Cord wood.....	Ton.....	\$300	2\$800	933	\$5\$00	2833
Coal.....	do.	\$820	155\$00	2981	210\$00	4038
Coke.....	do.	\$900	100\$00	1111	200\$00	2222
Madeira coal.....	do.	30\$00	90\$00	300	160\$00	533
Kerosene.....	Liter.....	\$09	\$60	667	\$80	889
Electricity.....		\$025	\$045	180	\$03	320
Average.....				1028.7		1805.8

INCREASES IN PRICES OF CLOTHING IN OCTOBER, 1920, OVER AVERAGE PRICES IN 1914.

[Price in 1914=100. 1\$ (escudo) at par=\$1.08. 1 meter=1.09 yards.]

Article.	1914		October, 1920.		
	Price range.	Average.	Price range.	Average.	Index number.
Men's:					
Shoes (English).....	4\$00-6\$00	5\$00	45\$00-60\$00	52\$50	1050
Suits goods.....	20\$00-30\$00	25\$00	220\$00-320\$00	270\$00	1080
Suits, Portuguese.....	15\$00-25\$00	20\$00	150\$00-180\$00	165\$00	825
Shirts.....	1\$00-1\$50	1\$25	10\$00-14\$00	12\$00	960
Socks, cotton.....	\$40-\$60	\$50	3\$00-3\$50	\$310	620
Hats.....	1\$50-2\$50	2\$00	15\$00-25\$00	20\$00	1000
Neckties.....	1\$00-2\$00	1\$50	7\$00-9\$00	7\$00	467
Ladies':					
Shoes.....	4\$00-5\$00	4\$50	40\$00-55\$00	47\$50	1055
Stockings, cotton.....	\$80-\$120	\$100	6\$00-7\$00	6\$50	650
Stockings (vegetable silk).....	1\$00-1\$50	1\$25	9\$00-12\$00	10\$50	840
Cotton goods, per meter.....	\$30-\$80	\$55	3\$50-5\$00	4\$25	775
Silk goods.....	2\$50-4\$50	3\$50	20\$00-30\$00	25\$00	714
Woolen suits.....	1\$00-3\$00	1\$50	10\$00-20\$00	15\$00	1000
Average.....					848.8

SUMMARY OF AVERAGE INDEX NUMBERS AT SPECIFIED DATES, AS COMPARED WITH FIRST HALF OF 1914.

Date.	Index number.	Per cent of increase over first half of 1914.
Foodstuffs:		
1st half 1914.....	100.0	
2d half 1914.....	105.9	5.9
1st half 1915.....	105.9	5.9
2d half 1915.....	111.8	11.8
1st half 1916.....	123.5	23.5
2d half 1916.....	135.3	35.3
January, 1920.....	434.5	334.5
June, 1920.....	502.9	402.9
October, 1920.....	866.0	766.0
Clothing:		
1914.....	100.0	
October, 1920.....	848.8	748.8
Fuel:		
1914.....	100.0	
January, 1920.....	1028.7	928.7
October, 1920.....	1805.8	1705.8

Maximum Prices for Sugar Fixed in Spain.

MAXIMUM prices for white sugar in Spain have been authorized as follows according to a dispatch from the United States vice consul at Barcelona under date of October 16, 1920:

MAXIMUM PRICES FOR SUGAR IN SPAIN, OCTOBER, 1920.

[1 peseta at par=19.3 cents. 1 kilogram=2.2 pounds.]

Kind of sugar.	Price per 100 kilograms.
White granulated:	<i>Pesetas.</i>
At the mill.....	250
At the wholesale distributors.....	265
At the retail dealers.....	280
Lump:	
At the mill.....	280
At the wholesale distributors.....	295
At the retail dealers.....	310
Dry beet pulp for use as stock food.....	1 225

1 Per metric ton=2,204 pounds.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.¹

Recent Changes in Union Wage Rates in Printing and Publishing Trades and in the Plastering Trade.

THE following tables show the changes in the union scale of wages that took place from May 15 to December 15, 1920, in the printing and publishing trades in addition to the changes reported in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1920, so far as such changes have come to the attention of this bureau, and also changes in wage rates in a building trade, that of plasterers, from May 15 to August 31, 1920.

The information for the printing and publishing trades is taken from the reports of the official journals of printing and publishing trade-unions and from a special report from the manager of service, Pressmen's Home, Tennessee. The rates shown for November 30, 1920, include all bonuses and increases in wages. In some cases bonuses were paid May 15, 1920, which are not shown in the scale of wages reported for that date. This accounts for the apparently large increases shown in some instances. The rates for New York are the result of an award of December 28, 1920, which is retroactive to October, 1920.

* ADDITIONAL CHANGES IN UNION WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN PRINTING AND PUBLISHING TRADES, MAY 15 TO DEC. 15, 1920.

Pressmen, cylinder presses, book and job.

City and State.	1 press.				2 presses.			
	Days.		Nights.		Days.		Nights.	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
Albany, N. Y.	\$31.00	\$35.00	\$34.00	\$38.00	\$31.00	\$35.00	\$34.00	\$38.00
Billings, Mont.	39.00	43.50			39.00	43.50		
Buffalo, N. Y.	34.00	40.00	36.00	42.00	34.00	40.00	36.00	42.00
Chattanooga, Tenn.	24.00	31.50	26.40	34.65				
Cedar Rapids, Iowa.	24.00	39.00			28.00	40.00		
Chicago, Ill.	47.00	52.00	48.00	53.00	51.00	56.00	52.00	57.00
Colorado Springs, Colo.	30.00	37.00			30.00	37.00		
Decatur, Ill.	29.00	32.00			29.00	32.00		
Denver, Colo.	39.00	45.50	42.90	50.05	39.00	45.50	42.90	50.05
East Liverpool, Ohio.	32.00	42.00			32.00	42.00		
Eureka, Calif.	30.00	36.00			30.00	36.00		
Fort Smith, Ark.	27.00	30.00			27.00	30.00		
Franklin, Pa.	36.00	38.00			36.00	38.00		
Grand Rapids, Mich.	30.00	40.00	32.00	43.00	30.00	40.00	32.00	43.00
Hagerstown, Md.					25.00	35.00		
Hutchinson, Kans.	24.00	35.00			24.00	35.00		
Indianapolis, Ind.	36.00	44.00	37.00	45.00	36.00	44.00	37.00	45.00
Joliet, Ill.					30.00	42.50		
Keene, N. H.	36.00	39.60			36.00	39.60		
Keokuk, Iowa	28.00	31.00	30.00	33.00				
Lafayette, Ind.	22.00	27.00	23.00	28.00	22.00	27.00	23.00	28.00
Lancaster, Pa.	29.00	33.00			31.00	35.00		
Lewiston, Me.					31.00	35.00		
Lowell, Mass.	35.50	37.50	37.50	39.50	35.50	37.50	37.50	39.50
Memphis, Tenn.					28.00	40.00		
Meridian, Miss.	27.50	35.00						
Middleton, Ohio.	27.50	36.00			27.50	36.00		
New Bedford, Mass.	34.00	37.00			34.00	37.00		

¹ Further wage data are included in articles on pp. 23 to 44, and 45 to 59.

ADDITIONAL CHANGES IN UNION WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN PRINTING AND PUBLISHING TRADES, MAY 15 TO DEC. 15, 1920—Continued.

Pressmen, cylinder presses, book and job—Concluded.

City and State.	1 press.				2 presses.			
	Days.		Nights.		Days.		Nights.	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
New Brunswick, N. J.	\$30.00	\$36.00			\$30.00	\$36.00		
New York, N. Y.	46.00	51.00	49.00	54.00	46.00	51.00	\$49.00	\$54.00
Paterson, N. J.	34.00	39.00			34.00	39.00		
Pittsburgh, Pa.	34.00	45.00			34.00	45.00		
Portland, Me.	28.00	34.00			30.00	36.00		
Portland, Oreg.	40.00	45.00	\$41.00	\$46.00	40.00	45.00	41.00	46.00
Pueblo, Colo.	30.00	39.00			30.00	39.00		
Raleigh, N. C.	25.00	31.50			30.00	38.00		
Reading, Pa.	25.00	36.00			25.00	33.00		
Roanoke, Va.	32.50	35.00			35.00	37.50		
St. Joseph, Mo.	32.00	42.00			32.00	42.00		
St. Paul, Minn.	36.00	42.00	38.25	44.25	36.00	42.00	38.25	44.25
Salem, Oreg.	36.00	39.00	39.00	42.00	36.00	39.00	39.00	42.00
San Antonio, Tex.	22.50	37.50			22.50	40.00		
San Diego, Calif.	32.00	38.00	35.00	41.00	32.00	38.00	35.00	41.00
Springfield, Mo.	22.50	37.50			22.50	37.50		
Stockton, Calif.	39.00	42.00			39.00	42.00		
Syracuse, N. Y.	32.00	38.00			32.00	38.00		
Trenton, N. J.	33.60	43.20	43.20	52.80	33.60	43.20	43.20	52.80
Waco, Tex.	31.50	42.00	31.50	42.00	31.50	42.00	31.50	42.00
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	31.50	39.00			31.50	39.00		
Yonkers, N. Y.	38.00	42.00			38.00	42.00		
Zanesville, Ohio.	25.00	32.00	26.00	36.00	25.00	32.00	26.00	36.00

City and State.	Color press.				Offset press.			
	Days.		Nights.		Days.		Nights.	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
Albany, N. Y.	\$33.00	\$37.00	\$36.00	\$40.00	\$40.00	\$46.00	\$42.00	\$48.00
Buffalo, N. Y.	39.00	45.00	41.00	47.00	40.00	46.00	42.00	48.00
Cedar Rapids, Iowa					27.00	49.50		
Chicago, Ill.	50.50	55.50	51.50	56.50				
Colorado Springs, Colo.					37.00	43.00		
Decatur, Ill.					35.00	38.00		
Denver, Colo.					39.00	45.50	42.90	50.05
East Liverpool, Ohio.					40.00	42.00		
Fort Smith, Ark.					33.00	36.00		
Grand Rapids, Mich.					(1)	45.00	(1)	48.00
Hutchinson, Kans.					(1)	35.00		
Indianapolis, Ind.	(1)	48.00	(1)	49.00				
Joliet, Ill.	33.00	45.00			35.00	47.00		
Keokuk, Iowa					35.00	38.00	37.00	40.00
Lafayette, Ind.	22.00	27.00	23.00	28.00				
Lancaster, Pa.					40.00	44.00		
Lowell, Mass.	36.50	42.50						
Meridian, Miss.					32.50	40.00		
Middletown, Ohio.					30.00	45.50		
New Bedford, Mass.					42.00	45.00		
New Brunswick, N. J.					30.00	36.00		
New York, N. Y.	49.00	54.00	52.00	57.00	49.00	54.00	52.00	57.00
Paterson, N. J.	38.00	43.00			38.00	43.00		
Pittsburgh, Pa.	(1)	42.50			42.50	50.50		
Portland, Me.					32.00	38.00		
Raleigh, N. C.					35.00	40.00		
Reading, Pa.					(1)	42.00		
Roanoke, Va.	37.50	40.00			35.00	37.50		
St. Paul, Minn.	37.50	43.50						
Salem, Oreg.					36.00	39.00	39.00	42.00
San Diego, Calif.	36.00	42.00	39.00	45.00	36.00	42.00		
Springfield, Mo.					(1)	45.00		
Waco, Tex.					37.50	42.00	37.50	42.00
Zanesville, Ohio.					25.00	37.00	27.00	39.00

¹ No scale.

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

105

ADDITIONAL CHANGES IN UNION WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN PRINTING AND PUBLISHING TRADES, MAY 15 TO DEC. 15, 1929—Continued.

Pressmen, platen presses, book and job.

City and State.	1 press.				3 presses.			
	Day.		Night.		Day.		Night.	
	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—	From—	To—
Albany, N. Y.	\$21.00	\$25.00	\$24.00	\$28.00	\$24.00	\$28.00	\$27.00	\$31.00
Billings, Mont.	36.00				36.00			
Brookton, Mass.	32.50							
Buffalo, N. Y.	29.00	34.00	31.00	36.00				
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	25.00				25.00			
Chicago, Ill.	40.00	45.00	41.00	46.00	40.00	45.00	41.00	46.00
Colorado Springs, Colo.	25.00	32.00			26.00	33.00		
Columbus, Ohio.	35.00	38.00	38.00	41.00				
Decatur, Ill.	21.00	25.00			23.00	25.00		
Denver, Colo.	31.50	37.75			34.70	41.20		
Dubuque, Iowa	28.00	31.00			28.00	31.00		
East Liverpool, Ohio.	32.00	42.00			32.00	42.00		
Eureka, Calif.		24.00						
Fort Smith, Ark.	21.00	24.00			21.00	24.00		
Hagerstown, Md.				28.00				
Holyoke, Mass.		35.00				35.00		
Hutchinson, Kans.	24.00	33.00			24.00	33.00		
Indianapolis, Ind.	27.60	38.00	28.60	39.00	30.00	40.40	31.00	41.40
Joliet, Ill.	24.00	38.00			27.00	38.00		
Keene, N. H.	30.00	33.00			30.00	33.00		
Keokuk, Iowa	25.00	28.00	27.00	30.00				
Lafayette, Ind.	20.00	25.00			22.00	27.00		
Lancaster, Pa.	22.00	24.00						
Lewiston, Me.	21.00	31.00						
Lowell, Mass.	30.50	32.50	32.50	34.50				
Memphis, Tenn.	24.00	37.50			24.00	37.50		
Middletown, Ohio.	24.00	32.50			25.00	35.00		
Mobile, Ala.	22.00	24.00			25.00	33.00		
New Bedford, Mass.	31.00	34.00			31.00	34.00		
New Brunswick, N. J.	25.00	31.00			25.00	31.00		
New York, N. Y.	40.00	44.00	43.00	47.00	40.00	44.00	43.00	47.00
Paducah, Ky.	21.00	22.50			21.00	22.50		
Paterson, N. J.	30.00	35.00						
Pittsburgh, Pa.	31.00	43.00			31.00	43.00		
Portland, Me.	26.00	32.00			26.00	35.00		
Pueblo, Colo.	26.00	33.00			28.00	33.75		
Raleigh, N. C.	25.00	33.00			25.00	37.50		
Reading, Pa.					23.00	32.00		
Roanoke, Va.	22.00	24.50			25.00	27.50		
St. Joseph, Mo.	21.00	27.50	22.00	28.50	24.00	31.50	25.00	32.50
St. Paul, Minn.	28.80	31.20	30.80	33.20	30.00	32.40	32.00	34.40
Salem, Ore.	36.00	39.00	39.00	42.00				
San Diego, Calif.	30.00	36.00	33.00	39.00				
Springfield, Ill.	33.00	² 38.00	34.00	² 40.00				
Springfield, Mo.	20.00	27.50	22.00	30.00				
Stockton, Calif.	36.00	39.00			36.00	39.00		
Syracuse, N. Y.	24.00	28.50			27.00	32.00		
Waco, Tex.	24.00	27.00						
Wilkes-Barre, Pa.	19.95	22.00			22.57	24.00		
Yonkers, N. Y.	37.00	42.00			37.00	42.00		
Zanesville, Ohio.	22.00	30.00	23.00	32.00	22.00	30.00	23.00	32.00

² Temporary scale.

ADDITIONAL CHANGES IN UNION WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN PRINTING AND PUBLISHING TRADES, MAY 15 TO DEC. 15, 1920—Continued.

Pressmen, web presses, newspapers.

City and State.	In charge.				Tension men.				Platers and oilers.				
	Day.		Night.		Day.		Night.		Day.		Night.		
	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To	
Albany, N. Y.					\$28.00	\$37.00	\$28.00	\$37.00	\$28.00	\$40.00	\$28.00	\$40.00	
Augusta, Me.								21.50	28.00				
Billings, Mont.	\$42.00	\$49.50	\$42.00	\$49.50	39.00	43.50	39.00	43.50					
Bridgeport, Conn.	33.00	40.50	33.00	40.50	27.00	37.50	27.00	37.50	27.00	37.50	27.00	37.50	
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	\$38.00	\$50.00	\$38.00	\$50.00	35.00	47.00	35.00	47.00					
Colorado Springs, Colo.	\$30.50	\$41.00	\$30.50	\$41.00	26.00	34.00	26.00	34.00	26.00	34.00	26.00	34.00	
Concord, N. H.	\$31.50	\$35.50	\$31.50	\$35.50									
Detroit, Mich.	40.00	51.00	40.00	51.00	37.00	45.00	37.00	45.00	37.00	45.00	37.00	45.00	
Dubuque, Iowa	25.00	40.00	25.00	40.00	23.00	35.00	23.00	37.00	23.00	35.00	23.00	37.00	
Duluth, Minn.	39.00	42.00	42.00	45.00	36.00	39.00	39.00	42.00	36.00	39.00	39.00	42.00	
East Liverpool, Ohio	\$25.50	\$40.00	\$27.00	\$40.00	18.60	29.50	18.60	29.50	18.60	24.00	18.60	24.00	
Enreka, Calif.	\$32.00	\$40.00	\$33.00	\$40.00									
Fort Smith, Ark.	\$30.00	\$36.00	\$33.00	\$39.00	24.00	27.00	27.00	30.00					
Hagerstown, Md.	\$25.00	\$35.00	\$27.00	\$37.00	18.00	30.00	19.00	32.00					
Holyoke, Mass.	30.00	42.00	30.00	42.00	22.00	33.00	22.00	33.00	22.00	33.00	22.00	33.00	
Hutchinson, Kans.	\$31.50	\$40.00	\$31.50	\$40.00	(¹)	35.00	(¹)	35.00	(¹)	35.00	(¹)	35.00	
Keokuk, Iowa	\$30.00	\$33.00	\$32.00	\$35.00					25.00	28.00	27.00	30.00	
Lafayette, Ind.					25.00	30.00	27.00	32.00					
Lewiston, Me.	28.00	35.00	28.00	35.00									
Lincoln, Nebr.	\$34.50	\$40.00			28.50	39.00			27.00	33.00			
Louisville, Ky.	36.00	42.00	36.00	42.00	33.00	39.00	33.00	39.00	33.00	39.00	33.00	39.00	
Lowell, Mass.	\$36.00	\$43.00	\$36.00	\$50.00	32.00	33.00	32.00	42.00	32.00	33.00	32.00	42.00	
Marion, Ind.	\$27.00	\$35.00	\$28.00	\$40.00					17.00	20.00	18.00	27.00	
Marshall, Tex.	\$25.00	\$39.00	\$29.50	\$40.00									
Memphis, Tenn.	37.50	44.10	37.50	44.70	34.50	40.50	34.50	41.10	34.50	40.50	34.50	41.10	
Middletown, Ohio	32.00	40.00	40.00	42.00	20.00	28.50	(¹)	30.50					
Mitchell, S. Dak.	\$33.00	\$38.00	\$33.00	\$38.00									
New Brunswick, N. J.	\$35.00	\$41.00	(¹)	\$41.00	20.00	26.00	(¹)	26.00					
New Haven, Conn.	33.00	36.00	33.00	36.00	24.00	27.00	24.00	27.00	24.00	27.00	24.00	27.00	
Paterson, N. J.	\$39.00	\$44.00	\$42.00	\$47.00	30.00	35.00	33.00	38.00	30.00	35.00	33.00	38.00	
Philadelphia, Pa.	36.00	42.00	36.00	42.00	30.00	36.00	30.00	36.00	30.00	36.00	30.00	36.00	
Portland, Me.	25.00	38.00	25.00	38.00	25.00	34.00	25.00	34.00	25.00	34.00	25.00	34.00	
Pueblo, Colo.	\$36.00	\$45.00	\$36.00	\$48.00	30.00	39.00	30.00	42.00	30.00	39.00	30.00	42.00	
Raleigh, N. C.	\$30.00	\$38.00	\$37.50	\$44.00	22.00	29.00	27.50	34.00		34.00	27.50	34.00	
Reading, Pa.	30.00	\$46.00	31.50	43.00	29.00	40.00	30.50	41.50	25.00	35.00	26.50	36.50	
Salem, Oreg.	36.00	\$42.00	39.00	\$45.00	36.00	39.00			36.00	39.00			
Springfield, Ill.	34.00	\$41.50	34.50	\$42.50	29.50	37.50	30.00	38.00	29.50	37.50	30.00	38.00	
Springfield, Mo.	\$25.50	\$38.00	\$28.50	\$37.50	15.00	21.00	18.00	22.00	15.00	21.00	18.00	22.00	
Stockton, Calif.	\$42.00	\$45.00	\$42.00	\$45.00	39.00	42.00	39.00	42.00	39.00	42.00	39.00	42.00	
Syracuse, N. Y.	33.00	37.00	33.00	37.00	28.00	32.00	28.00	32.00	28.00	32.00	28.00	32.00	
Terre Haute, Ind.	\$42.00	\$46.50	\$44.00	\$49.50	33.00	37.50	35.00	40.50	30.00	34.50	32.00	37.50	
Tucson, Ariz.	\$30.00	\$38.00	\$30.00	\$38.00									
Yonkers, N. Y.	\$40.00	\$45.00	\$40.00	\$45.00									

¹ No scale.⁴ Foreman.³ Pressman in charge is the foreman.⁶ Assistant foreman.

ADDITIONAL CHANGES IN UNION WEEKLY WAGE RATES IN PRINTING AND PUBLISHING TRADES, MAY 15 TO DEC, 15, 1920—Concluded.

Press assistants and feeders, book and job.

City and State.	Class.	Platen presses.				Cylinder presses.			
		Day.		Night.		Day.		Night.	
		From	To	From	To	From	To	From	To
Albany, N. Y.	Assistants and feeders, male.	\$20.00	\$24.00	\$23.00	\$27.00				
	Assistants and feeders, female.	16.00	20.00						
Billings, Mont.	Feeders.	22.50	24.00			\$27.00	\$30.00		
Cedar Rapids, Iowa	do.	(1)	22.00			(1)	31.50		
Chicago, Ill.	Feeders, seniors.					39.00	44.00	\$40.50	\$45.50
	Feeders, color work.					40.50	45.00	41.50	46.50
	Feeders, juniors, pony press.					25.00	29.00	27.50	30.50
	Feeders.	24.50	27.50	26.00	29.00				
	Feeders, Col't's and Universal press.	25.00	28.00	26.50	29.50				
	Assistants.	29.00	32.00	30.50	33.50				
Colorado Springs, Colo.	Feeders.					22.00	27.50		
Decatur, Ill.	do.					20.00	27.00		
East Liverpool, Ohio	do.					20.00	22.00		
Fort Smith, Ark.	do.	14.60	17.00			20.00	23.00		
Grand Rapids, Mich.	Feeders, male.					23.00	31.00		
	Feeders, female.					23.00	27.00		
Hagerstown, Md.	Feeders.	15.00	22.00						
Hutchinson, Kans.	do.					20.00	27.50		
Indianapolis, Ind.	Feeders, cylinder.					28.80	36.80	29.80	37.80
	Feeders, patent inside.					30.60	38.60	31.60	39.60
	Feeders, color work.					(1)	39.20	(1)	40.20
	Feeders, pony press.					25.20	33.20	26.20	34.20
Joliet, Ill.	Feeders.	17.00	20.00			22.00	30.00		
Keene, N. H.	do.					30.00	33.00		
Lafayette, Ind.	Feeders, 60-inch cylinder or larger.					16.00	21.00	17.00	22.00
	Feeders, 3 ⁶ / ₈ to 5 ⁹ / ₁₆ inch cylinder.					14.00	19.00	15.00	20.00
	Feeders, pony press.					13.00	18.00	14.00	19.00
Lancaster, Pa.	Feeders.					23.00	27.00		
Los Angeles, Calif.	do.	24.00	27.00			30.00	33.00		
Lowell, Mass.	do.	22.00	24.00	24.00	26.00	29.50	31.50	31.50	33.50
Memphis, Tenn.	do.	(1)	22.00			20.00	27.50		
Meridian, Miss.	do.	16.00	16.50			21.00	22.00		
Middletown, Ohio	do.					20.00	30.00		
Mobile, Ala.	do.					18.00	19.00		
New York, N. Y.	do.	29.00	32.00	32.00	35.00	39.00	43.00	42.00	46.00
Portland, Me.	do.					23.00	29.00		
Pueblo, Colo.	do.	(1)	18.00			22.50	25.00		
Raleigh, N. C.	do.					18.00	22.00		
Reading, Pa.	do.	17.50	22.50			20.00	28.00		
Roanoke, Va.	do.					20.00	22.50		
Salem, Oreg.	do.	21.50	24.00	24.00	27.00	28.00	31.50	31.00	34.50
San Diego, Calif.	do.	21.50	25.00	24.50	26.00	26.50	31.00	29.50	34.00
	Feeders, female.					24.50	28.50		
Spokane, Wash.	Feeders.	21.60	24.90	24.60	27.90	24.60	28.30	27.60	31.30
Syracuse, N. Y.	do.	19.00	22.50			23.00	27.00		
Waco, Tex.	do.	15.00	18.00	15.00	18.00	22.50	25.00	22.50	25.00
Yonkers, N. Y.	do.					31.00	36.00		
Zanesville, Ohio	do.					17.00	25.00	19.00	27.00

¹ No scale.

Plastering Trade.

CHANGES in wage rates of plasterers between May 15 and August 31, 1920, are shown in the following table:

CHANGES IN UNION WEEKLY WAGE RATES OF PLASTERERS FROM MAY 15 TO AUG. 31, 1920.

City and State.	May 15, 1920.	Aug. 31, 1920.	City and State.	May 15, 1920.	Aug. 31, 1920.
Birmingham, Ala.	\$33.00	\$44.00	Ogden, Utah	\$49.50	\$55.00
Cincinnati, Ohio	44.50	50.62	Oklahoma City, Okla.	49.50	66.00
Columbus, Ohio	49.50	55.00	Omaha, Nebr.	49.50	55.00
Dallas, Tex.	49.50	60.50	Pasco, Wash.	55.00	66.00
Dayton, Ohio	48.40	55.00	Pittsburgh, Pa.	50.60	55.00
Des Moines, Iowa	44.00	55.00	Portland, Oreg.	49.50	55.00
Duluth, Minn.	44.00	49.50	Portsmouth, Ohio	39.60	49.50
El Dorado, Kans.	44.00	49.50	Providence, R. I.	40.00	46.00
El Paso, Tex.	49.50	55.00	Richmond, Va.	33.00	38.50
Galesburg, Ill.	44.00	49.50	Rochester, N. Y.	50.60	55.00
Galveston, Tex.	49.50	60.50	San Jose, Calif.	55.00	60.50
Hazleton, Pa.	28.80	43.20	San Francisco, Calif.	50.00	55.00
Indianapolis, Ind.	44.00	49.50	Shreveport, La.	55.00	66.00
Jacksonville, Fla.	38.50	44.00	St. Louis, Mo.	55.00	60.50
Los Angeles, Calif.	49.50	55.00	St. Paul, Minn.	49.50	55.00
Louisville, Ky.	44.00	49.50	Superior, Wis.	44.00	55.00
Lusk, Wyo.	(¹)	60.50	Tamaqua, Pa.	35.20	44.00
Memphis, Tenn.	44.00	55.00	Terre Haute, Ind.	44.00	55.00
Milwaukee, Wis.	38.50	49.50	Uniontown, Pa.	44.00	55.00
Morgantown, W. Va.	38.50	44.00	Waco, Tex.	49.50	60.50
Muskegon, Mich.	44.00	55.00	Washington, D. C.	44.00	49.50
Muskogee, Okla.	49.50	60.50	Wichita, Kans.	49.50	55.00
Newport News, Va.	44.00	55.00	Yakima, Wash.	49.50	55.00

¹ Not reported.

Wage Increases for Clerical Forces of the Naval Establishment.¹

A NEW wage increase has recently been granted to the clerical force of the United States navy yards. On September 16, 1920, a wage schedule, as noted in the October number of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (pp. 109-112), went into effect applicable to mechanical forces of the navy yards, naval stations, and hospitals throughout the country. This award of the Navy wage board appointed to consider the question of the readjustment of wages of employees in naval establishments, while affecting approximately 75,000 such workers, did not apply to the clerical and drafting forces of these branches of the service. As the draftsmen had received substantial increases under the Macy award of February, 1919, and subsequently "a promotion in increments of 40 cents per diem upon the completion of six months' service until the maximum in their grade was attained," they have not been included in the recent award affecting clerical employees. The department, however, recognized the inequalities which existed among the rates of pay of the clerks doing the same grade of work and felt that "as a matter of mere justice to all workers this condition should not continue."

On account of the diversified character of the work and of the various rates of pay paid for the same classes or grades of work a reclassification of the clerical force was deemed necessary in a consideration of the present wage increase. For this purpose special

¹ Data taken from a circular letter of the Navy Department, Washington, under date of Sept. 4, 1920, and from the Federal Employee, Washington, Nov. 6, 1920, pp. 3, 6.

local boards, to which employees' representatives were elected from every department in the respective yards, were appointed to reclassify the work of the clerical, the messenger, and the police force in the different establishments. The findings of these local boards were reported to the department in Washington, where they were reviewed by the department board.

The new rates of pay, announced October 27, 1920, and retroactive to September 16, 1920, the date of the first award, have been fixed in accordance with this classification as follows:

Supervisory—Clerical.

A—Clerical work of a supervisory character of the highest grade, such as chief clerks of yard departments, recorders of labor boards, head storemen, head stockmen, etc.

Pay—Maximum, \$11.50; minimum, \$8.72.

Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.48 per diem.

B—Clerical work of supervisory character, such as chiefs of sections, stockmen, technical stores, etc.

Pay—Maximum, \$8.32; minimum, \$6.88.

Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.48 per diem.

NOTE.—The rating of stockman, technical stores, has been established to provide a rating for mechanics assigned to handle technical stores in the Supply Department. Schedule of wages: Employees now assigned to such duties shall be given a temporary appointment as stockman, technical stores, pending examination, within the rates of pay indicated. Additional positions for these employees will be chargeable to the appropriation, "Maintenance, Supplies and Accounts (Labor)." The prior approval of the district secretary will be secured for such appointments. It is directed that the department be furnished with a brief statement of the duties and qualifications in order that it may have the Civil Service Commission announce an examination through the district system.

Clerical.

A—Clerical work involving much initiative, responsibility, investigation, special ability, and skill; bookkeepers, stenographers and typewriters, typewriters, and stockmen.

Pay—Maximum, \$6.48; minimum, \$4.56.

Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.48 per diem.

NOTE.—The rating of stockman, special, is abolished and employees holding such rating shall be rerated to stockmen.

B—Clerical work, more or less routine, but requiring some initiative, original thought, judgment, and skill, including storemen.

Pay—Maximum, \$5.52; minimum, \$4.56.

Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.48 per diem.

C—Clerical work of simple routine character, including checkers in storehouses.

Pay—Maximum, \$4.56; minimum, \$3.84.

Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.48 per diem.

Minor clerical.

A—Clerical work performed by employees who have not a first-grade civil service examination status.

Pay—Maximum, \$3.20; minimum, \$2.96.

Two rates only.

B—Chief telephone switchboard operator.

Pay—\$4.24 (third naval district, \$4.72).

C—Telephone switchboard operators.

Pay—\$3.68.

Subclerical.

A—Mail messengers.

Pay—\$3.60.

B—Messengers, etc. Subclerical work in general.

Pay—Maximum, \$3.36; minimum, \$2.64.

- Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.24 per diem.
- C—Store laborers, viz, those who are employed in storehouses, with incidental recording of receipts and issue of goods and material.
Pay—Maximum, \$4.32; minimum, \$3.84.
Promotions and intermediate rates to be in increments of \$0.24 per diem.
- D—Messenger boys and girls: Office assignment.
Pay—Maximum, \$2.32; intermediate, \$2.08; minimum, \$1.84.

Police force.

- A—Captains.
Pay—\$5.68.
- B—Lieutenants.
Pay—\$5.20.
- C—Roundsmen.
Pay—\$4.72.
- D—Policemen.
Pay—Maximum, \$4.32; intermediate, \$4.08; minimum, \$3.84.

Coincident with the award the work day for all employees, naval officers included, shall be the standard industrial day of 8 hours. Saturday half holidays also are granted for the Saturdays not covered by the Executive order of June 9, 1914, for which employees receive a full day's pay. For the Saturdays not covered by the Executive order, however, employees will receive pay only for the actual number of hours worked.

Salaries in Universities and Colleges in the United States in 1920.

THE United States Bureau of Education has recently published a pamphlet (Bulletin, 1920, No. 20) giving the salaries paid to presidents, deans and directors, professors, associate professors, assistant professors, instructors, and assistants in 401 public and private universities and colleges in the United States in 1919-20. The data, which are presented in detailed tables covering each institution designated by number, are summarized in the first part of the report in the following tables:

SALARIES PAID IN 401 UNIVERSITIES AND COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES IN 1919-20.

Public institutions.

Title of position.	Number of persons.	Minimum salary.	Maximum salary.	Average salary.	Median salary.	Most frequent salary.
President or chancellor.....	77	\$2,500	\$12,500	\$6,647	\$6,000	\$6,000
Dean or director.....	367	1,200	10,000	3,819	3,500	3,000
Professor.....	2,460	300	10,000	3,126	3,000	3,000
Associate professor.....	822	300	4,000	2,514	2,500	3,000
Assistant professor.....	1,705	500	4,000	2,053	2,000	1,800
Instructor.....	2,138	300	3,100	1,552	1,500	1,500
Assistant.....	855	75	2,500	801	750	1,200

Private institutions.

President or chancellor.....	287	\$900	\$12,000	\$3,918	\$3,500	\$3,000
Dean or director.....	504	400	10,000	2,329	2,000	2,000
Professor.....	3,781	100	10,000	2,304	2,000	1,500
Associate professor.....	357	600	4,500	2,423	2,300	2,000
Assistant professor.....	1,261	75	5,000	1,770	1,800	2,000
Instructor.....	1,810	50	4,000	1,205	1,200	1,200
Assistant.....	574	10	2,000	472	400	500

Comparison of Earnings of New York State Factory Workers With Retail Prices of Food.

AVERAGE weekly earnings in representative manufacturing industries in New York State in November of each year, 1914 to 1920, except 1915 and 1917, have been furnished this bureau by the New York State Industrial Commission. These figures will be published in the November Labor Market Bulletin issued by the commission. The bulletin will also contain a table showing a comparison of the course of average weekly earnings of factory workers with the course of retail prices of food in the United States. The latter table consists of index numbers, with June, 1914, as 100, the figures for prices being derived from the price indexes published each month by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW. Both tables are here reproduced. In order to determine at a glance the extent of the respective increases of earnings in November, 1920, over the earnings in November, 1914, a column, which does not appear in the original table, showing these increases in terms of per cent has been added to the following table:

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WORKERS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES IN NOVEMBER, 1914, 1916, 1918, 1919, AND 1920.¹

Industry.	Average weekly earnings in November—					Per cent of increase, 1920 over 1914.
	1914	1916	1918	1919	1920	
Stone, Clay and Glass Products.	\$13.30	\$16.22	\$23.32	\$26.41	\$32.06	141.1
Miscellaneous stone and mineral products.....	14.60	18.85	23.67	27.82	34.43	135.8
Lime, cement and plaster.....	13.18	16.58	25.47	29.55	34.37	160.8
Brick, tile and pottery.....	11.61	13.73	18.81	24.00	28.70	147.2
Glass.....	14.30	15.83	24.41	24.90	31.16	117.9
Metals, Machinery and Conveyances.	14.04	17.60	25.35	27.90	32.11	128.7
Gold, silver and precious stones.....	13.09	17.50	24.17	30.68	34.97	167.2
Brass, copper, aluminum, etc.....	12.67	16.57	23.09	26.34	29.14	130.0
Pig iron and rolling mill products.....	16.79	21.85	35.34	35.10	40.78	142.9
Structural and architectural iron work.....	15.44	17.09	27.65	28.28	34.69	124.7
Sheet metal work and hardware.....	12.00	14.29	20.43	23.99	27.97	133.1
Firearms, tools and cutlery.....	13.67	18.08	22.79	24.26	25.74	88.3
Cooking, heating and ventilating apparatus.....	14.78	17.14	24.48	30.76	32.38	119.1
Machinery (including electrical apparatus).....	13.89	17.29	22.54	27.61	29.93	115.5
Automobiles, carriages and aeroplanes.....	17.06	18.86	23.39	27.49	32.51	90.6
Cars, locomotives and railway repair shops.....	13.98	18.12	33.48	30.83	36.90	163.9
Boat and ship building.....	14.85	21.71	33.53	37.11	36.48	145.7
Instruments and appliances.....	13.29	15.62	20.50	23.86	27.81	109.3
Wood Manufactures.	11.99	14.74	19.34	23.64	27.56	129.9
Saw mill and planing mill products.....	11.67	14.45	20.59	24.41	28.86	147.3
Furniture and cabinet work.....	11.99	14.79	18.69	24.09	27.21	126.9
Pianos, organs and other musical instruments.....	13.31	16.98	20.20	21.41	28.56	114.6
Miscellaneous wood and allied products.....	10.98	12.65	18.04	23.54	26.06	137.3
Furs, Leather and Rubber Goods.	11.84	14.53	19.12	25.49	26.12	120.6
Leather.....	11.12	15.28	20.40	24.52	26.68	139.9
Furs and fur goods.....	16.65	19.05	27.43	38.40	41.80	151.1
Boots and shoes.....	12.38	14.99	19.56	25.72	25.07	102.5
Miscellaneous leather and canvas goods.....	10.21	13.10	16.92	25.37	25.33	148.1
Rubber and gutta percha goods.....	11.41	13.31	17.27	23.57	26.49	132.2
Pearl, horn, bone, celluloid, hair, etc.....	10.08	11.94	16.88	19.72	24.44	142.5
Chemicals, Oils, Paints, Etc.	12.80	15.37	20.96	25.20	28.71	124.3
Drugs and chemicals.....	12.36	15.01	17.90	25.05	27.71	124.2
Paints, dyes and colors.....	14.33	15.38	20.77	23.39	27.13	89.3
Animal and mineral oil products.....	12.93	15.67	23.49	25.76	28.98	124.1
Miscellaneous chemical products.....	12.30	15.94	19.81	24.99	29.61	140.7

¹ Includes all employees in both office and shop. It is commonly the case that office salaries are higher than the average weekly 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.

AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS OF WORKERS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES IN NOVEMBER, 1914, 1916, 1918, 1919, AND 1920—Concluded.

Industry.	Average weekly earnings in November—					Per cent of increase, 1920 over 1914.
	1914	1916	1918	1919	1920	
Paper.....	\$13.23	\$15.96	\$23.91	\$26.71	\$32.36	143.7
Printing and Paper Goods.....	14.89	16.33	21.56	25.37	30.30	103.5
Paper boxes and tubes.....	10.59	12.09	17.34	20.60	23.64	123.2
Miscellaneous paper goods.....	11.63	13.12	17.00	21.60	24.40	109.8
Printing and book making.....	16.55	17.93	23.37	27.34	32.49	96.3
Textiles.....	9.44	11.48	15.53	20.32	21.95	132.5
Silk and silk goods.....	9.48	10.87	14.31	18.19	19.17	102.2
Wool manufactures.....	10.13	12.06	15.67	22.72	25.12	148.0
Cotton goods.....	9.09	11.89	16.39	20.96	20.80	128.9
Cotton and woolen hosiery and knit goods.....	8.78	10.71	14.46	18.17	20.03	128.1
Other textiles and allied products.....	9.46	12.29	18.29	22.07	22.73	140.3
Clothing, Millinery, Laundering, Etc.....	10.24	12.11	15.92	23.65	23.03	124.9
Men's clothing.....	10.86	13.30	18.27	29.04	24.36	124.3
Men's shirts and furnishings.....	8.68	10.76	12.39	18.02	15.85	82.6
Women's clothing.....	13.31	14.24	19.00	26.84	32.10	144.9
Women's underwear and furnishings.....	8.46	10.08	13.50	19.27	20.60	143.5
Women's headwear.....	12.03	13.59	18.76	24.52	25.16	109.1
Miscellaneous sewing.....	8.13	9.36	11.63	17.40	18.38	126.1
Laundering, cleaning, dyeing, etc.....	9.07	10.37	15.17	17.82	19.31	112.9
Food, Beverages and Tobacco.....	11.50	13.63	19.64	23.15	26.12	127.1
Flour, feed and other cereal products.....	13.94	16.61	22.94	26.40	30.07	115.7
Fruit and vegetable canning and preserving.....	8.96	10.27	15.22	18.72	21.52	140.1
Groceries not elsewhere classified.....	12.72	15.50	22.99	26.82	30.78	142.0
Slaughtering, meat packing and dairy products.....	14.61	17.15	25.87	27.33	31.63	116.5
Bread and other bakery products.....	11.91	13.29	20.90	22.45	26.40	121.7
Confectionery and ice cream.....	9.06	9.99	12.94	17.99	20.28	123.8
Beverages.....	19.20	19.73	27.89	28.73	34.06	77.4
Cigars and other tobacco products.....	8.92	11.48	15.46	20.82	21.24	138.1
Water, Light and Power.....	15.66	17.65	25.32	30.18	36.16	130.9
Average.....	12.32	15.16	21.60	25.37	28.70	133.0

Comparison of average weekly earnings with retail prices of food in the United States is shown in the following table:

COMPARATIVE INDEX NUMBERS OF AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN NEW YORK STATE FACTORIES AND OF RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES.

[June, 1914=100.]

Month.	1914		1915		1916		1917		1918		1919		1920	
	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.	Average weekly earnings, New York factories.	Retail food prices in the U. S.
January.....	100	100	98	104	107	108	120	129	132	162	181	187	209	203
February.....	100	100	98	102	108	107	121	134	139	163	174	174	208	202
March.....	100	100	100	99	110	108	124	134	147	156	175	177	219	202
April.....	100	100	99	100	111	110	122	146	152	156	174	184	219	213
May.....	100	100	100	101	112	110	127	153	157	160	175	187	224	218
June.....	100	100	101	101	113	113	128	154	161	164	177	186	227	221
July.....	99	103	100	101	111	112	127	147	164	169	182	192	224	221
August.....	99	108	102	101	114	114	129	151	167	173	188	194	226	209
September.....	98	108	101	102	117	119	134	155	176	180	196	190	226	205
October.....	97	106	105	104	118	122	136	159	176	183	192	190	228	200
November.....	97	106	106	105	119	127	139	157	170	185	200	194	226	195
December.....	99	106	106	106	122	127	139	159	183	189	207	199
Average..	98	105	101	102	114	115	129	147	160	170	185	188

¹ Drop in January, 1918, was due to Fuel Administrator's closing order for Jan. 18-22.

² Drop in November, 1918, was due to closing of factories on Nov. 11, Armistice Day.

The Three-Shift System in the Steel Industry.¹

AT THIS time when many steel mills are laying off large numbers of men the question is being raised as to why any job need be 12 hours long. England has given up the 12-hour day in her steel industry, and so has France, Germany, Sweden, Italy, Belgium, Spain. There is no other American industry which, like a steel plant, works the majority of its men 12 hours a day.

A visit to practically all of the some twenty American steel plants which are now running on three shifts disclosed the fact that the men have been willing to make substantial concessions in daily wages in order to get the shorter hours. A 25 per cent increase in hourly rates is ample to compensate the men for a 4 hours' loss of pay. To give all the men now on 12-hour work a 25 per cent increase in wages and cut down their day from 12 to 8 hours would cost a manufacturer of pig iron at the most about 21 cents a ton. Pig iron sells for \$40. If all the departments in a steel plant were to be changed from two to three shifts, the increase in total cost for the finished rail, bar, or plate could not, on the average, be more than about 3 per cent.

But it is shown that the increase in cost need not be nearly so great as these figures. By taking care, some manufacturers going on 8 hours have been able to reduce their force of men 10 per cent; some more. Others have found that the quality of their open-hearth steel has improved and that the expense for fuel and wear and tear on furnaces has been substantially reduced. Others have found that their rolling-mill output has gone up well toward 20 per cent or even more.

The steel industry is not an easy one in which to increase output, and during the initial stages of three-shift operation most companies have had to stand some increase in labor cost; but, taking it all in all, the manufacturers now operating on the shorter day are practically a unit in saying that it means more satisfactory operations, and is better business. Many detailed problems have had to be worked out; but certainly the experience of these 20 plants has shown that there is no really serious obstacle to putting the steel industry on a three-shift day.

It is especially important to note that present conditions are decidedly more favorable for the steel industry's going on three shifts than were circumstances at the time when most of the plants now on three shifts made the change. At the present moment there is a widespread surplus of labor, and unquestionably the expense of wage adjustments would now be less, and the increase in efficiency substantially greater, than was possible of attainment when the plants herein studied made the change. Nor would a change to three shifts now be apt to cost as much as the same change made a little later.

The present, is, according to Mr. Drury, the steel industry's golden opportunity to attain, at minimum expense and maximum advantage all around, those standards of hours and efficiency which

¹ Abstract of an address delivered by Horace B. Drury, formerly of the economics department of Ohio State University, on Dec. 3, 1920, before a joint meeting of the Taylor Society, the Metropolitan and Management sections of the American Society of Mechanical Engineers, and the New York section of the American Institute of Electrical Engineers.

the whole world has come to feel will sooner or later have in any case to be introduced.

The speaker gave reasons that have been advanced for the two-shift system and also those in favor of going from two shifts to three, and cited the experience of five of the plants visited showing the net results of the change from the twelve to the eight hour basis. He concluded with a summary of the experience of the 20 plants which have introduced the three-shift system and touched briefly upon the application of this system to the steel industry as a whole. To quote—

The main question that has seemed worth while looking into as regards the three-shift system has been the fundamental question as to what extent, if any, the greater wage cost due to compromise on hourly wage rates at the time hours are shortened can be offset by increased efficiency; that is, to what extent can the shorter day be made to pay for itself.

A survey of the plants which have been experimenting with three shifts shows that the attainment of this goal is not a simple matter. Most of the people with whom I have talked were ready to agree that as a general proposition—having no special reference to the steel industry—8 hours or 10 hours makes a better day from the production standpoint than 12 hours. Where the amount of work accomplished depends on the energy that a man puts in, it is believed that he will do as much in 8 or 10 hours as in any longer period. But while the steel men feel that this is true in most industries and in a few departments of the steel industry, they do not believe that a day as short as 8 hours can actually be made as productive per man-day of 8 hours as is the present 12-hour day; for the reason that most of the work around a steel plant is not of a kind that a man can pitch into and get done. He must wait. I found, as a matter of fact, that in almost all cases the three-shift system is being introduced at some increase in cost—that is, in cases where the men do not go on at practically the same hourly wage rates as before. And it seems likely that if all the steel plants in the United States were to go on three shifts they would most of them find that labor costs had risen.

* * * * *

While costs are likely to go up some at the start, I think there is substantial reason for believing, in view of what has already been done in some of the plants, that before long the adjustment will work out along lines that will mean very little if any higher cost. * * * If hourly wage rates are compromised half way, the force of men increased not a full 50 per cent, but on the average 35 per cent, and if output could on the average be increased 10 per cent, then the labor cost under three shifts would be practically the same as under two shifts. If the first figure were 20 per cent, or the second 30 per cent, or the third 12½ per cent, the others being as given there would be no increase at all.

* * * * *

This figure for a 35 per cent increase in men, instead of 50 per cent, is a conservative one. In many plants exactly 50 per cent more men are employed on three shifts than on two, and most of them are close to the 50 per cent figure. But the 35 per cent standard has been attained by some of the largest plants. * * * It might be noted that the limitation to 35 per cent increase can be obtained if, where 10 men are now employed on a shift, it is possible to get along with 9. That is, 27 men employed on three shifts is just 35 per cent more than 20 men employed on two shifts. It seems only reasonable to assume that with so large a reduction in the number of hours, it would be possible to cut out one man out of ten.

This figure for increased output of 10 per cent seems not very far away as an average. It is, of course, too high for a blast furnace. I know of no reason to expect greater output at all from a blast furnace on three shifts. Fortunately, in the case of a blast furnace the labor cost is small. In the case of the open-hearth furnace a 10 per cent increase in output would be an ambitious program. Most steel men would say that any increase in output at all would be impossible. Others think that wide-awake labor can hasten the charging and guarantee that the melting takes place at maximum speed. Fortunately, about an open-hearth furnace there are ample opportunities for improving the quality of the steel, prolonging the life of the furnace, and saving in materials, which may more than make up for the difficulty of increasing output. As regards rolling mills, the human equation enters in to a considerable extent, so that

increase in output may be looked for. The amount depends on the type of mill and the opportunities for doing more rapid work. It would also depend some on the efficiency of the arrangements for supplying the metal to be rolled, and for shearing and taking away the finished product. On many mills, however, actual figures show that the increase in output may run up well toward 20 per cent, or even higher.

However, the striking thing about the cost of the three-shift system is the smallness of the amount at stake, whichever way one looks at it. Suppose that there were no increase in efficiency at all, that the plant increased its force of shift men precisely 50 per cent, that the output is no greater in any department than under two shifts, and that the hourly wage rates are raised 25 per cent. * * * In a good blast furnace plant the labor cost at present wage levels and efficiency should not be far from \$1 per ton; to be safe we will say \$1.25 a ton. Assuming that the change from 12 hours to 8 would affect two-thirds of the men, the pay of these men under the two-shift system would amount to two-thirds of \$1.25 or 83 cents per ton. An advance of 25 per cent in the hourly wages of these men would increase the labor cost per ton of pig iron by 21 cents. Considering the fact that pig iron sells for around \$40 a ton, that the ore that goes into a ton when delivered at Pittsburgh costs about \$16, the trifling risk involved in increasing the labor cost a maximum of about 21 cents is apparent. Likewise in open-hearth work the labor cost might be \$1.30 a ton, to be safe we will say \$1.50 a ton. The maximum increase in labor cost here, assuming no increase in efficiency, would be 25 cents. Thus the total increase in labor cost for the steel ingot would be not more than 46 cents, still a small figure for something that sells for about as many dollars. In the rolling mills the labor cost will run higher, especially where material is rolled several times, and into light shapes, as rods, sheets, etc. But in proportion as the product is put through many processes, the opportunities for getting higher labor efficiency increase, until at the sheet mill end of the process, no one questions but that the shorter day means no added cost at all. In various of the rolling mills visited there has been no increase in labor cost.

Nevertheless, assuming that there is no increase in efficiency in the rolling mill or elsewhere, exhaustive analyses made by the Government have shown that if every department of a steel plant were put on three shifts the total cost of producing steel products, including blast furnace, open-hearth furnace, and rolling-mill work could not on the average be increased more than about 3 per cent.²

* * * * *

Three-Shift System in Steel Industry as a Whole.

If the bulk of the steel industry should at practically one time change from two to three shifts the most commonly advanced objection to the shorter day would lose almost all its force. And that is the objection that the men want the maximum earnings given during the long hours. I believe that the Senate committee was right when, after holding hearings in Pittsburgh, they concluded that the majority of the steel workers were opposed to the 12-hour day. Yet the comparatively few who are still in favor of long hours can cause some perplexities where an individual plant adopts the three-shift system but is surrounded by 12-hour plants. This source of irritation and confusion would, of course, not exist at all if the steel industry as a whole, or in great part, should go to three shifts.

The magnitude of the problem of finding the extra labor is not nearly so great as is commonly supposed. As for the higher positions, these may be filled by promotion of helpers. This promotion in itself has a favorable effect on the men, as the better workers make up in promotion for what they would otherwise lose because of decreased earnings. The lower positions may be filled by new labor.

However, under present conditions, the time may soon be at hand when the three-shift system could be introduced without bringing any new labor into the industry. If indeed we are face to face with a time of considerable unemployment in the steel industry, then this would be the time of all times to cut out one man's working 12 hours a day, and another's working not at all, and distribute the work so that all would have employment for a reasonable workday. Under these conditions the change can be made with the greatest benefit all around, and perhaps no cost anywhere.

A number of tables were presented, one of which is here reproduced showing the industries in which each specified number an-per cent of men are working 12 or more hours a day. It will be noted

² Senate Document No. 110, 62d Cong., 1st sess. Report on conditions of employment in the iron and steel industry, Vol. III, pp. 175-187.

that the iron and steel industry tops the list with 17.4 per cent of 12-hour men. This figure of 17.4 per cent does not show the full extent of the 12-hour work in the steel industry for the reason that the table shows not the hours of labor on any one day, but the average number of hours per day for each man during a pay-roll period. Thus, if during a given two-weeks period, a 12-hour man worked only six days, or 72 hours altogether, his daily average would be one-twelfth of 72 hours, or 6 hours; and he would be classified not as a 12-hour but as a 6-hour man. So the figure of 17.4 per cent is not to be taken as the proportion of 12-hour men in the industry. The figures are for the beginning of 1919, when work was so irregular in these steel plants, or labor turnover so high, that there were actually more men averaging less than 4 hours a day than there were over 12.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF MEN AVERAGING 12 HOURS OR MORE PER DAY IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIES.¹

Industry.	Number of States included.	Number of employees included.	12-hour men.		Industry.	Number of States included.	Number of employees included.	12-hour men.	
			Number.	Per cent.				Number.	Per cent.
Iron and steel.....	15	31,588	5,497	17.4	Boxes, paper.....	10	1,805	10	0.6
Chemicals.....	25	28,478	2,367	8.3	Cars.....	14	15,696	25	.2
Paper and pulp.....	14	6,379	444	7.0	Cigars.....	10	5,223	2	.04
Class.....	9	11,738	791	6.7	Clothing, men's.....	9	9,926	19	.2
Brick.....	11	1,773	85	4.8	Electrical machinery..	8	4,369	6	.1
Coal:					Furniture.....	13	10,615	35	.3
Anthracite.....	1	16,216	617	3.8	Hosiery and underwear..	15	2,697	10	.4
Bituminous.....	18	40,541	272	.7	Leather.....	9	7,920	59	.7
Foundries.....	28	15,340	364	2.4	Logging.....	21	7,330	42	.6
Machine shop:					Lumber.....	22	18,022	170	.9
Machine tools.....	11	7,817	40	.5	Millwork.....	13	5,154	13	.3
Other machinery..	27	14,931	298	2.0	Overalls.....	19	358	1	.3
Rubber.....	9	15,134	272	1.8	Silk.....	7	3,755	27	.7
Confectionery.....	19	4,370	54	1.2	Typewriters.....	10	8,870	58	.7
Automobiles.....	7	17,812	98	.6					

¹ The figures upon which this table is based are taken from Table 5 of Bulletin No. 265 of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Industrial survey in selected industries in the United States, 1919. The arrangement has been altered to serve the purposes of this study, and the per cent figures added.

² See explanation in text above. The proportion of 12-hour men in the typical steel plant is 50 per cent or over.

Wage Increases in Certain Foreign Countries.

Silk Mills and Dyeing Houses at Leek, England.

THE silk mills and dyeing houses at Leek in the Stoke-on-Trent consular district have cut down their working week to four days, closing from Friday night until Tuesday morning, the reason being decreased orders. The United States consul in that district reports (Oct. 28, 1920) that increases in wages have recently been granted operatives in the silk industry effective October 22, 1920, as follows:

WAGE INCREASES TO OPERATIVES IN THE SILK INDUSTRY AT LEEK, ENGLAND,
EFFECTIVE OCTOBER 22, 1920.

[1s. at par=21.3 cents; 1d. at par=2.03 cents.]

Class of worker.	Wage increase per week.	Sliding scale of wage increase per week.
	s. d.	s. d.
Males, adult (time and piece workers).....	6 0	2 0
Females, 18 years of age and over.....	4 6	1 6
Minors.....	3 0	1 0

It should be explained that the sliding scale is applied only as the cost of living increases or decreases 10 points, as shown by the Board of Trade index figures.

French Potash Miners.

A REPORT recently received by the Department of State through its representative in Paris under date of November 11, 1920, suggests that the "threatened strike in the French potash mines has been averted by a vote of the strikers." A new contract affecting wages has been drawn up to run for one year from September 15, 1920, in accordance with which the following wages are now being paid:

NEW WAGE SCALE FOR FRENCH POTASH MINERS EFFECTIVE SEPTEMBER 15, 1920.

[1 franc at par=19.3 cents.]

Occupation.	Old rate.	New rate.
	Francs.	Francs.
Miners.....		23.40-25.00
Miners' apprentices.....		21.06-22.50
Loaders.....		18.72-20.00
Trackmen ¹		17.52-18.75
Job workers:		
Skilled ¹	19.20	20.80
Workmen charged with care of mines.....	19.20	20.60
Winchmen ¹	15.60	16.80
Surface workers:		
Machinists.....	19.20	20.80
Firemen ¹	19.20	20.80
Ordinary laborers ² —		
14 to 16 years of age.....	7.80	8.40
16 to 18 years of age.....	10.20	10.90
18 to 20 years of age.....	12.60	13.50
20 to 25 years of age.....	15.00	15.90
Over 25 years of age.....	15.60	16.80

¹ Above 25 years of age.² In addition a family allowance of 1 franc a day is made.

Wages and Labor Conditions on Plantations in Java.

THE United States trade commissioner at Singapore, Straits Settlements, gives in the August 13 issue of the Commerce Reports (Washington) an account of plantation organization in Java which describes in some detail how labor is handled on a certain large estate, giving the duties of the various classes of native workers and the wages paid to them for work in connection with the raising of

rubber, coffee, and sisal. After noting the differences in the two systems of estate management, one in operation in Java and the other in Sumatra, the commissioner's report continues:

Labor conditions on a large estate.

In describing labor conditions in Java but few generalizations may be safely made, as the character of the population varies, and even in the strictly Javanese districts there are many variations in customs and character. The organization described below is of an estate within the boundaries of the Javanese country, but not entirely uninfluenced by the immigration from Madura. The manager of this estate has had full control for 20 years and knows the "adat" (tribal customs) of his people and the individual peculiarities of the leaders. This estate has been described as having one of the most perfect estate organizations in Java. It consists of two divisions of 3,449 bouws (about 6,048 acres in all), of which 2,500 bouws are in rubber and coffee and 550 in sisal; the remainder includes rice fields, timber, nurseries, bamboo, teak, pastures, villages, roads, canals, etc.

Foreign Personnel.

The foreign staff is under the supervision of a general manager and consists of the following personnel: A chief garden assistant of section 1, who has under him four section assistants and a native staff; a chief garden assistant of section 2, who has under him three section assistants, an apprentice assistant, and a native staff; a chief factory assistant, who has under him an assistant machinist, an apprentice assistant, and a native staff; and, finally, a bookkeeper. The term "garden" means the area under cultivation.

The bookkeeper, a man of mixed blood, handles all the general accounting, accumulating the reports sent in by the various assistants. The two chief garden assistants are responsible to the manager for all work outside the factory except the construction of new buildings, which is in charge of the chief factory assistant. The two divisions of the estate are subdivided into seven agricultural sections, each section being in full charge of an assistant. A section may include rubber, coffee, sisal, teak, bamboo, a coagulation station, and nurseries. * * *

The factory includes a water power plant delivering, through an American water wheel and by cable, 250 horsepower to the main shafting, an auxiliary steam plant of 150 horsepower as a reserve, a rubber mill, a coffee mill, three sisal-stripping machines, smokehouses, drying fields and houses for sisal, drying floors and houses for coffee, sorting rooms, blacksmith shop, machine shop, brass fitting foundry, packing houses, warehouses, and other equipment. The factory is in charge of a first assistant, who is a machinist, with a European staff consisting of a machinist and an apprentice assistant. * * *

Native Staff Organization.

The Javanese staff is the backbone of the organization. Many of the mandoers (native foremen) are fully capable of managing a section, and but for their unreliability in money matters would be promoted to assistants' positions. When the assistants are absent for short periods the section work goes on without serious friction or slacking down. The native organization is as follows: Under the garden assistant there are two immediate subordinates, the head tapping mandoer and the head mandoer for garden work. Under the head tapping mandoer are tapping mandoers, a marking mandoer, and a mandoer of the tapping school. Under the head mandoer for garden work are weeding mandoers, nursery mandoers, mandoers for combating diseases of bark and stem, mandoers for combating diseases of leaves and branches, and mandoers for coffee plucking and the cutting of hemp leaves. Under each mandoer there is a staff sufficient for the work in hand. * * *

Rubber, Coffee, and Sisal Plantations.

The tappers are the key men on a rubber plantation. They are highly skilled, and only the more intelligent men and women can qualify for this work, which requires a light touch and a judgment that is almost instinctive. Tapping begins at daybreak and is finished before noon. The latex brought in by each tapper is weighed and a sample of 50 grams [1.8 ounces] is coagulated, mangled, and weighed. Payment is made on the basis of the actual rubber brought in, taking into consideration the age of the trees and the configuration of the land on which the tapper has worked. * * *

Coffee harvesters are generally women and children. * * * Many of the pickers are rapid workers, and the best of them are able to earn up to 1 florin [\$0.40, par] per day, especially when there is a heavy crop.

The harvesting of sisal is work that is not sought after by the Javanese. * * * It is the intention of the management to put as much of the work as possible on a "task" basis. Common labor is paid at the rate of 0.40 florin [\$0.16, par] per day for the men and 0.25 florin [\$0.10, par] for women, but when working at task work it is possible for them to earn more than this amount. Weeding, digging, planting of sisal, and what plowing is done are all on a task basis, as is much of the road work. Nursery work, which requires a high degree of skill, disease fighting, and other work demanding a maximum of care and skill are paid for at a higher rate on a day basis.

Factory Organization and Personnel.

The organization of the European and native staff in the factory is as follows: The immediate subordinates of the chief factory assistant are a machinist assistant, an apprentice assistant, a master carpenter (native), and a master bricklayer (native). The chief factory assistant is in charge of the warehouses and pays the labor. Under the machinist assistant are the mandoer in charge of crêping and sheeting rubber, the mandoer in charge of hemp stripping, the mandoer in charge of coffee milling, and a master blacksmith (native), under whose supervision fall the machine shop, workshop, soldering shop, brass-fitting foundry, and the oil men.

The duties of the apprentice assistant are coagulating the latex brought in to the main factory; receiving wet rubber from the sections; receiving all other products from the sections; supervising the mandoer in charge of drying, smoking, packing, and sorting rubber; supervising the mandoer in charge of drying, sorting, and packing hemp; supervising the mandoer in charge of air and kiln drying of coffee; weighing and forwarding products destined for the market; supervising the woman mandoer in charge of sorting of coffee; and supervising the mandoer in charge of ordinary upkeep of factory grounds. The chief factory assistant, machinist, and the apprentice assistant are Europeans or men of mixed blood. * * *

Wages.

The following table gives the wages paid to the various classes of labor, native and foreign, on the plantations of this estate:

WAGES PAID TO NATIVE AND FOREIGN LABOR ON RUBBER, COFFEE, AND SISAL PLANTATIONS OF A LARGE ESTATE IN JAVA.

[1 florin, at par=40 cents.]

Occupation.	Wages per month.	Occupation.	Wages per month.
	<i>Florins.</i>		<i>Florins.</i>
Bookkeepers ¹	250	Coolies, males.....	³ 0.50
Garden assistants, chief ¹	350-400	Coolies, females.....	³ 0.30
Garden assistants ¹	² 200-300	Mandoers in charge of air and kiln drying of coffee.....	25
Factory assistants, chief ¹	300	Mandoers, coffee mill.....	20
Machinists ¹	250	Coffee harvesters, women and children.....	⁴ 0.60-1.00
Garden mandoers, head.....	30-50	Mandoers in charge of coffee sorters, females.....	³ 0.50
Mandoers, other.....	18-25	Unskilled labor, coffee sheds, males.....	³ 0.40
Carpenters, master.....	75	Sorters, coffee, females.....	⁵ 0.50
Carpenters.....	³ 0.60-1.50	Sisal harvesters.....	⁴ 0.07
Blacksmiths, master.....	75	Mandoers in charge of hemp-stripping machines.....	25
Blacksmiths.....	³ 0.60-1.50	Operatives, hemp-stripping machines.....	³ 0.50
Bricklayers, master.....	60	Mandoers in charge of drying, sorting, and packing hemp.....	20
Bricklayers.....	³ 0.60-1.50	Coolies, drying yards.....	³ 0.40
Tappers, rubber.....	³ 0.70-0.80	Sorters and bundlers, females.....	⁵ 0.10
Tappers, beginners.....	³ 0.50	Coolies, pressing and packing hemp.....	⁶ 0.60
Mandoers in charge of drying, smoking, and sorting rubber.....	30		
Mandoers in charge of machining rubber.....	20		
Skilled labor, rubber factory.....	15-20		

¹ The report states that it is planned soon to increase this salary 30 per cent.
² Graduated yearly increases up to 300 florins per month.
³ Per day.
⁴ Per picul (136 pounds) delivered to the factory or central station.
⁵ Per picul (136 pounds).

Clothing and Textile Factories in New South Wales.

IN AN article on The market for wearing apparel in New South Wales, appearing in Commerce Reports (Washington) for November 23, 1920 (pp. 859-864) is included a table showing the rates of wages current in clothing and textile factories in that State of Australia in December, 1919. In this table the conversions into United States money have been made by the United States consul at Sydney, who supplies the information, on the basis of one pound sterling equals \$4.50.

RATES OF WAGES CURRENT IN THE CLOTHING AND TEXTILE FACTORIES OF NEW SOUTH WALES IN DECEMBER, 1919, BY OCCUPATION.

Classification of workers.	Rate of wages per week.	Classification of workers.	Rate of wages per week.
Woolen mills, textile workers:		Dress and costume making (46½ hours per week)—Concluded.	
Carder, warper.....	\$17.55	Manufacturing or stock—Conclud.	
Comber, knitter.....	17.32	Cutter (male).....	\$16.87
Finisher.....	\$17.32-19.46	Cutter (female).....	13.50
Scourer, miller, spinner.....	17.43	Presser.....	6.75
Twister.....	18.11	Finisher.....	6.18
Warp drawer.....	17.77	Forewoman.....	10.12
Wool sorter.....	19.23	Millinery—	
Comber, finisher, knitter (female).....	7.49	Forewoman.....	11.25
Drawer, warper (female).....	8.39-9.51	Journeywoman.....	\$7.31-7.87
Weaver (female).....	4.50-9.51	Shirt and collar making:	
Dress and costume making (46½ hours per week):		Cutter.....	17.32
Order trade—		Shirtmaker (46½ hours).....	7.31
Alteration hand, assistant blouse or skirt hand.....	6.75	Tailoring (order and ready-made):	
Assistant bodice hand, blouse, or skirt hand.....	7.31	Examiner, folder, presser.....	12.93
Bodice or coat hand.....	7.87	Cutter (order).....	19.46
Costume makers—		Cutter (stock).....	17.32
Machinist, tailor.....	15.88	Machinist, tailor (order and chart).....	14.62
Machinist, tailor (female), coats.....	9.45	Machinist, tailor (ready-made).....	15.18
Machinist, tailor, skirts.....	7.87	Machinist, tailor (female)—	
Cutter.....	19.12	Coats (chart).....	7.31
Forewoman.....	10.12	Coats (order).....	7.87-8.55
Manufacturing or stock—		Coats (ready-made).....	6.36
Blouse or skirt machinist.....	7.31	Trousers and vests (chart).....	6.30
Coat machinist, examiner.....	7.87	Trousers and vests (order).....	6.97-7.05
		Presser.....	14.40

Municipal Employees of Dundee, Scotland.

THE American consul at Dundee reports (October 23, 1920) that certain employees of that municipality have recently been awarded salary increases as follows:

Male employees in the baths and washhouses were granted a weekly increase of \$1.82, and females \$1.21 each; while laborers in the slaughterhouses had their wages increased from \$13.86 per week to \$16.65, and increases to other employees in the department ranged from 60 cents to \$1.82 per week.

Three assistants in the town clerk's department were granted increases of \$321.18 each, making their respective salaries \$1,810.33, \$1,202.02, and \$1,138.76 per annum.

A member of the sanitary department received an increase of \$121.66, raising his salary to \$1,459.95.

Skilled and Unskilled Labor in Shanghai.

THE British Department of Overseas Trade has recently issued a report for the year 1919 on the conditions and prospects of British trade with China which includes an appendix describing labor

conditions in that republic and gives a statement of wages paid to skilled and unskilled labor in Shanghai. The report declares at the outset that China has no labor question.

Speaking very generally, there are no restrictions on the employment or production of labor in China, every man, woman, or child being free to work as long as they like and how they like, earning whatever wages their industry and skill can command. The general standard of living in China being very low as compared with Europe and America, the Chinese worker earns just enough to keep himself and his family alive.

The standard of living is, generally speaking, higher in the towns than in the country. A rough idea of the cost of living may be obtained from the statement in the report that an agricultural worker or "coolie" earns from 15 to 30 cents¹ a day, skilled labor from 30 to 50 cents, and artisans, craftsmen, and shop assistants from 50 cents to \$1 a day according to their ability. The following table gives the average rates of wages for skilled and unskilled labor in Shanghai, 1919:

AVERAGE MONTHLY WAGES OF SKILLED AND UNSKILLED LABOR IN SHANGHAI
IN 1919.^a

Occupation.	Average monthly wage.
Skilled labor—docks, factories, public works, mills, street railways, etc.: ^b	
Fitters.....	\$6.00 to \$9.00.
Mechanics.....	\$4.00 to \$10.50.
Turners.....	\$4.80 to \$6.00.
Molders and welders.....	\$4.90 to \$3.00.
Boiler makers.....	\$3.00 to \$8.10.
Blacksmiths.....	\$3.00 to \$10.00.
Coppersmiths.....	\$3.20 to \$8.10.
Electricians.....	\$4.92 to \$7.89.
Carpenters.....	\$3.00 to \$6.25.
Stonemasons.....	\$3.00 to \$4.20.
Bricklayers.....	\$1.80 to \$3.00.
Painters.....	\$3.00 to \$3.40.
Mill operatives.....	\$1.80 to \$6.00.
Skilled labor—higher grades:	
Clerks.....	\$30 to \$200.
Engine drivers.....	About \$60.
Engineers—	
Arsenal.....	Up to \$350.
Mills.....	\$60 to \$120.
Railway.....	Up to \$150.
Foremen—	
Mills.....	\$40 to \$100.
Shipyards.....	\$60 to \$120.
Tramway.....	\$34 to \$65.
Stenographers.....	\$100 to \$150.
Telephone operators.....	\$50 to \$80.
Tramway inspectors.....	About \$38.
Typists.....	\$40 to \$140.
Domestic servants in foreign employ:	
No. 1 boy (butler, valet, parlor maid).....	\$18 to \$30. ^c
No. 2 boy (housemaid).....	\$10 to \$18. ^d
House boy (without a No. 2).....	\$15 to \$18.
Coolie (boot boy, charwoman, scullery maid).....	\$10 to \$12.
Cook.....	\$12 to \$30. ^d
Cook's help (kitchen maid).....	About \$5.
Gardener.....	\$8 to \$12.
Groom (mafoo).....	\$11.
Chauffeur.....	\$20 to \$50.
Chauffeur coolie.....	\$10 to \$15.
Laborers (agricultural).....	\$0.25. ^e
Coolies (includes street cleaners, casual laborers, messengers, etc.).....	\$0.22 to \$0.45. ^f
Bamboo coolies (includes wheelbarrow coolies and carters).....	\$0.45 to \$1.00. ^f

^a See note 1, below.

^b All wages in this group are average weekly wages.

^c Usually about \$25.

^e Per day.

^d Usually about \$15.

^f Paid by the piece.

¹ Although not definitely stated here, from other parts of the report it is gathered that wages are expressed in terms of the Mexican dollar, which is equivalent to about 74.6 cents in United States money, and for this reason conversions are not made in this article.

Earnings in Specified Occupations in South Australia.

IN THE annual report of the chief inspector of factories of South Australia for the year ending December 31, 1919,² is a table giving average weekly earnings in specified occupations or industries by sex and by age group. The following is an abridged form of this table, many of the industries being omitted because the occupations are not included and some of the occupations being omitted because it is not clear just what the terms mean:

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES AND AVERAGE WEEKLY EARNINGS IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS IN SOUTH AUSTRALIA IN 1919, BY SEX AND AGE GROUP.

[1s. at par=24.3 cents; 1d. at par=2.03 cents.]

Occupation.	Under 16 years of age.		Over 16 and under 21 years of age.		Over 21 years of age.	
	Number.	Average earnings.	Number.	Average earnings.	Number.	Average earnings.
<i>Males.</i>						
Bakers and pastry cooks.....	9	<i>s. d.</i> 17 4	57	37 4	252	78 2
Blacksmiths and shoeing smiths.....	4	16 2	12	31 2	68	81 2
Boiler makers.....	9	12 1	17	41 0	51	87 11
Brass workers.....	17	17 6	52	29 3	127	72 0
Brickmaking.....	6	21 0	23	47 9	362	74 7
Brush making.....	1	12 6	8	23 4	29	72 11
Builders' laborers.....			2	67 3	308	71 8
Butchers.....	12	23 4	60	42 7	334	81 3
Carpenters.....	22	15 2	52	36 4	631	84 11
Coopers.....			2	30 0	23	93 0
Druggists.....	8	18 11	18	36 0	24	74 0
Electrical workers.....	16	12 11	160	24 8	250	72 2
Engravers of metals.....	2	16 3	5	33 0	6	75 0
Florists.....	2	17 6			1	70 0
Hairdressers.....	2	27 6	18	42 1	86	73 6
Hardware clerks.....			3	28 6	23	72 3
Hotels, boots, porters, etc.....			2	32 0	69	34 7
Linotype operators.....					66	100 11
Masons and bricklayers.....	2	29 9	22	43 10	290	81 5
Modelers in plaster.....	3	20 4	24	37 4	114	74 2
Monumental workers.....	9	16 0	17	33 9	55	78 4
Painters and decorators.....	4	15 0	23	31 2	302	74 2
Plasterers.....			4	35 5	54	80 1
Plumbers, gas fitters, and galvanized-iron workers.....	35	14 2	58	30 2	180	86 8
Sheet-metal workers.....	16	14 7	71	31 6	215	73 1
Shipbuilding and repairers:						
Builders.....			10	21 4	58	97 8
Laborers.....					52	71 6
Slaughtermen.....	1	20 0			12	68 9
Tanners and curriers.....	3	19 0	16	34 10	132	71 11
Undertakers.....					13	70 9
Wickerworkers.....	14	15 2	21	38 0	27	69 0
<i>Females.</i>						
Brass workers.....	2	13 9	4	22 0	2	15 0
Brush making.....			5	24 5	11	22 3
Dressmaking.....	142	9 2	282	17 4	325	34 5
Druggists.....	12	12 6	44	18 8	9	26 11
Florists.....	4	10 0	14	17 9	4	46 3
Hairdressers.....			4	27 6	4	56 10
Hardware clerks.....			43	22 5	47	39 4
Sheet-metal workers.....	7	16 10	20	18 11	5	30 0
Tanners and curriers.....	5	10 6	22	18 9	32	32 6
Wickerworkers.....	2	21 3	5	25 0	1	40 0

² Australia (South Australia). Inspector of factories. Report, 1919. 15 pp. No. 61.

The Eight-hour Day in Certain Foreign Countries.

Greece.

A COMMUNICATION from the American consul at Athens, Greece, states that conformably to the convention on the 8-hour day adopted at the International Labor Conference in Washington in 1919 the Greek Government has given its adhesion to the convention on June 24, 1920.

The convention provided that the 8-hour day should be effective in Greece not later than July 1, 1923, for carbon disulphide and acid works, tanneries, paper mills, printing works, sawmills, tobacco manufacturing and handling, surface mining, foundries, lime and dye works, blowers in glass works, firemen in gas works, and loading and unloading merchandise; and not later than July 1, 1924, in machine industries, building trades, textiles, food, chemical, leather, paper articles and printing, clothing, woodworking and electrical industries, and land transportation.

Netherlands.

THE eight-hour law in the Netherlands became effective on October 24. This law, which according to an account from the United States minister at The Hague "cuts deeper into social life than any other industrial law," prescribes a 45-hour week for all factories and workshops, but does not so far affect offices, agriculture, horticulture, afforestation concerns, or mining, nor does it invalidate the laws relating to quarries, to stevedoring, or the new labor laws. The principal provisions of the new law, as outlined by the United States minister, are as follows:

It is prohibited to employ children under 14 years of age.

General regulations concerning the health and safety of youthful persons and women in factories or workshops, offices, shops, apothecaries, hotels, and cafés.

Regulating hours of labor in factories and workshops.

Inauguration of regulations and registers in factories and workshops.

Issuance of labor cards to youthful persons and married women in all establishments affected by the law.

Switzerland.¹

BY A popular vote of 368,991 affirmative against 271,118, on October 30, 1920, Switzerland granted the 8-hour working day to all Government employees, such as custom, railway, post, and telegraph workers.

¹ Data from the United States consul at Bern, dated Nov. 1, 1920.

MINIMUM WAGE.

Minimum Wage Law of Texas.

THE Legislature of Texas in 1919 enacted a minimum wage law, creating a commission to establish rates of wages for women and minors employed in the State. This has met considerable opposition, and at the special session of the legislature in 1920 a resolution was adopted requesting the commission to fix no scales until the regular meeting of the legislature in 1921 when amendments would be considered. It was reported that the author of the act himself favored in particular a zoning provision, which would permit the establishment of different rates for different sections of the State.

The action of the commission up to that time had been purely investigative, and it decided, in view of this request by the legislature, to continue to restrict its activities for the time being to the work of investigation. Various industries have been studied and the average cost of living determined in different sections of the State and in cities of different populations. In the course of these investigations it has called upon employees as well as employers to furnish information. Employees are protected by the law against discharge or discriminatory treatment by reason of any activities in compliance with the requests of the commission.

Constitutionality.

IN A case recently decided by the Court of Criminal Appeals of the State the validity of this protective provision was affirmed, and the law itself upheld. (*Poye v. State*, Oct. 15, 1920.) The appellant Poye had discharged from his service one Bessie Lee because she had testified before the commission regarding the terms and conditions of her employment in his restaurant. The act provided in case of such discharge a punishment by fine of not less than \$10 nor more than \$100, or by imprisonment in the county jail for not more than 30 days, or by both such fine and imprisonment. The county court of Harris County had found Poye guilty of violating the law, and fixed his punishment at a fine of \$100.

When the case came to trial Poye had moved to quash the complaint on the ground that the law was unconstitutional, violating the fifth and fourteenth amendments of the Constitution of the United States, and impairing the obligations of existing contracts. This motion was overruled by the trial court and the conviction arrived at as above, whereupon the case was taken to the Court of Criminal Appeals on an exception for error. Judge Lattimore, speaking for the court, found no grounds for regarding the law as retroactive or interfering with due process of law; neither does it

impair the obligation of contract. "It must be borne in mind that every contract entered into between our citizens includes as a necessary part thereof the written law of the land; and that such contracts are viewed and construed as embodying not only the expressed will of the parties but also the provisions of such laws." Therefore, it is concluded that the appellant knew that his employee might be called upon to testify in the manner in which she was, so that no violation of the contract could be pleaded. The intent of such laws is for the betterment of conditions of working women and children, and their enactment is well within the province of the legislature. No error was therefore found in the conduct of the case below and the judgment was affirmed.

Fixing Rates.

THE investigations referred to covered the entire State, and were said by the commission to be "more comprehensive than any subsequent investigations of the commission would be." It was held by the attorney general that the commission was without power to fix rates for different sections of the State, and it was chiefly on this ground that the objections above noted to enforcing the law were based. However, as the commission found by its investigation that the differences anticipated did not materialize, and "that no appreciable difference exists in the cost of living between the small town and large city in the matter of living essentials," it was felt that the reasons for delay were largely removed. No doubt the decision of the Court of Criminal Appeals in sustaining the law as constitutional also strengthened the position of the commission, the attorney general having expressed himself as having "grave doubts" as to the constitutionality of the law. The law provides that orders shall become effective in 60 days after their promulgation. The commission took action on November 20, establishing rates for females employed by telephone and telegraph companies, mercantile establishments, laundries and factories, the order becoming effective February 7, 1921. The time for the coming into effect, therefore, falls after the meeting of the legislature (Jan. 11), which the commission felt to be a sufficient compliance with the resolution. Moreover, only a legislative enactment, and not merely a resolution, could restrain the commission from carrying out its sworn duty. The order noted is of uniform application throughout the State, and covers the principal industries in which women are employed. It fixes a uniform rate of 25 cents per hour or \$12 per week of 48 hours, work in excess of 48 hours to be paid for at proportional rates. This State has a nine-hour law for women, and if the full permissible time is worked, this would give a minimum of \$13.50.

Learners may be employed at lower rates for not more than one year, a rate of 15 cents per hour being established as a minimum for the first six months, and 20 cents per hour for the second. The learning period of one year dates from the beginning of the employment of the learner and not from the inception of the order. Learners, like experienced workers, must be paid for the full time worked. The law applies to all employable females, both adult and minor, and also to boys under 15 years of age.

Substandard workers may receive special licenses, but such employees may not exceed 10 per cent of the total number of employees in any industry. Workers at piece rates must receive an equivalent to the minimum established. Where meals are furnished not more than 20 cents may be deducted for each meal.

In arriving at a rate of \$12 for a 48-hour week, the commission used its own figures of costs with the exception of certain incidentals, for which it adopted the figures of the California commission. An item of some interest was the scaling of the discovered cost of clothing on the basis of estimates supplied by merchants that the probable decline in prices by January, 1921, would effect a saving of $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent over the costs at the time of the commission's investigation. However, the weekly budget thus arrived at amounted to \$13.60, but employers protested that such a rate might be detrimental to industry, especially on the Southern border where many Mexican women are employed, and while the Commissioner of Labor voted for a minimum of \$13.60, the majority favored the \$12 rate on the basis of 48 hours worked.

Minimum Wage Investigations and Revisions in Massachusetts.¹

WITH a view to establishing wage boards in connection with the manufacture of druggists' compounds and proprietary medicines and the manufacture of stationery goods and envelopes, the minimum wage division of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries is making investigations of the wage conditions of women employed in such manufacture.

The department of labor and industries has provisionally approved the following recommendations of the reconvened wage board for office and other building cleaners, which recommendations it is proposed to make effective on or about February 1, 1921:

1. For the average worker of ordinary ability not less than \$15.40 a week for full-time employment, by which is meant 42 hours or more per week.
2. For less than 42 hours a week not less than 37 cents an hour, provided the total for the hourly rate need not exceed \$15.40 a week.

The present minimum is 30 cents an hour between 7 p. m. and 8 a. m. and 26 cents an hour between 8 a. m. and 7 p. m.

The new recommendations involve an increase of about $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent over the budget of \$11.54 adopted in the spring of 1918 by the former board. In proposing this increase consideration was given to the recent trend toward lower prices.

A reconvened board is now in session for the purpose of revising the minimum wage of women in the men's furnishings industry, and a new board is at present taking up the question of wages for women engaged in the minor lines of confectionery and food preparations.

¹ Information furnished by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries.

COOPERATION.

Second National Cooperative Convention.

THE Second National Cooperative Convention was held at Cincinnati, November 11-14, 1920. The convention was attended by 62 voting delegates, from 19 States, representing 279 cooperative societies having a membership of 84,000, and 44 fraternal delegates representing bodies not cooperative in character but favorably interested in the subject of cooperation. These fraternal delegates, it was estimated, represented some 2,000,000 workers. Among the organizations which sent fraternal delegates were the Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America, United Mine Workers of America, Ohio State Federation of Labor, National Women's Trade Union League, National Catholic Welfare Council, United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, International Machinists' Union, and National Federation of Postal Clerks.

Greetings were received at the convention from the cooperators of Austria, Australia, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Germany, Great Britain, Hungary, Ireland, Norway, Russia, and Switzerland. The Finnish cooperators sent three delegates representing, respectively, the Consumers' Cooperative Wholesale Society (the "S. O. K."), the Finnish Cooperative Wholesale Society (the "O. T. K."), and the Finnish Agricultural Cooperative Society.

The proceedings of the convention were characterized by the absence of formal papers. A definite program was followed, however. Among the subjects on the program were the following: Kinds of consumers' organizations in the United States to-day—independent cooperative societies, chain stores, American-plan stores, cost-plus stores, trade-union stores, etc.—and relative advantages and dangers of these types of organizations; Store problems; How to organize a wholesale society; Direct trading between farmers' and consumers' societies; The need of national cooperative standards, methods, and ideals; Practical experiences of practical cooperators; Cooperative banking and credit unions; and Other types of consumers' societies.

In an opening speech the chairman, Dr. Warbasse, president of the Cooperative League of America, pointed out that while there has been a great growth in cooperation not all of the growth has been sound. He emphasized the need of national unity in the movement, of standardization for protection against unsound organizations, the adoption of a word or seal for the use of genuine cooperative societies only; of uniform accounting systems; and of education, impartial and free and not in the interest of stock selling, among the general membership, this to be supplemented with education of experts to serve as teachers and guides. He also spoke of the need for Federal and State laws defining cooperative societies and providing for their protection.

Cooperative Wholesaling.

MUCH time was devoted to discussion of the comparative merits and demerits of the English type of wholesale society and what is called the "American plan." The English type of wholesale society is a federation of independent retail societies, each remaining independent and in full control of its internal affairs, and through its delegates, of those of the wholesale society. Under the American "plan" the wholesale society controls not only the wholesale but, in greater or less degree, the constituent societies, often delegating to them a large measure of local autonomy but retaining final control over them. Mr. John H. Walker, president of the Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society, East St. Louis, Ill., speaking for the American plan as exemplified in his society, stated that certain conditions in the United States—differing nationalities, prejudices, the credit system, the Yankee mental attitude, etc.—made deviations from the English plan necessary in order to develop the movement "rapidly and safely." He said his society was unable to get individuals to subscribe the share and loan capital and it was found necessary to obtain funds from trade-unions. Every union which lends its funds to the Central States Society is entitled to one delegate to the meetings for every share of loan capital held. Each retail society has local autonomy as far as possible, elects its own directors, makes its own by-laws, and appoints its own manager, subject to the veto of the wholesale. Its manager is under bond to the wholesale and must turn in a check for the amount of his receipts every day. The local society must maintain a stock of merchandise to the value of what it obtains from the wholesale. If it does not, the latter may withdraw the stock and get its money. The Central States manager is also bonded, by a merchandising bond, to the local societies. The retail societies' accounts are audited every three months but are checked every two weeks. Mr. Walker stated that the wholesale society is a necessary feature of the American plan of operation. At present the Central States Society has in its membership 140 stores on the English plan and 61 organized on the American plan. The radius of distribution is 140 miles. Mr. Walker brought out the fact that he regards the American plan of operation as merely a preliminary stage in the movement and expects that eventually all the stores will go onto the original Rochdale basis. First, however, members need education in cooperation.

Mr. Emerson P. Harris, of Montclair, N. J., expressed the opinion that operation under the American plan was safe while under good administration, but he doubted whether any great step forward would be made by deviation from cooperative principle, saying that while operation under the American plan might be "good exercise" and was very interesting, it was not cooperation and might or might not be tending toward cooperation.

Mr. John Nummivuori, manager of the Cooperative Central Exchange, Superior, Wis., expressed the opinion that before the wholesale was started it should be shown that there was a need for it. He pointed out that the history of cooperative wholesaling in the United States shows that the preferable way to begin wholesale buying is through a joint purchasing agency and that retail societies should not immediately acquire a warehouse and a lot of goods. He warned

cooperative societies that they should not try to "put up a big front"—promoters do that—but should build up the movement slowly and in a way that will last. He traced what he considered should be the course of development, starting with from half a dozen to a dozen societies doing joint buying. He favored making the buying agency an incorporated society with the retail societies subscribing stock in proportion to their membership and going into the project with the idea of permanency. Share capital in the wholesale should not belong to individuals but to retail societies, though loan capital may be accepted from the former. The retail societies should take the same interest in the wholesale as the individual members should take in the retail societies. Mr. Nummivuori stated that while competition is keener in the wholesale than in the retail business, the cooperative wholesale can buy at nearly the same conditions as the large private buyer. The wholesale society represented by him, the Cooperative Central Exchange, composed largely of Finnish societies, had, he said, shown a profit from the beginning. It now has 49 member societies and does a yearly business of half a million dollars. He emphasized the point that cooperators should "start small and develop gradually."

In the report of the committee on wholesaling the following points were brought out for guidance in the establishment of a cooperative wholesale: Joint buying should be undertaken first. Members should be retail societies and should subscribe at least \$500 worth of share capital for each 100 individual members; \$1,000 would be better. The number of delegates to meetings of the wholesale society to which member societies are entitled should also be based on their membership. Not more than 5 per cent of the turnover of the wholesale should be used for organization purposes. It is not the number of member societies that determines the success of the wholesale, but the amount of patronage they give it. Salesmen are not necessary. In the system of members and wholesale there should be decentralized control but centralized administration. The wrong way is to begin with the wholesale and then organize retail societies to support it. The national wholesale should be preceded by district wholesales. It should always be borne in mind that the ultimate aim of the wholesale is production and manufacture.

Direct Trading.

ON THE subject of direct trading between consumers' and farmers' societies, Mr. Waldemar Niemela, manager of the New England Cooperative Wholesale Society, Boston, Mass., was of the opinion that if the farmers' societies will cooperate with the consumers' societies the latter should give them the preference. He stated, however, that it had been his experience that the consumers' society can do better in dealing with the regular brokers, and cited one case in which the farmers' society refused to recognize the consumers either as cooperators or as brokers and another in which the consumers were charged more than other purchasers. According to Mr. Niemela, the farmers' organizations take the position that the consumers' stores should share their profits with them. Commendatory mention, however, was made of the treatment accorded to the consumers' societies by the various cooperative cigar factories.

Cooperative Communities.

MR. PICKETT of the Llano Cooperative Colony at Leesville, La., described that colony, which he said has a 20,000-acre tract and is self-supporting in everything but clothing. All the inhabitants, men, women, and children, receive the same compensation—\$2.10 a week for six days' work, eight hours a day. The children receive these wages for attending school and performing various little tasks, the women for performing their household duties, and the men for work done in the community enterprises. Each member of the community has his own job but may be transferred to any other in an emergency. Everything is free except food and clothing, these being debited against the wages received. These two commodities are charged for only in order to prevent their being wasted.

Cooperative Banking.

MR. McCALEB of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers' Cooperative National Bank of Cleveland, stated that that bank has \$1,000,000 capital. Nearly a quarter of a million dollars was subscribed by citizens of Cleveland. The bank will pay 4 per cent on savings and 2 per cent on checking accounts of \$500 or more. The bank, he said, is cooperative in that the shareholders agree to limit their dividends in any one year to 10 per cent. All earnings in excess of this will go to the depositors in the form of an increase in interest on their deposits.

Mr. McCaleb was of the opinion that credit institutions lie at the bottom of our economic system, and he urged workers to control their own sources of credit through the organization of credit unions. He stated that 50 persons, each subscribing one or two shares at \$5 or \$10 a share, were sufficient to start such a union. One case was cited of a credit union which started with a capital of \$26.40. One feature of the credit union is that no one can be either a borrower or a depositor without being a shareholder. Nearly all loans are made on personal credit. The chief advantage of the credit union is that each member has behind him the combined capital of all the members, and knows where he can turn in an emergency.

Education.

THE need of education in the cooperative principles was brought out by several speakers, the introduction of courses on cooperation into the public schools being favored. Dr. Lauman of Cornell University thought that cooperators need an education in cooperative history. The course in cooperation given by Cornell University includes the history of the movement, and of the various types of societies, and, finally, the study of the philosophy of the movement. He said, in response to a question, that the best way to obtain courses in cooperation would be through the agricultural colleges. Dr. Warbasse here remarked that some half dozen colleges have applied to the Cooperative League of America for suggestions as to courses on cooperation. Dr. Lauman was of the opinion that the greater the attempt to force cooperation from above, the greater the

failure. "You can't create cooperative success simply out of philosophy."

Mr. Severi Allanne, educational director of the Cooperative Central Exchange of Superior, Wis., described the work being done by that society. In 1917 a course in cooperation was given, lasting two weeks and attended by 15 students; in 1919, the course was extended to four weeks and was attended by 43 students; in 1920 it was further extended to six weeks and was attended by 34 pupils. The purpose of the course is to train workers to be managers. The chief difficulty encountered by the Exchange lies in the inequalities in the amount of schooling already received by the students. Some students have received some education either in this or other countries; others have had no education of any sort. Since the Exchange operates chiefly among the Finns, difficulties of language also arise. The Exchange endeavors to place its students in employment on completion of the course. About 70 per cent of those who attended last year are now engaged in the movement in some capacity.

Cooperative League of America.

PERHAPS the most significant action taken by the convention was the organization of the Cooperative League of America as a permanent national body. The object of the league will be "to promote the cause of cooperation; to develop mutual aid in place of antagonism; to favor the spread of knowledge of cooperative methods; to unite all consumers of the United States for the above purposes and for the purpose of international federation; and to encourage the acquirement of the agencies of production."

The plan as adopted provides for State leagues with local autonomy and for district federations within the State. The national organization of which the State leagues will be members will have no control over them except that the constituent societies must be acceptable to it.

The board of directors of the new body are as follows:

- A. P. Bower, Reading, Pa., vice president Pennsylvania State Federation of Labor; president Keystone Cooperative Association.
- James A. Duncan, Seattle, Wash., secretary Seattle Central Labor Council; Cooperative Food Products Association of Seattle.
- L. S. Herron, Omaha, Nebr., editor Nebraska Union Farmer; Farmers' Cooperative Educational Union of America.
- W. S. Lansdon, Salina, Kans., organizer and lecturer Farmers' Educational and Cooperative Union.
- R. A. McGowan, Washington, D. C., department of cooperative education, National Catholic Welfare Council.
- Robert McKechnan, East St. Louis, Ill., manager Central States Cooperative Wholesale Society.
- John F. McNamee, Cleveland, Ohio, editor and manager Brotherhood of Locomotive Firemen and Enginemen's Magazine; Consumers' Cooperative Society of Cleveland.
- Waldemar Niemela, Boston, Mass., manager New England Cooperative Wholesale Society; United Cooperative Society.
- John Nummivuori, Superior, Wis., manager Cooperative Central Exchange.
- Joseph Schlossberg, New York, N. Y., secretary Amalgamated Clothing Workers of America.
- Morris Sheppard, Texas, United States Senator, promoter of Federal cooperative law.
- Albert Sonnichsen, Willimantic, Conn., secretary Cooperative League of America; Workingmen's Consumers' Cooperative Society of New York.
- Aaron Stolinsky, New York, N. Y., secretary Federation of Jewish Cooperative Societies of America.

J. P. Warbasse, Brooklyn, N. Y., president Cooperative League of America; Finnish Cooperative Trading Association of Brooklyn.

A. W. Warinner, Brookfield, Mo., district advisor Cooperative League of America; Cooperative League of Brookfield.

The following officers were chosen: President, J. P. Warbasse; vice president, A. P. Bower; general secretary, J. F. McNamee; treasurer, W. Niemela.

Resolutions.

AMONG the resolutions adopted were those favoring the organization of an intercollegiate society; putting the convention on record as not indorsing certain cooperative organizations which were named; expressing "appreciative sympathy" for the efforts of cooperative producers and hoping for their highest success; providing that the new Cooperative League of America shall define the standards determining true cooperative societies; and urging the adoption of a designated seal or symbol and word which could be used only by genuine cooperative societies.

Attitude of International Labor Office Toward Cooperation.¹

I ATTACH the greatest importance to the establishment of continuous relations and a confident collaboration between the cooperative organizations and the International Labor Office. Do not regard this as simply the expression of my sympathies, formed long ago, for the cooperative movement, but as a conviction resulting from the actual examination of the function of the Permanent Labor Organization, and of the tasks incumbent upon its organ of study and executive action—the International Labor Office.

I need only recall the whole development of the cooperative movement for nearly a century, from the humble booth of the poor weavers of Rochdale, to the powerful and numerous productive undertakings of the wholesale societies, in order to give an idea of the many points of view from which cooperation may interest the International Labor Office: Organization of working-class consumption, increase of the purchasing power of wages at the expense of the middlemen, and at the same time the first contact of the workers with the cares and responsibilities of the conduct of economic enterprises; then, as the movement grows, the creation by means of the accumulated savings of the workers of factories, workshops, agricultural estates, and as a consequence the obligation for the organized consumers to solve on their own account all the problems of the organization of labor, methods and rates of remuneration, working hours, conditions of health, safety and comfort, relations between the technical direction and the executive staff, etc.

The cooperative societies approach all these problems with the spirit of sympathy which attaches them to the world of the workers from which they recruit the majority of their adherents, and from which they can not separate themselves without denying their

¹ Statement of M. Albert Thomas, director of the International Labor Office, published in International Cooperative Bulletin, London, September, 1920.

origin and abandoning their ideal. But, at the same time, they have to defend the general interests of the consumers, and take account of the economic, commercial and financial necessities which are imposed upon them equally with their private competitors. The cooperative societies occupy therefore, as regards all the questions which interest the International Labor Office, a peculiar position which gives a particular interest to the tendencies which they represent as well as to the practical solutions which they themselves adopt in their enterprises.

In the next place, the cooperative movement has attained such a degree of development that it can not adopt an indifferent attitude toward the great world problems of economic organization. Accordingly the cooperative societies have been led to propose that the distribution of the most important foodstuffs and of raw materials should no longer be left to the unrestricted play of private interests, but should be made to depend upon a certain international organization, the initial form of which might be the creation of an international office of prices and stocks.

A proposition to this effect has been adopted by the Superior Council of Cooperation of France (*Conseil Supérieur de la Coopération de France*). I recalled this cooperative initiative when the International Congress of Miners recently decided to notify the International Labor Office and the League of Nations of a resolution for the creation of an international office for the distribution of coal. The International Labor Office will follow with interest the manifestations on the part of cooperators in favor of an international organization of economic relations, and also practical achievements in the same sense which may arise from the negotiations entered into between the national wholesale societies, with a view to establishing the exchange of their supplies and productions on an organic basis.

I have pointed out the reasons for which it appears to me indispensable that the International Labor Office should possess a complete collection of documents and a continuous supply of information in regard to the life of the cooperative movement, and in regard to its tendencies and practical activity. These reasons have seemed to me sufficiently strong to warrant the creation of a technical section dealing specially with cooperative questions. It will be the duty of this section to follow the cooperative movement in every country, its progress and its achievements, and also its manifestations and its relations with the labor and social movement. While reserving to the cooperation of consumers the eminent place which belongs to it in the cooperative movement as a whole, the cooperative section of the International Labor Office will follow equally the development of the other forms of cooperation, such as cooperation in production, and labor and agricultural cooperation. In several countries, in fact, in Italy for example, all forms of cooperation are united by close bonds on the common basis of the defense of the collective interest, and it seems clear that in other countries the moment will arrive when consumers' cooperative societies, cooperative societies for production, and agricultural cooperative societies, will cease to ignore each other, and will be led to regularize their mutual relations. In proportion as the information it acquires

enables it so to do, the cooperative section will be required to bring together and compare the cooperative experiences of different countries, and to proceed from such comparison to the connected study of every question presenting a general interest.

Such is the place which cooperation at present occupies in the interests and activity of the International Labor Office. Is it possible to go further? Can cooperation hope, as the International Cooperative Alliance has already demanded, to have its own representation in the organs of the Permanent Labor Organization, in its general conferences, and in the governing body of the International Labor Office?

For my part, I appreciate the full value of the arguments which the cooperative organizations are able to present in support of their demands. It is, in my opinion, greatly desirable that, side by side with the delegates of the Governments, of the employers' organizations and of the workers' organizations, delegates of the cooperative organizations should represent the general interest of the consumers in all questions bearing on conditions of labor and production.

At present, in accordance with the terms of article 389 of the Treaty of Peace, each nation is represented at the general labor conferences by two delegates of the Government, one delegate of the employers' organizations, and one delegate of the workers' organizations. The representation on the governing body of the International Labor Office is established on the same basis.

It is right to observe also that at the general conferences each delegate may be accompanied by technical advisers, to the number of two at the most for each of the different subjects inserted in the agenda for the session. These technical advisers can not vote, but they are allowed to speak at the request of the delegate to whom they are attached, and with the special authorization of the president of the conference. No conditions are laid down for the choice of the technical advisers of the Government delegates. The Governments are therefore quite free to find a place among their technical advisers for representatives of the cooperative organizations. Now, there is no doubt that observations made at conferences by technical advisers able to speak in the name of the cooperative movement would have a peculiar weight with the delegates of the Governments and of the employers' and workers' organizations.

But the wish expressed by the International Cooperative Alliance, so far as it seeks to secure for the cooperative organizations a direct representation, and for their delegates a deliberative voice, can not be satisfied without a modification of the Treaty of Peace.

I need not insist on all the delicate questions which might be raised by any proposition for the modification of the fundamental constitution of the Permanent Labor Organization, but the problem of cooperative representation deserves to be studied, and it will no doubt be possible to determine in what concrete form, likely to receive general support, the wish of the Cooperative Alliance might be entertained by the governing body of the International Labor Office.

Cooperative Bank Established in Finland.¹

ON OCTOBER 5, the Svenska Finlands Andelsbank (Cooperative Bank of Swedish Finland) was established in Helsingfors. The new bank is founded on the cooperative plan and will promote agricultural industries in the Swedish-speaking parts of the country. The par value of a share will be 100 Finnish marks and the bank will commence its work as soon as subscriptions have been received for 20,000 shares.

Cooperation in Navigation in Italy.²

A NEW field of cooperative activity was entered, in Italy, with the organization in 1918 of the Cooperativa Garibaldi, a society whose purpose is to make all ships the property of the men who sail them. Only members of the Italian Federation of Sea Workers may hold stock in the company and then only to the amount of 5,000 lire (\$965, par). The stock is paid for in monthly installments of from 45 to 60 lire (\$8.69 to \$11.58, par), according to the rank of the seaman.

The company began by buying five steamers from the Italian Government in May, 1920. The fleet now includes seven ships, sailing from the home port of Genoa.

Cargoes are carried at current rates and the profits so made will eventually be used to repurchase the outstanding stock, on which interest from the time of investment will then be paid to the shareholders. When all the stock has been thus called in, the ships will become the property of the Italian Federation of Sea Workers and all of the earnings will revert to the general treasury.

¹ Data furnished by United States Consul at Helsingfors, Oct. 8, 1920, and published in Commerce Reports, Washington, for Nov. 22, 1920.

² Seamen's Journal, San Francisco, issues of Oct. 20 and 27, 1920.

AGREEMENTS.

Agreement Affecting Employees of Haverhill (Mass.) Shoe Manufacturers Association.

ON NOVEMBER 12, 1920, an agreement was signed by representatives of the Haverhill, Mass., Shoe Manufacturers Association and of the Shoe Workers Protective Union, affecting 57 firms and corporations manufacturing shoes, and a force of workers numbering approximately 8,300. Briefly, the agreement furnishes a means for preventing strikes and lockouts and provides that all differences which can not be adjusted between the business agent of the union and the secretary of the association shall be referred to an adjustment committee. It is also provided that only members of the union shall be employed, if available; otherwise nonunion help may be employed temporarily, until union help can be furnished. The text of the agreement is as follows:

Working Agreement.

Agreement entered into this 12th day of November, 1920, by and between the Shoe Workers Protective Union, Haverhill, Mass., party of the first part, hereinafter called the employees, and the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association, of Haverhill, Mass., parties of the second part, hereinafter called the employers, consisting of the following firms and corporations manufacturing shoes, to wit:

[Here follows a list of 57 firms and corporations.]

and all others who may hereafter become members of the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association.

WITNESSETH:

ARTICLE 1. During the term of this agreement there shall be no lockout on the part of the employer nor shall the employer force the employees to cease work in any department covered by this agreement unless it is shown there is no work to be done in said department in said factory, and there shall be no strike on the part of the employees in the factory of the employer in said Haverhill, Mass.

ART. 2. Any difference arising between the parties hereto or any of them during the term of this agreement which is not mutually adjusted between the business agent of the local union of said Shoe Workers Protective Union directly concerned and the secretary of the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association, or representatives of said employer when differences may arise shall be referred to an Adjustment Committee and said grievance shall be decided in no other way. Said Adjustment Committee shall be composed of three members of the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association, and three members of the Shoe Workers Protective Union, one of whom shall be appointed by the Joint Shoe Council and who shall be the permanent member of the Adjustment Board for a term of three months, the remaining two members to be appointed by the local involved. Neither business agents of the local union of the Shoe Workers Protective Union nor secretaries of the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association, shall serve on such committee. The party requesting that a difference be referred to said Adjustment Committee shall give written notice of said request, said notice to be given to the secretary of the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association. The Adjustment Committee shall hear the parties within ten days after such request has been presented and in all cases heard by said Board of Adjustment said Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association shall furnish materials or shoes to show how the operation is performed and shall render a decision ten days after hearing it. In case of the failure of the Adjustment Committee to agree said committee shall select a seventh

party whose decision shall be binding to both parties. Pertinent evidence may be obtained from any locality. Any settlement made by said Adjustment Committee shall date from the time aforesaid written notice of difference was presented. In case of failure of Adjustment Committee to agree the difference shall be referred to a local Board of Arbitration. The aforesaid Board to be composed of three members, one chosen by the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association, one chosen by the Shoe Workers Protective Union, the two members so chosen to choose a third member, and the three parties so chosen shall sit with the Adjustment Board. A majority vote of this Joint Board shall settle the question and both parties to this agreement mutually agree that they shall abide by the same. Any settlement made by said Adjustment Board or decision by the Joint Board shall date from the time the aforesaid written notice of the difference was presented.

ART. 3. This agreement shall cover all departments of the factory.

ART. 4. It is mutually agreed that none but members of the Shoe Workers Protective Union in good standing shall be employed to do the operations in the above named departments. If no union operator can be obtained, the union shall be notified before a nonunion operator is hired. All persons employed to do the work as above shall be put to work immediately, and they shall report to the local headquarters at the end of the half day on which they were so employed and the Shoe Workers Protective Union agrees to issue a temporary permit. Where a nonunion person has been employed, said temporary permit to be good only until a competent union operator can be furnished. If it is claimed that the employer violated the above agreement regarding employing help and the matter is not rectified after three days written notice has been given, it shall be adjusted under Clause 2 of this agreement and same shall be adjusted within three days.

ART. 5. The business agent and collector of each local union of the Shoe Workers Protective Union shall have access to the departments of the factory in which the work under the jurisdiction of such local is done for the purpose of performing such official duties as business agent or collector may require is done [sic] in said department. In case of difference the Adjustment Committee shall have access to such department to investigate such difference with or without the business agent of the local involved.

ART. 6. It is further agreed that if the employer decides to introduce new work or change any manner or form or process of manufacturing shoes from the manner and form in which the work is being done during the life of this agreement, immediate notice shall be given to the proper agents of the local unions affiliated with the Shoe Workers Protective Union before any change takes place. In case of a difference arising over a price to be paid for new work, namely, work of a kind not heretofore done, or by process not heretofore used, pending the consideration and adjustment or arbitration of such difference the work shall be performed at the piece price then paid for work nearest similar thereto, the difference between this and the price finally determined for such new work to be paid or refunded, as the case may be, dating from the time the new work was introduced. During the pendency or adjustment of any difference, or at any other time, nothing shall be done by said employees to hinder, impede, retard, or prevent production.

ART. 7. It is agreed by both parties that a committee on prices shall be appointed with representatives in equal numbers from the Shoe Workers Protective Union, and the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association, to study the situation, classifying the various factories into grades and establishing prices in those grades. When the report of said committee is accepted, prices and grades so determined upon, shall become operative at once in all the factories which are a party to this agreement and prices shall be retroactive to the expiration of the last price list in operation. Pending the report and final acceptance of this new schedule of prices by the above committee the prices last paid in each individual factory shall be continued.

ART. 8. The discharge of any employee considered a just grievance by the Shoe Workers Protective Union shall be considered a difference within the meaning of this agreement and the matter shall be referred to the Adjustment Board as provided for in clause 2 of this agreement. In case such employee is restored to his or her position, he or she shall be compensated for lost time because of such wrongful discharge in an amount fixed by the Board of Adjustment.

ART. 9. The employer shall have the benefit of this agreement only while he is a member of the Haverhill Shoe Manufacturers Association and upon his ceasing to be a member this agreement shall thereupon automatically terminate.

ART. 10. All shop rules and working conditions now in force to continue and become a part of this agreement subject to change from time to time, at the request of either party in writing to the Adjustment Board as provided by the above board.

ART. 11. Except as defined in paragraph 9 this agreement shall remain in force until December 31, 1922. Should either party desire to alter, amend or annul this

agreement it shall be given written notice thereof to the other party three months before the expiration of the agreement, and if the parties fail to give notice, the agreement shall continue in force another year, and so on from year to year until such notice is given. It is further agreed that the question of prices to be in effect on and after May 1, 1921, shall be opened February 1, 1921, and completed April 1, 1921.

ART. 12. It is further mutually agreed that any manufacturer who is a party to this agreement will not have any shoes which are in a partially finished condition brought into his factory or factories in Haverhill, Mass., from a factory where they have a strike, or have any work whatever done on shoes that were partially made in another factory where a strike existed. It is further agreed that in the event of a shortage of help that work can be sent elsewhere to be done with the consent of the Shoe Workers Protective Union or work can be brought into Haverhill to be done under the same conditions.

ART. 13. It is hereby agreed and declared by and between the parties hereto that no action or legal proceedings shall be commenced or prosecuted by any of the parties hereto at law or in equity against the other of them touching any of the matters, causes, or things whatsoever set forth herein until the matter, cause, or thing has by written notice been brought to the attention of the other party, and thereafter a hearing held within three days by the Board of Adjustment, and a period of at least ten days expires from the date of said hearing before said Board of Adjustment unless the said ten days allowed for said award is extended in writing.

In witness whereof: Said parties of the first part and said party of the second part hereto set their hands this day and year as above written.

Labor Agreement in the Trawling Branch of the Fishing Industry.¹

A JOINT conference council to handle questions affecting the relations of employers and employees in the trawling branch of the fishing industry has been provided by an agreement recently negotiated between representatives of the Fishermen's Union of the Atlantic, and the Gorton-Pew Fisheries Co. of Gloucester, the Bay State Fishing Co. of Boston, and the Frank C. Pearce Co. of Gloucester. The agreement covers a period of three years. The council is to deal with matters of policy primarily, but it will also endeavor to settle all questions which can not be satisfactorily adjusted by lower agencies. This will be done so far as possible by candid discussions without resort to arbitration. The settlement of particular questions relating to wages, working conditions, etc., is left to special negotiations from time to time as occasion may warrant. It is announced that a similar agreement will be brought about if possible covering the vessels in the schooner branch of the fishing industry of the north Atlantic. The preamble of the agreement is as follows:

We recognize that the interests of workers and employers and of the consuming public are at many points fundamentally identical in the fishing industry. It is our earnest desire at all times to promote this community of interest, and to establish the control of labor relations in our industry on the permanent basis of cooperation and mutual understanding, with peaceful negotiations and sympathetic appeal to mutual adjustment of any difficulties that may arise, as the methods of dealing with each other.

¹Data taken from New York Evening Post for Nov. 29, 1920, p. 7.

Agreement.

THE agreement sets forth these general principles to govern the labor policy for the industry:

(1) All parties in the industry shall continuously strive to promote and maintain just and harmonious relations between employers and workers, based upon the principles of equity and sympathetic investigation of fact, recognizing that the prime essential in the cooperative control of labor relations by workers and employers is not the particular form of administration that may be set up, but the attitude of all parties concerned toward each other and toward any plan that may be adopted.

(2) The industry recognizes the propriety and necessity of its workers receiving a reasonable living wage as a minimum, which wage shall be sufficient to provide for the necessities of life as well as for progressive standards of living; and it further recognizes that a proper relation between a guaranteed minimum amount of remuneration and a reasonable opportunity for earnings above that minimum should be maintained.

(3) It is recognized that in all wage adjustments, after proper provision has been made for the principle of the minimum wage as set forth above, due recognition shall be given to the economic conditions of the industry.

(4) Barring factors inherent in the nature of the industry and other uncontrollable conditions, continuity of employment and reasonable quality and degree of production consistent with full safeguards for the health and well-being of the workers and the general welfare of the industry, are essential.

(5) Uniform and comprehensive methods of investigation and record on labor relations and related factors throughout the industry are prerequisite to any sound basis of fact for determining proper conditions throughout the industry.

(6) All matters requiring adjustment, shall be settled through regularly established channels of candid discussion and peaceful negotiation and adjustment, without resort to lockouts, strikes, boycotts, blacklist, or other such methods.

(7) All matters requiring adjustment shall be settled, in so far as possible, at their source, without the exercise of appeal except as a last resort.

(8) Due recognition shall be given in all questions to the protection of local interests. These principles governing our labor policy are frankly predicated upon the right of both employers and workers to organize as they may wish in any lawful associations without discrimination, to bargain collectively when they desire, and to be represented by representatives of their own choosing in negotiations and adjustments with respect to terms and conditions of employment and work in the industry.

Provision is made for choosing, if occasion should demand, a board of final review which is to be employed only as a last resort to settle questions in dispute.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

Employment in Selected Industries in November, 1920.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in November, 1920, from representative establishments in 13 manufacturing industries and in bituminous coal mining. Comparing the figures of November, 1920, with those of identical establishments for November, 1919, it appears that in 4 industries there was an increase in the number of persons employed, while in 10 there was a decrease. The largest increase, 130.3 per cent, is shown in coal mining, while the smallest increase, 4.4 per cent, is shown in paper making. Decreases of 39.4 per cent and 31.3 per cent appear in woolen, and boots and shoes. Cigars show a decrease of 0.8 per cent.

Six of the 14 industries show an increase in the total amount of the pay roll in November, 1920, as compared with November, 1919, and 8 show a decrease. The most important percentage increase, 348.5, appears in coal mining. The next largest increases are 56.2 per cent in iron and steel and 39.4 per cent in car building and repairing. Cotton manufacturing shows an increase of 1.7 per cent. Respective decreases of 37 per cent, 36.8 per cent, and 33.7 per cent appear in men's ready-made clothing, automobiles, and the woolen industry.

The large increases reported in the coal mining industry in November, 1920, as compared with a year ago are due to the recovery from a period of strikes in November, 1919.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN NOVEMBER, 1919 AND 1920.

Industry.	Estab-lish-ments reporting for No-ven-ber, both years.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll.			Amount of pay roll.		
			No-ven-ber, 1919.	No-ven-ber, 1920.	Per cent of in-crease (+) or de-crease (-).	Novem-ber, 1919.	November, 1920.	Per cent of in-crease (+) or de-crease (-).
Iron and steel.....	108	½ month.	134,404	179,544	+ 33.6	\$9,091,664	\$14,197,947	+ 56.2
Automobile manufacturing.	44	1 week.	135,828	96,264	- 29.1	4,387,196	2,771,456	- 36.8
Car building and repairing..	49	½ month.	56,838	69,656	+ 22.6	3,636,903	5,071,455	+ 39.4
Cotton manufacturing.....	55	1 week.	45,499	43,393	- 4.6	783,433	796,382	+ 1.7
Cotton finishing.....	15	..do....	12,197	9,226	- 24.4	260,196	199,803	- 23.2
Hosiery and underwear.....	51	..do....	29,088	20,398	- 29.9	504,329	351,331	- 30.3
Woolen.....	52	..do....	48,254	29,226	- 39.4	1,029,403	682,769	- 33.7
Silk.....	46	2 weeks.	19,954	17,015	- 14.7	867,152	701,539	- 19.1
Men's ready-made clothing..	40	1 week.	29,964	20,683	- 31.0	903,873	569,836	- 37.0
Leather manufacturing.....	32	..do....	17,603	12,173	- 30.8	424,844	315,315	- 25.8
Boots and shoes.....	76	..do....	61,783	42,472	- 31.3	1,409,721	943,288	- 33.1
Paper making.....	53	..do....	30,474	31,810	+ 4.4	733,899	936,540	+ 27.6
Cigar manufacturing.....	52	..do....	17,096	16,953	- .8	351,720	362,301	+ 3.0
Coal mining (bituminous)..	65	½ month.	8,338	19,200	+130.3	374,258	1,678,610	+348.5

Comparative data for November, 1920, and October, 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 November as compared with October and in 11 a decrease. The increases in the number of persons employed are 3.6 per cent in coal mining, 3.1 per cent in cigars, and 1.5 per cent in car building and repairing. Decreases of 17 per cent, 12.5 per cent, and 12.1 per cent appear in men's ready-made clothing, woolen, and hosiery and underwear, respectively.

In comparing November with October, 1 industry shows an increase in the amount of money paid to employees, while 13 show a decrease. The one increase is 2.6 per cent in cigars. The largest decreases are 31.2 per cent in automobiles and 23.5 per cent in men's ready-made clothing. Coal mining shows a decrease of 0.3 per cent.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER, 1920.

Industry.	Estab-lish-ments report-ing for October and Novem-ber.	Period of pay roll.	Number on pay roll.			Amount of pay roll.		
			Octo-ber, 1920.	Novem-ber, 1920.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	October, 1920.	November, 1920.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Iron and steel.....	100	½ month.	188,007	181,923	- 3.2	\$15,155,772	\$14,448,545	- 4.7
Automobile manufacturing.....	44	1 week.	108,893	96,721	-11.2	4,057,482	2,790,011	-31.2
Car building and repairing.....	47	½ month.	59,635	60,530	+ 1.5	4,464,122	4,383,007	- 1.8
Cotton manufacturing.....	50	1 week.	37,246	35,454	- 4.8	709,089	655,455	- 7.4
Cotton finishing.....	15	..do.	9,482	9,226	- 2.7	216,949	199,803	- 7.9
Hosiery and underwear.....	55	..do.	23,402	20,561	-12.1	430,533	347,002	-19.4
Woolen.....	51	..do.	32,943	28,829	-12.5	735,582	672,782	- 8.5
Silk.....	43	2 weeks.	16,850	16,264	- 3.5	771,340	671,881	-12.9
Men's ready-made clothing.....	43	1 week.	24,258	20,144	-17.0	726,267	555,337	-23.5
Leather manufacturing.....	32	..do.	13,198	12,206	- 7.5	348,794	315,905	- 9.4
Boots and shoes.....	73	..do.	43,943	41,565	- 5.4	949,954	923,271	- 2.9
Paper making.....	54	..do.	33,622	32,668	- 2.8	1,019,545	966,495	- 5.2
Cigar manufacturing.....	49	..do.	15,636	16,125	+ 3.1	337,348	346,066	+ 2.6
Coal mining (bituminous).....	83	½ month.	22,708	23,527	+ 3.6	2,047,644	2,041,371	- .3

In addition to the data presented in these two tables as to the number of employees on the pay roll, 89 plants in the iron and steel industry reported 137,332 employees as actually working on the last full day of the pay-roll period reported for November, 1920, as against 105,185 for the reported pay-roll period in November, 1919, an increase of 30.6 per cent. Figures given by 91 establishments in the iron and steel industry show that 145,361 employees were actually working on the last full day of the pay period reported for in November, 1920, as against 152,470 for the period in October, 1920, a decrease of 4.7 per cent.

Changes in Wage Rates.

DURING the period October 15 to November 15, 1920, establishments in 10 of the 14 industries reported changes in wage rates. In most of these industries, decreases in wage rates were reported due to general lack of orders.

Iron and steel.—In four establishments an increase of $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent was granted, affecting 60.6 per cent of the employees in the first establishment, 50 per cent in the second, 33.3 per cent in the third and 25 per cent in the fourth. An increase of 7 per cent was given to 36 per cent of the men in one plant; while another plant gave a 6 per cent increase to one-half of the force. One-third of the force in one mill and one-tenth of the force in another mill received increases of approximately $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Four concerns reported a wage rate increase of 4 per cent, affecting 65 per cent of the men in one concern, 50 per cent in two concerns, and 40 per cent in the fourth concern. Thirty-nine per cent of the employees in one plant were granted wage rate increases; the puddle mill tonnage men receiving a 5 per cent increase and the finishing mill tonnage men an increase of $2\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Automobiles.—An increase of 9 per cent was granted by one establishment to 2 per cent of the men. Twelve per cent of the force in one plant received a decrease of 15 per cent while 66 per cent of the force in another plant received a decrease of 6.4 per cent. In one concern a decrease of 5 per cent affected 10 per cent of the employees.

Car building and repairing.—Three per cent of the employees in one plant received an increase of 8 per cent, while 2 per cent of the employees in another plant received an increase of 6 per cent. In one shop, 29 per cent of the force received a decrease of 8.1 per cent.

Cotton manufacturing.—All employees in one establishment were granted an increase of 10 per cent. Approximately the entire force in five plants received a decrease of 20 per cent. Two mills reported respective decreases of 15 per cent and 10 per cent, affecting all employees. A 2 per cent dividend which had been in effect for some months was discontinued by one concern.

Hosiery and underwear.—About 80 per cent of the men in one establishment received a decrease of approximately 25 per cent. One plant reported decreases ranging from 15 to 30 per cent, which affected 95 per cent of the force, while another plant reduced one-half of the force 15 per cent.

Woolen.—All employees in one mill received a decrease of 15 per cent.

Silk.—In one mill the weavers were increased from 85 cents to $87\frac{1}{2}$ cents and from 90 to 95 cents per hour. The entire force of one establishment received a decrease of 15 per cent, while 70 per cent of the force in another establishment received a decrease of 10 per cent.

Leather.—One tannery reported a 15 per cent decrease, but the percentage of men affected was not stated. Another plant granted a bonus for full-time service.

Boots and shoes.—One factory granted a 7.3 per cent increase to approximately 5 per cent of the force.

Bituminous coal.—All day men in one mine were granted an increase of \$1.50 per day. One-third of the force in another mine received an increase of 11 per cent.

An Industrial Employment Survey of the United States.¹

THE successful adjustment of labor supply and demand will often involve the migration of workers from one State to another.

"The Federal Government is the only means by which can be secured sufficient uniformity of method and interchange of information as to accomplish the desired results." Acutely realizing this fact the United States Department of Labor began early in December, 1920, the organization of an industrial employment survey of the United States.

For the purpose of this survey, the United States is divided into nine (9) districts, in accordance with the United States Census, embracing at the present time 65 cities of leading industrial importance from which pay-roll data are secured, and 231 cities from which industrial employment information is obtained.

A district director is in charge of each district. In industrial centers, special agents secure actual pay-roll data. The totals of the information secured will be telegraphed, in code, to the administrative offices in Washington, where the reports will be analyzed and interpretations and tabulations made. The district director transmits to the administrative offices, general and specific facts regarding the employment situation in his district.

It is planned that not later than four days after the receipt of the biweekly field reports in Washington, D. C., the statistical results of the survey will be published, on the 5th and 20th of each month, in the press and periodicals and in a bulletin to be distributed to individual employers, trade, commercial, and labor associations. This service is to be strictly neutral, inaugurated for the purpose of regularly collecting and distributing current information regarding general and specific industrial employment conditions, the distribution of labor, and the fluctuations in employment throughout the country.

Activities of Illinois Free Employment Offices for November, 1920.

THE following statement records the activities of the Illinois free employment offices for the month of November, 1920. The offices are located at Aurora, Bloomington, Chicago, Danville, Decatur, East St. Louis, Joliet, Peoria, Rockford, Rock Island, and Springfield. Of the total number registered, namely 18,609, more than 61 per cent were reported placed in positions, and of the total number referred to positions approximately 85 per cent were placed. For each 100 places offered about 128 were registered in November. Of the total number registered 4,900 were females, and of the number placed 3,486 were females.

¹ Data furnished by the United States Employment Service.

REGISTRATIONS AND PLACEMENTS BY ILLINOIS FREE EMPLOYMENT OFFICES
FOR THE MONTH OF NOVEMBER, 1920, BY INDUSTRY GROUP.

Industry group.	Number of registrations.	Help wanted.	Number referred to positions.	Number reported placed.	Number of persons registered for each 100 places open.
Agriculture.....	1,755	1,769	1,450	1,265	99.2
Boys.....	726	354	410	268	205.0
Building and construction.....	1,162	690	575	398	168.4
Clerical.....	1,184	583	736	384	203.0
Clothing, textiles.....	9	2	2	1	(1)
Domestic and personal service, hotel and restaurant.....	2,111	2,092	1,689	1,245	100.9
Food, beverages, tobacco.....	4	14	3	1	(1)
Factory work.....	408	282	260	233	144.6
Leather workers.....	3	1	1	1	(1)
Metals and machinery.....	1,723	730	698	494	236.0
Printing trades.....	14	3	2	1	(1)
Professional technical.....	27	9	8	2	(1)
Transportation and public utilities.....	212	101	65	50	209.9
Wholesale and retail trade.....	239	82	92	80	(1)
Woodworking and furniture.....	169	44	42	33	(1)
Miscellaneous.....	1,261	598	611	470	210.8
Common labor.....	3,856	3,527	3,277	3,105	109.3
Casual workers.....	3,744	3,658	3,558	3,420	102.3
Total.....	18,609	14,540	13,479	11,456	127.9

¹ Not computed, since there were less than 100 persons asked for by employers.

Employment and Unemployment in Certain Foreign Countries.

Canada.

THE Labor Gazette, Ottawa, for November gives (pp. 1522-1530) a statement regarding the unemployment situation in the Dominion as reported by 1,468 labor unions, with a total membership of 189,253, and also as reported by employers. The figures in the first instance go back as far as December, 1915; those returned by employers give unemployment conditions by weeks from September 18 to October 23, 1920. The trade-union returns show a percentage of 3.25 in September, 1920, as compared with 4 per cent in August, 1920, and with 2.19 per cent in September, 1919. The lowest percentage of unemployment was in June, 1918, when it was 0.50 per cent. The percentage of unemployment in trade-unions by industries in September, 1920, compared with September, 1919, and with August, 1919, is shown in the following table. Unfortunately it is not possible to give the pay-roll period, the number on the pay roll, or the amount of the pay roll in each industry, which information would make the table more nearly comparable with that for the United States as given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1920 (pp. 155-156).

UNEMPLOYMENT IN SELECTED INDUSTRIES IN CANADA AS REPORTED BY LABOR UNIONS, IN SEPTEMBER, 1919 AND 1920, AND AUGUST, 1920.

Industry.	Per cent of unemployment in—		
	Sep-tember, 1919.	Sep-tember, 1920.	Aug-ust, 1920.
Building and construction.....	2.91	2.04	2.99
Clothing.....	.05	38.96	22.40
Fishing.....	0	1.00	.20
Food, tobacco, and liquors.....	.80	2.02	1.49
Glass-bottle blowing.....	1.18	15.57	17.36
Jewelry working.....	0	6.02	3.00
Leather, boots, shoes, and rubbers.....	.15	16.27	43.56
Manufacturing and mechanical.....	2.57	8.80	7.74
Metals, machinery, and conveyances.....	4.60	5.30	1.74
Mining, quarrying, and refining of ores.....	1.11	.06	.24
Navigation.....	8.62	2.82	16.80
Oil refining.....	0	6.52	5.38
Printing, publishing, and paper goods.....	1.71	1.68	1.37
Public employment.....	.11	.02	.12
Pulp, paper, and fiber.....	.30	1.20	.04
Steam railroads.....	.99	.77	.53
Street and electric railroads.....	.13	.20	.03
Teaming and driving.....	.36	.78	.09
Textile, carpets, and cordage.....	1.08	.02	.08
Transportation.....	2.06	.98	2.78
Woodworking and furniture.....	.13	2.18	.35
Miscellaneous.....	2.07	1.86	1.49
All industries.....	2.19	3.25	4.00

The reports from employers cover the six weeks' period September 18 to October 23 and give the increase or decrease in number of persons unemployed and the percentage for each week:

- Week ending September 18, an increase of 3,385 persons, or 0.4 per cent.
- Week ending September 25, an increase of 1,373 persons, or 0.2 per cent.
- Week ending October 2, a decrease of 2,936 persons, or 0.4 per cent.
- Week ending October 9, a decrease of 81 persons, or 0.01 per cent.
- Week ending October 16, an increase of 175 persons, or 0.02 per cent.
- Week ending October 23, a decrease of 7,354 persons, or 1 per cent.

The most decided decrease in employment reported during the six weeks occurred in lumbering and its products, where 5,975 persons were released mostly on account of completion of the season's operations in sawmills. A chart is included in this portion of the report showing the percentage change in the number of persons on pay rolls during the 10 months of 1920 as reported weekly by employers making reports, said to number about 5,200. As already indicated, the number employed steadily decreased during the latter four weeks of the six weeks' period for which figures are given, so that there was a net increase in the volume of employment at October 23 of 6.1 per cent over the number on the pay rolls as reported by employers on January 17, 1920. Employers' figures are not given by industry, so that comparison can not be made with the preceding table.

British Guiana.¹

FARM labor in common with other labor continues very scarce. The birth rate in this colony exceeds the death rate. At various times in the past immigration from India has supplied the

¹ Data from the United States consul at Georgetown under date of Oct. 1, 1920.

deficiency to a certain degree, but this is not now permitted by the Indian Government and negotiations looking toward its resumption are at a standstill. On the other hand some 1,500 Indian laborers who had completed their term of indenture were repatriated during September. A few laborers are being brought here from Barbados and apportioned to the plantations, but in insignificant numbers. There is a small but steady stream of emigration from this colony to the United States, which would be larger if the cost of passage were less and transportation available.

The quantity of the labor here is poor and wages are low compared with those paid similar labor in the United States. Ordinary laborers receive from 75 cents to \$1.25 per day; stevedores \$2.50; skilled labor from \$2 to \$3.

The carpenters' union announced during the month that their wages would hereafter be \$3 for eight hours' work and this demand has substantially been met. Bakers have refused to work on Sunday, so there is now no supply of bread on Monday.

Austria (Vienna).²

RECENT statistics compiled by the Unemployment Office (*Arbeitslosenamt*) in Vienna indicate an improvement in the unemployment situation in that city, there being but 13,005 persons out of jobs and dependent upon Government aid, as compared with 19,058 in the preceding July, 43,268 in the preceding March, and 58,717 in December, 1919. The peak of unemployment was reached in May, 1919, when 129,789 were receiving Government support. The following table is compiled from statistics issued by the Vienna Unemployment Office. It shows by class of worker, at four specified dates, the number of unemployed in Vienna receiving Government support.

CLASSIFIED NUMBER OF UNEMPLOYED WORKERS RECEIVING GOVERNMENT AID IN VIENNA AT SPECIFIED DATES.

Class of worker.	Number receiving Government aid on—			
	Dec. 30, 1919.	Mar. 23, 1920.	July 17, 1920.	Oct. 27, 1920.
Metal workers and jewelers.....	8, 105	7, 229	4, 797	4, 142
Functionaries and dentists.....	12, 641	9, 443	2, 141	1, 369
Wage earners, stage employees, and transport employees.....	23, 660	13, 484	3, 479	2, 669
Woodworkers and turners.....	573	370	1, 266	956
Hotel employees.....	4, 583	4, 144	1, 354	997
Bakers.....	2, 593	2, 252	1, 106	599
Tailors.....		34	317	180
Workers in buildings trades.....	2, 931	3, 512	554	98
Workers in textile trades.....	1, 341	794	985	307
Workers in chemical industries.....	56	41	192	200
Shoemakers.....			1, 134	194
Saddlers, leather workers.....	173	154	276	136
Workers in publishing trades.....	864	806	790	846
Barbers.....	430	340	157	91
Skinner, furriers.....	15	130	61	3
Pork butchers.....	274	253	100	35
Hatters and artificial flower makers.....	247	76	344	182
Lawyers' helpers.....	231	206	5	1
Total.....	58, 717	43, 268	19, 058	13, 005

² Data taken from Commerce Reports, Washington, for December 9, 1920, p. 1077.

France.

THE United States consul at Paris in a report dated October 21, 1920, notifies this Government that an investigation made by L'Intransigeant reveals the fact that 30 per cent of the workers in the automobile industry were at that time idle and that unemployment in the clothing industry amounted to 40 per cent of the total number of workers. It is further announced that the minimum percentage of unemployed workers in the boot and shoe industry and the leather industries amounted to 75 per cent. Unemployment appears to be increasing in the jewelry industry and in the so-called book industries. Moreover, hotel and restaurant employees have returned in large numbers from the summer resorts and seem to be having great difficulty in securing work. It is stated that the increased use of machinery in the baking industries has resulted in the cutting down of the number of workers required. A large number of workers in the textile industry are also menaced with unemployment. The wool spinners in the Roubaix-Tourcoing region have decided to reduce the hours of labor from 48 to 40 a week. A large amount of unemployment is likewise indicated in the building industries.

Great Britain.³

THERE are no figures available showing the total number of all persons unemployed in the United Kingdom, but there are certain statistics from which a reliable indication of the trend of unemployment may be gathered. There are something like 4,200,000 persons engaged in various industries throughout the United Kingdom who are at present insured against unemployment under the national insurance acts of 1911 to 1916.⁴ Of these 4,200,000 work-people, 114,771 were drawing unemployment insurance benefits and out-of-work donations on August 1, which number rose to 159,277 on October 1, and one week later to 288,291.

In addition, certain trade-unions, with an aggregate membership of approximately 1,500,000 (consisting principally of skilled laborers), reported on August 1 that 21,144 of their members were out of employment. These unions reported on October 1 that their unemployed members had increased to 36,017; but it should not be overlooked that during this same two-month period their membership had also grown by a few more than 135,000. These figures do not reflect unemployment which is the result of short time or broken time, by which means a large amount of additional unemployment has been brought about, especially in the skilled textile trades.

What the Labor Exchange Registers Show.

Again, all the employment exchanges in various parts of the country keep what is called a "live register" of unemployed persons reporting at these exchanges. The total number of persons so registered has taken a sharp turn upward since August 1, as may be noted

³ Excerpts from article published in Commerce Reports, Washington, for Dec. 1, 1920, pp. 963-966.

⁴ These acts have been extended to cover about 12,000,000 persons automatically as from Nov. 8, and the scale of benefits has been considerably increased all around. MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for September, 1920, pp. 165-169.

below (the last column of the table representing the change that had taken place since the previous report):

NUMBER OF PERSONS ON LABOR EXCHANGE REGISTERS AT SPECIFIED DATES.

Date.	Number of persons on register.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Apr. 30.....	325,915
May 28.....	304,907	-21,008
June 25.....	287,003	-17,904
July 30.....	271,504	-15,499
Aug. 27.....	285,058	+11,554
Sept. 24.....	313,281	+20,223
Oct. 1 (week).....	323,937	+10,656
Oct. 8 (week).....	338,242	+14,305

It is causing much concern to the Government that there were included in the above figure of 338,242 persons registered as of October 8, 186,709 ex-service men, and it is recognized that even this figure does not include all demobilized ex-service men who are still unemployed. Besides, on October 8 there were 5,853 officers and 5,816 other men of similar educational qualifications registered as being out of work with the Appointments Department of the Ministry of Labor.

Effect of the Coal Strike on Unemployment.

Since the beginning of the coal strike,⁵ on October 18, there has been a very rapid expansion in the number of persons thrown out of work. About 1,100,000 miners became idle immediately upon the outbreak of the strike; only sufficient men were left in the pits to keep the pumps at work in order to prevent the flooding of the mines. As far as other industries directly affected by the closing of the mines are concerned, the figures available, while again not all inclusive, are nevertheless sufficiently instructive to indicate the gravity of the situation. As previously stated, the number of persons receiving out-of-work donations and unemployment insurance benefits (among the 4,200,000 persons covered by the national insurance acts) increased by 173,520 during the 10 weeks from August 1 to October 8. From the data that follow may be seen the position among this group of workers at certain dates since the beginning of the strike: Number of persons receiving out-of-work donations and unemployment insurance benefit—on October 19, 338,817; on October 20, 357,563; on October 21, 382,539; on October 26, 444,405. It is estimated that about one-half this last total represents ex-service men drawing out-of-work donations, two-thirds of the remainder being men and the other third women who are drawing unemployment insurance benefits.

Before the end of the second week of the strike reports had reached the Ministry of Labor concerning more than 540,000 workers who had been either discharged or placed on short time directly on account of the coal strike. In the table below is given a separate account, at various dates during the past two weeks, of the number of persons discharged through the closing of factories, of those dismissed through reduction of staffs, and of those placed on short-time working:

⁵ For an account of the settlement of this strike, see MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for December, 1920.

NUMBER OF PERSONS UNEMPLOYED OR PLACED ON SHORT TIME AS A RESULT OF THE COAL STRIKE.

Group.	Oct. 13.	Oct. 21.	Oct. 26.	Oct. 28.
Persons discharged owing to the strike of miners:				
Through the closing of factories.....	19,415	50,803	81,955	84,215
Through reduction of staffs.....	47,361	102,062	128,443	129,123
Total discharged.....	66,776	152,865	210,398	213,338
Persons placed on short time.....	3,785	89,366	250,868	328,068

As regards the distribution of these workers among different industries, it may be of interest to note that in the case of the figures for October 21—the fourth day of the strike—of the 50,803 persons discharged through the closing of factories 28,535 were engaged in the iron and steel industries, 6,295 in the engineering and shipbuilding trades, 8,473 in textile mills, and 7,500 in miscellaneous other lines of activity. Of the workpeople discharged through reductions in staffs to that date, numbering 102,062, 67,056 were in the iron and steel industries, 22,141 in engineering and shipbuilding, 2,515 in textile trades, and 10,350 in other industries.

Relief Efforts by the Government.

The Government appointed a cabinet committee last August especially to review the whole unemployment situation. This committee sat during the months of August and September concurrently with the cabinet committee on housing. Negotiations have been conducted with the building trades with the object of securing the admission of adult apprentices up to the age of 26 into their unions, in order to provide work for unemployed ex-service men and at the same time secure for the community an appreciable number of the 500,000 houses which it is estimated the country now needs.

Further proposals of the Government designed to alleviate the unemployment situation have to do with road making and road improvement by anticipating the four years' program of the ministry of transport for building new arterial roads and for road improvement. These have met with the cabinet's approval, and efforts have been made to commence work in this direction at once.

Japan.

AN EXCERPT from the Japan Times and Mail for October 16, 1920, furnished by the United States consul at Yokohama, makes the following comment on the unemployment situation among seamen:

In view of the increased number of unemployed and discharged seamen throughout Japan, a plan is to be adopted by the 48 seamens' unions to establish a Seamen's Union Federation.

Since the trouble which occurred recently at Kobe, when the Kobe International Steamship Co. discharged 130 seamen of the *New York Maru*, and the *Washington Maru*, and later 1,200 more from 15 other vessels, replacing them by Chinese, the seamen have felt uneasy, though the trouble was settled by the mediation of Yuaikai members. Some of the members of the Kobe Pier Steamship Co. were also replaced recently by Chinese, so that trouble has again taken place.

It is reported that there are at present 3,000 unemployed seamen at Kobe and about 1,000 at Yokohama.

Report of Employment Exchanges in the United Kingdom.

AS REPORTED by the British Labor Gazette for November, 1920, the operations of the employment exchanges for the five weeks ending October 8, 1920, are summarized as follows:

The average daily number of applications from workpeople, of vacancies notified, and of vacancies filled during the five weeks was 13,088, 3,537, and 2,585, respectively.

Compared with the previous month, the daily average of registrations showed an increase of 7.6 per cent, while the daily average of vacancies notified and vacancies filled showed respective decreases of 6.3 per cent and 8.1 per cent.

The average daily number of applications from adults was 10,337—7,126 men and 3,211 women. There were 2,771 average daily vacancies reported—1,347 men and 1,424 women. The average number of positions filled, when compared with the previous month, showed a decline of 9.2 per cent among men, while the average for women showed a slight increase.

The occupational groups in which there were the largest number of positions filled by men were: Building and works of construction with 25.1 per cent; engineering and iron founding with 15.1 per cent; and general laborers with 17.4 per cent. Of the vacancies filled by women, 71.5 per cent were in domestic service.

As regards juveniles, 27,116 applications were received from boys, 11,457 vacancies were notified, and 9,705—or 84.7 per cent—were filled. The number of applications received from girls was 29,604, and the number of vacancies notified for girls, 11,531. Of the vacancies notified, 9,375—or 81.3 per cent—were filled.

Of the total vacancies filled for juveniles, 21.5 per cent were filled by applicants, who thus obtained their first situation since leaving school.

The following table shows, for men and women, the number of applications from workpeople, vacancies notified, and vacancies filled during the five weeks ending October 8, 1920.

APPLICATIONS FROM WORKPEOPLE, VACANCIES NOTIFIED, AND VACANCIES FILLED DURING FIVE WEEKS ENDING OCT. 8, 1920.

Group of trades. ¹	Application from workpeople.		Vacancies notified.		Vacancies filled.	
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Building.....	25,041	9,032	6,026
Construction of works.....	2,671	2,246	1,980
Engineering and iron founding.....	52,536	3,771	5,998	499	4,838	383
Shipbuilding.....	16,849	2,360	2,158
Construction of vehicles.....	1,614	350	194
Miscellaneous metal trades.....	5,494	2,198	915	395	748	315
Domestic service.....	4,572	45,305	1,360	32,623	932	18,955
Commercial and clerical.....	7,263	6,369	1,942	1,262	1,596	921
Conveyance of men, goods, and messages.....	21,857	1,401	2,549	651	2,010	614
Agriculture.....	4,012	1,478	2,498	1,439	1,859	1,011
Textiles.....	6,846	5,375	455	1,268	356	1,019
Dress (including boots and shoes).....	5,057	9,479	346	1,347	262	945
Food, tobacco, drink, and lodging.....	1,965	2,177	278	754	194	621
General laborers.....	40,169	9,271	6,009	310	5,548	278
All other trades.....	17,727	9,522	4,077	2,165	3,252	1,442
Total.....	213,773	96,346	40,415	42,713	31,953	26,504

¹Casual occupations (dock laborers and coal laborers) are excluded from this table and from all other figures above. The number of casual jobs found for workpeople in these occupations during the period was 3,784.

Volume of Employment in the United Kingdom in October, 1920.

THE following figures as to the condition of employment in Great Britain and Ireland in October, 1920, as compared with September, 1920, and October, 1919, have been compiled from figures appearing in the British Labor Gazette for November, 1920. Similar information for July was published in the October LABOR REVIEW.

In comparing October, 1920, with September, 1920, relative to the number of employees, respective increases of 3.3, 2.9, and 2.3 per cent are shown in the cement, bookbinding and printing trades. The largest decreases, 33.9 per cent and 19.8 per cent, appear under the head of iron and steel works and seamen.

The aggregate earnings of employees in October, 1920, as compared with September, 1920, show increases in only two industries, 9.9 per cent in the cement trade and 2.7 per cent in the printing trade. The jute, cotton, and pottery trades show respective decreases of 29.7, 25.4, and 23.1 per cent.

In October, 1920, as compared with October, 1919, as to the number of persons employed, the cement trade shows an increase of 32 per cent; the bookbinding trade an increase of 14.3 per cent; and the paper trade an increase of 13.8 per cent. The largest decrease, 21 per cent, appears in iron and steel works.

Comparing October, 1920, with October, 1919, on the question of earnings of employees, increases of 83.7 per cent, 38 per cent and 32.8 per cent appear in the cement, carpet, and paper trades, respectively. The tailoring trade shows a decrease of 28.3 per cent and the lace trade a decrease of 13.3 per cent.

*
VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND) IN OCTOBER, 1920, AS COMPARED WITH SEPTEMBER, 1920, AND OCTOBER, 1919.

[Compiled from figures in the Labor Gazette, London, November, 1920.]

Industry and basis of comparison.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in Oct., 1920, as compared with—		Industry and basis of comparison.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) in Oct., 1920, as compared with—	
	Sept., 1920.	Oct., 1919.		Sept., 1920.	Oct., 1919.
Coal mining:			Other clothing trades:		
Average number of days worked.....	(1)	(1)	Dressmaking and millinery—Number of employees.....	- 0.3	+ 1.6
Number of employees.....	(1)	(1)	Wholesale mantle, costume, blouses, etc.—Number of employees—		
Iron mining:			London.....	- 5.7	-14.9
Average number of days worked.....	(1)	(1)	Manchester.....	- 3.4	- 2.5
Number of employees.....	(1)	(1)	Glasgow.....	- 6.1	- 7.1
Quarrying:			Corset trade—Number of employees.....	- 3.2	+ 8.7
Average number of days worked.....	- 0.2	+ 0.1	Woodworking and furnishing:		
Number of employees.....	- 1.2	+10.6	Number of employees ²	- 7	- 1.6
Pig iron: Number of furnaces in blast.....	-77.8	-74.6	Number of employees.....	-15.8	- 1.9
Iron and steel works:			Earnings of employees.....	-13.5	+20.1
Number of employees.....	-33.9	-21.0	Cement trade:		
Number of shifts worked.....	-36.7	-24.4	Number of employees.....	+ 3.3	+32.0
Tin plate, steel, and galvanized sheet trades: Number of mills in operation.....	-18.6	-10.1	Earnings of employees.....	+ 9.9	+83.7
Cotton trade:			Paper, printing, and bookbinding trades:		
Number of employees.....	- 6.4	+ .2	Paper trades—		
Earnings of employees.....	-25.4	- 4.0	Number of employees reported by trade-unions ²	(3)	(3)
Woolen trade:			Number of employees reported by employers.....	- 1.4	+13.8
Number of employees.....	- 1.7	+ 1.2	Earnings of employees reported by employers.....	- 5.2	+32.8
Earnings of employees.....	-13.4	+ 7.1	Printing trades—		
Worsted trade:			Number of employees reported by trade-unions ²	- 1.2	- 1.3
Number of employees.....	- 1.0	+ 3.0	Number of employees reported by employers.....	+ 2.3	+ 8.9
Earnings of employees.....	-13.3	+ 8.1	Earnings of employees reported by employers.....	+ 2.7	+27.6
Hosiery trade:			Bookbinding trades—		
Number of employees.....	- 4.0	+ .7	Number of employees reported by trade-unions ²	- .3	+ .9
Earnings of employees.....	-13.5	+ 7.2	Number of employees reported by employers.....	+ 2.9	+14.3
Jute trade:			Earnings of employees reported by employers.....	- 2.8	+29.9
Number of employees.....	- 1.0	+ 1.6	Pottery trades:		
Earnings of employees.....	-29.7	-12.4	Number of employees.....	-17.6	- 8.5
Linen trade:			Earnings of employees.....	-23.1	+ 3.1
Number of employees.....	- 4.1	- 8.8	Glass trades:		
Earnings of employees.....	- 9.1	+ 5.2	Number of employees.....	- 8.5	+ 3.4
Silk trade:			Earnings of employees.....	- 7.0	+24.4
Number of employees.....	- 1.9	+ .5	Food-preparation trades:		
Earnings of employees.....	-12.6	+16.2	Number of employees.....	- 1.4	-10.1
Carpet trade:			Earnings of employees.....	- 3.2	+ 1.9
Number of employees.....	+ .1	+12.9	Dock and riverside labor: Number of employees.....	+ .8	-10.5
Earnings of employees.....	- 3.1	+33.0	Seamen: Number of employees...	-19.8	- 6.0
Lace trade:					
Number of employees.....	- 7.8	- 5.9			
Earnings of employees.....	-15.4	-13.3			
Bleaching, printing, dyeing, and finishing:					
Number of employees.....	- 3.1	+ 3.3			
Earnings of employees.....	-12.0	+ 9.2			
Boot and shoe trade:					
Number of employees.....	- 2.7	- 7.0			
Earnings of employees.....	-10.0	-11.0			
Leather trades: Number of employees ²	- .9	- 7.2			
Tailoring trade:					
Number of employees.....	- 5.0	-16.3			
Earnings of employees.....	-17.8	-23.3			
Shirt and collar trade:					
Number of employees.....	+ .3	+ 1.4			
Earnings of employees.....	- 7.5	+ 5.5			

¹No figures available due to strike of coal miners.

²Based on unemployment.

³No report.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

The New Position of Women in American Industry.¹

A RECENT report by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor on the new position of women in American industry gives the results of an inquiry financed by the War Work Council of the Young Women's Christian Association, begun during the war and carried down to August, 1919. The inquiry was undertaken to secure definite facts with regard to the increase during the war in the number of women in industry, the kinds of work in which they were employed, and their success or failure in new lines of work. The report is based partly on field work, partly on questionnaires filled out by employers and organization leaders, and partly on data contained in the records of the Government war agencies. The inquiry was confined to industrial occupations, ignoring conditions in mercantile, clerical, and professional pursuits.

It was impossible to make such a complete survey as would show the increase during the war in the number of women industrially employed, but there were many indications that it was large.

The 2,124 iron and steel firms included in this survey employed over three-fourths as many women after the first draft and nearly a third again as many women after the second draft as were reported for the entire 17,862 firms included in the 1914 Census of Manufactures. Plants engaged in the manufacture of airplanes and airplane parts numbered but 16 and employed but one woman among their 211 wage earners, according to the Census of 1914. On the other hand, 40 plants which were included in this survey and which were engaged exclusively in making planes or parts employed after the second draft 6,108 women in a total of 26,470 wage earners. * * * Again, 1,352 plants, representing lumber and its remanufactures in this survey, employed nearly seven-tenths as many women after the second draft as were reported by the entire 42,016 plants included in the Census of Manufactures for 1914.

The increase in the number of women employed was coincident with a marked change in the relative position of leading industries with respect to the use made of women. Before the war the textile and garment making industries, together with the preparation of food products and tobacco, were the leading industries in the employment of women. Among the plants covered by this survey there was during the war an actual falling off in the number of women employed in the textile and textile products industries, and in the tobacco occupations, while the number employed in iron and steel industries and in the manufacture and remanufacture of lumber nearly doubled. The following table, compiled from a number given in the report, shows for the leading war industries the change, from the first to the second draft, in the actual number of women employed, and in the proportion they formed of the total working force.

¹ U. S. Department of Labor. Women's Bureau. Bulletin of the Women's Bureau, No. 12: The new position of women in American industry. Washington, 1920.

INCREASE IN NUMBER AND PROPORTION OF WOMEN EMPLOYED IN PLANTS REPORTING ON THIS POINT.

Industry.	Number of plants reporting after both first and second drafts.	Total labor force.		Number of women employed.		Number of women per 1,000 wage earners.	
		After first draft. ¹	After second draft. ²	After first draft. ¹	After second draft. ²	After first draft. ¹	After second draft. ²
Iron and steel.....	2,124	394,256	429,377	23,948	40,588	61	95
Metal products other than iron and steel.....	896	132,844	129,768	19,783	23,150	149	178
Manufacture and remanufacture of lumber.....	1,352	154,496	142,278	7,184	13,325	46	94
Chemicals and allied products.....	733	91,882	93,025	8,986	13,230	98	142
Leather and leather products.....	810	114,107	107,634	35,022	35,513	307	330
Stone, clay, and glass products.....	322	38,680	33,467	4,441	5,197	115	155
Textiles and textile products.....	3,306	411,349	372,072	225,874	206,565	549	555
Food products, beverages and allied products.....	1,572	164,114	174,838	34,593	41,695	211	238
Tobacco and tobacco products.....	378	40,348	34,879	22,858	20,245	566	580
Paper and paper goods.....	551	60,778	59,622	13,361	14,028	220	235
Printing, publishing, and engraving.....	705	49,502	46,618	12,225	12,727	247	273
Other war industries.....	1,827	277,209	297,679	47,178	54,368	170	183
Total.....	14,576	1,929,565	1,921,257	455,453	480,631	236	250

¹ "After first draft" indicates a period 7 to 8 months after the first draft in February-March, 1918.

² "After second draft" indicates a period 4 to 5 months after the second draft in October-November, 1918.

The drift of women away from the traditional occupations is here plainly shown. During this period when the number of women industrially employed was rapidly increasing, the number engaged in the preparation of food and similar products increased by only a little over 7,000, the tobacco trades showed a falling off of something over 2,000, and the number employed in textiles and textile products decreased by 19,309. On the other hand, the number employed in the chemical industries increased by over 4,000, in lumber and its remanufactures by more than 6,000, and in iron and steel by over 16,000.

The shift to the new industries was important, inasmuch as it relieved the overcrowding which had existed in the traditional industries for women. But neither this nor the increase in their numbers is so important, according to the report, as the change in the character of the work to which they were now admitted.

The emergency created by the shortage of labor cleared the woman worker's way in certain important industries to the "master machines" and brought to her hand the "key" occupations that control entrance to desirable positions in many industries. It gave her a chance to be tried out as a responsible member of the forces of constructive skill. In the iron and steel and other metal industries, for instance, it opened to her the machine shop and the tool rooms and introduced her—though in limited numbers—into the steel works and rolling mills * * *. In certain other industries, too, pressed hard by the shortage of labor and the demands of the war, women were given a trial in occupations requiring judgment, precision, and decision.

How successfully women handled these new kinds of work is a matter discussed at some length in the report. The following table gives the opinions of the employers who responded to the inquiry on this point:

EXTENT AND SUCCESS OF SUBSTITUTION OF WOMEN FOR MEN DURING AND AFTER THE WAR EITHER THROUGH DIRECT REPLACEMENT OR THROUGH EXPANSION IN 592 MANUFACTURING ESTABLISHMENTS, BY OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS.

Occupational group.	Firms—		Total women substituted. ¹	Firms reporting women's work—				
	Substituting women for men.	Reporting number of women substituted.		As satisfactory or better than men's.		Not so satisfactory as men's.		Not comparable.
				Number.	Per cent.	Number.	Per cent.	
Metal working.....	278	267	37,683	212	82.8	44	17.2	22
Chemical working.....	58	50	6,935	32	66.7	16	33.3	10
Rubber working.....	11	10	4,959	9	100.0	2
Woodworking.....	152	145	2,545	91	68.4	42	31.6	19
Textile making.....	16	13	1,589	12	80.0	3	20.0	1
Leather working.....	20	18	1,545	17	85.0	3	15.0
Electrical working.....	22	21	897	18	90.0	2	10.0	2
Abrasive material and glass working.....	14	12	730	9	75.0	3	25.0	2
Miscellaneous work on airplanes, seaplanes, ships, and musical instruments.....	15	14	1,834	8	80.0	2	20.0	5
Total.....	² 562	² 533	58,717	³ 386	77.4	⁴ 113	22.6	63

¹ Includes women employed only in the 533 firms which reported the number of women substituted as well as the fact of substitution.

² 17 firms substituting women in metal-working occupations also substituted women on chemical, electrical, wood, textile, or abrasive material and glass-working occupations; these did not report the numbers employed on either substance. Seven firms substituting women in woodworking occupations also substituted women on textile and miscellaneous work.

³ 22 firms substituting women on two materials reported their work to be satisfactory in each group.

⁴ 2 firms substituting women on two materials reported their work to be unsatisfactory in each group.

It will be seen that women were particularly successful in their new occupations in the rubber, electrical, leather, and metal working trades. Generally speaking, employers all commented on the fact that women were unprepared for skilled work, and that in order to substitute them for men successfully, it was essential to provide definite training. For the most part, this was given in the shops, by means of a vestibule school. In some cases employers expected to train the women at their machine, but in general this was not found so satisfactory as the preliminary training.

Another general comment of employers dealt with the inferior physical strength of women. This, which was at first considered an unmixed disadvantage, afterwards proved to have modifying features. Where the work, as at a lathe, involved lifting the piece to be turned into place, the amount which a woman might handle was limited by law, the permissible weight varying in the different States from 15 to 45 pounds. Where the pieces exceeded the legal limit of weight, the employment of women necessitated putting in mechanical devices for lifting and handling them, an expense which was not necessary in the case of men. Soon, however, it was found that the women were turning out considerably more work than men on the same job, and when, by way of experiment, men were given the same mechanical devices, their output, too, shot up. Here the mere fact that a man's strength was considered equal to the task of lifting the pieces without mechanical help had kept the management from discovering the efficiency of employing machinery rather than human muscle.

In general it was found that where the work was very rough or dirty, women did not succeed so well at it. Lumbering, for instance, and saw mill work and crane operating were cited as kinds of

work for which women usually were unfitted. In regard to this last mentioned occupation, it was a rather curious fact that while women ordinarily disliked the conditions of the work, when one was found who did not share this objection, she was apt to prove singularly successful.

When an efficient woman was secured who could do the work and liked it, she seems to have made an exceptionally fine crane operator. She is reported to be a better judge of distance, to be quicker, to be more careful of the lives of the workers beneath her and to meet with fewer accidents. At the Watertown arsenal the men in the forge shop requested that the women crane operators be retained. Two of the seven firms covered which reported on their 1919 labor force retained their crane women. As a whole, however, this did not prove to be an occupation especially well adapted to women.

The survey extended only to August, 1919, so that it does not contain data showing conclusively whether or not women will retain their places in the new occupations opened to them by the war. At that date, however, the prospect of their doing this was considered hopeful. The following table shows the relative retention of men and women in war industries:

MEN AND WOMEN EMPLOYED IN 1,012 FIRMS IN FOUR LEADING WAR AGENT AND IMPLEMENT INDUSTRIES AT THE TIME OF THE ARMISTICE AND NINE MONTHS LATER.

Industry.	Number of firms.	Wage earners employed in—					
		November, 1918.		August, 1919.			
		Men.	Women.	Men.		Women.	
				Number.	Per cent of pre-armistice force.	Number.	Per cent of pre-armistice force.
Iron and steel and their products.....	355	244,853	40,916	142,212	58.1	14,123	34.5
Metal and metal products other than iron and steel.....	202	62,132	16,177	52,891	85.1	12,622	78.0
Lumber and its remanufactures.....	259	32,185	3,227	36,619	113.7	2,671	82.8
Chemicals and allied products.....	186	89,881	14,553	32,104	35.7	2,967	20.4
Total.....	1,012	429,051	74,873	263,826	61.5	32,383	43.3

The two groups which show the greatest reduction in the number of men and women alike are the iron and steel and the chemical industries. In both of these the largest plants had been engaged on war-time orders, which ceased at once when the armistice was signed, and in both, because of the war-time rush to get out their orders, numbers of women had been engaged on part time. Married women especially, who did not wish to leave their homes for the whole day, had been brought in for short shifts. Naturally, when the rush stopped, these were dismissed, full-time workers being retained in preference. "These part-time workers account in large measure, according to the statement of the employers, for the difference in the relative number of men and women remaining after the signing of the armistice." Other industries, in which the part-time workers were not so common, show a much larger percentage of women re-

tained in August, 1919. Taking the group as a whole, it is regarded as a striking fact that nine months after the cessation of hostilities, nearly 45 per cent of the women were retained as compared with a little over 60 per cent of the men.

The findings of the survey are summed up as follows:

First. The popular belief that women in industry rendered real service to the Nation during the war is sustained by the figures showing the numbers of women employed both in war agent and implement industries and in war food and fabric industries, by the preponderance of evidence from employers holding important Government contracts, and by the official statement of the Assistant Secretary of War, acting as director of munitions.

Second. The labor shortage and excessive demands on industries essential to the production of implements and agents of warfare resulted during the war in—

(a) A sharp increase in the number of woman workers in these industries during the war.

(b) A marked decrease in the number of women in the traditional woman-employing industries, resulting in a relief of the long-standing congestion of woman labor in these pursuits and in part contributing to a marked increase in the wage scales of the women remaining in these industries.

(c) The employment of woman labor in other skilled crafts from which women had been practically debarred before the war.

Third. When the managers of private, Government, and Government-controlled plants were confronted with the necessity of employing women in skill-exacting positions there were practically no trained women available, because—

(a) Public and private vocational institutions had given little encouragement to the training of women in mechanical occupations.

(b) Organized labor policies in fact—although not always in official regulations—discouraged apprentice work for women in skilled occupations.

Fourth. The training of women employed in skilled occupations during the war was provided principally by the employing firms.

Fifth. The success attending the emergency employment of women in occupations requiring a high degree of skill and the expansion of commercial trade has resulted in the retention of women in most of these crafts and industries since the close of the war, and bids fair to encourage a larger use of woman labor in the future.

Recent Survey of Woman Workers in Fort Worth, Tex.¹

IN A recent survey by the woman's division of the Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics about one-half of the woman wage earners in Fort Worth, Tex., were interviewed, most of the principal industrial, commercial, and mercantile establishments being included in the investigation. The survey covered workers in mercantile establishments, telegraph and telephone operators, office employees, including bookkeepers, clerks, stenographers, etc., packing house employees, laundry workers, garment workers, hotel and restaurant employees, and workers in miscellaneous occupations. It was somewhat surprising to learn that the great majority of these woman workers were 21 years of age or over. This was not the case, however, with telegraph and telephone operators, 341 of them being under 21 years of age and 275 being 21 years or over.

It was found that 59.9 per cent of woman employees were unmarried, 27.7 per cent married, 8.3 per cent widowed, and 4.1 per cent divorced. The largest percentage of unmarried women is found among telephone operators, there being 75.8 per cent unmarried, 18.2 per cent married, 3.1 per cent widowed, and 2.9 per cent divorced.

The largest percentage of married women in any occupation is found among hotel and restaurant employees, the percentages being: Single 32.6 per cent, married 47.5 per cent, widowed 14.9 per cent, and divorced 5 per cent.

¹Source: Mimeographed report made by the woman's division of the Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Laundries furnish the largest percentage of widows, the figures being as follows: Single 31.5 per cent, married 37.9 per cent, widowed 16.9 per cent, and divorced 13.7 per cent. This is also the largest percentage of divorced women found in any occupation.

Of the 3,353 women covered by the study 1,284 were boarding and 2,563 were either living with parents or relatives or were doing light housekeeping. Among those who were living at home 494 paid board.

The average board paid by women in all occupations was \$7.22 per week. The highest average board paid in any occupation was by office employees, which was \$8.55 per week, and the lowest by hotel and restaurant employees, \$5.05.

According to the findings of the survey, 94.8 per cent of the woman and girl wage earners in commerce and industry had not passed the high school course, and 49.8 per cent did not get beyond the eighth grade. A very interesting correlation brought out in the study is that existing between wages and education, the average wage scale being a gradually ascending one according to amount of education, the most striking increase in wages shown, \$3.41 per week, being among those who had some college education. This was an increase of 17.6 per cent above the average wage scale of those who left school after finishing the high school course. The influence of education upon wages was brought out strongly in the case of office employees, none of whom had not completed the third grade and only 11 out of the 573 had less than a seventh grade education.

The increase in salary of those who had completed the high school course over those who had only completed the third grade was found to be \$11.13, or practically 100 per cent, while those who had received some college education were receiving \$12.47, or 110.8 per cent more per week than the third graders.

The garment makers, however, were an exception to the general rule, as the variation in their wages did not seem to depend upon the amount of education.

It is clearly evident that the fact that the wage or salary is largely dependent upon the amount of education would be much more clearly brought out were it not that comparatively few of those receiving a higher education enter commercial or industrial pursuits, by far the larger number of them being either situated so as to make employment unnecessary, or to enable them to enter some of the professions.

The results of the survey strongly suggest the advantages of education to woman workers in the way of increased earnings and productivity, a higher standard of efficiency, and greater social usefulness. The survey furnishes a logical argument for effective and rigidly enforced child labor and compulsory school attendance laws.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

Coal-Mine Fatalities in the United States.

THE United States Bureau of Mines issues monthly statements of the coal-mine fatalities in the United States, the most recent statement of this kind received by this Bureau being that for August, 1920. This statement, which includes reports of mine inspectors from all States except Kentucky, shows a total of 178 fatal accidents in that month, which is a decrease of 20 per cent from the number in August, 1919. Of the total in August, 1920, 140 were in bituminous, and 38 were in anthracite mines. The report also includes a table giving details relating to chief causes of accidents by years, 1916 to 1919, and by months, January to August, 1920. A summary of this table is as follows:

NUMBER OF COAL-MINE ACCIDENTS BY CHIEF CAUSES, FOR EACH YEAR 1916 to 1919, AND BY MONTHS, JANUARY TO JUNE, 1920.

Cause of accident.	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920							
					Jan.	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.	May.	June.	July.	Aug.
<i>Underground.</i>												
Falls of roof.....	962	1,057	1,182	943	71	63	76	71	55	99	77	78
Falls of face or pillar coal.....	103	173	112	154	15	9	8	4	12	15	16	11
Mine cars and locomotives.....	390	488	506	378	32	27	34	33	30	19	32	32
Gas explosions and burning gas.....	170	197	95	143	12	4	7	6	10	28	12	14
Coal dust explosions (including gas and dust combined).....	56	163	34	47	5	4	1	5	2	3	3
Explosives.....	146	110	135	206	13	11	7	13	7	10	9	3
Suffocation from mine gases.....	12	8	15	11	2	1	1	2	3	1	1
Electricity.....	90	79	88	69	11	5	3	3	2	7	7	11
Animals.....	8	9	8	2	1	2
Mining machines.....	20	19	17	26	8	2	3	4	4	3
Mine fires (burned, suffocated, etc.).....	3	2	26	22	1
Other causes.....	67	70	63	70	3	5	2	3	6	3
Total.....	2,027	2,375	2,281	2,071	171	127	147	138	124	192	163	155
<i>Shaft.</i>												
Falling down shaft or slopes.....	31	21	21	20	7	1	1	4	3	2
Objects falling down shafts or slopes.....	2	12	9	6	1	1	6
Cage, skip, or bucket.....	12	22	17	21	1	1	2	6
Other causes.....	4	5	5	6	2	1	2
Total.....	49	60	52	53	9	3	2	2	11	4	2	8
<i>Surface.</i>												
Mine cars and mine locomotives.....	59	74	87	70	5	6	7	4	5	2	2	5
Electricity.....	7	17	15	10	1	2	1	1	2	1	3	2
Machinery.....	22	46	40	22	4	2	2	2	3	1	1
Boiler explosions or bursting steam pipes.....	4	8	7	6	1	1
Railway cars and locomotives.....	16	36	31	21	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	5
Other causes.....	42	80	67	56	4	5	7	3	5	2	12	3
Total.....	150	261	247	185	16	16	19	11	17	7	21	15
Grand total.....	2,226	2,696	2,580	2,309	196	146	168	151	152	203	186	178

Coke-Oven Accidents in the United States in 1919.

A RECENT report (Technical Paper 266) by the United States Bureau of Mines gives details of coke-oven accidents in the United States during the calendar year 1919, together with figures of preceding years as far back as 1914. During 1919, according to this report, the number of men killed was 53 (73 in 1918), while the number injured was 4,031 (7,792 in 1918). The total number of men reported employed in 1919 was 28,741 as compared with 32,389 in 1918. The fatality rate in 1919, based on the number of 300-day workers, was 1.92 per 1,000 men employed; in 1918 it was 2.06. The nonfatal injury rate in 1919 was 145.66 per 1,000 300-day workers as compared with 219.64 in 1918. The report is based upon returns representing 46,902 beehive ovens and 8,545 by-product ovens. The average number of days the ovens were operated was 289, being equivalent to 8,302,059 man days, or about 22 per cent less than in 1918. The following table compiled from the report gives the essential facts relating to coke-oven accidents in the United States during the six-year period 1914 to 1919 inclusive:

COKE-OVEN ACCIDENTS IN THE UNITED STATES, 1914 TO 1919.

Item.	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	
						Number.	Per cent decrease from 1918.
Number employed.....	22,313	31,060	31,603	32,417	32,389	28,741	11.3
Equivalent number of 300-day workers.....	21,241	31,415	34,119	35,595	35,476	27,674	22.0
Days of labor performed.....	6,372,259	9,424,476	10,235,674	10,678,429	10,642,688	8,302,059	22.0
Average days active.....	286	303	324	329	329	289	12.2
Number killed.....	45	38	45	76	73	53	27.4
Number killed per 1,000 300-day workers.....	2.12	1.21	1.32	2.14	2.06	1.92	6.8
Number injured.....	2,189	2,852	5,237	6,713	7,792	4,031	48.3
Number injured per 1,000 300-day workers.....	103.06	90.78	153.49	188.59	219.64	145.66	33.7

By causes, the largest number of nonfatal injuries in 1919 was due to burns (566, or 14 per cent) and the largest number of fatal accidents was due to cars, lorries, and motors (18, or 34 per cent).

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND MEDICINE.

Need for Physical Examination of Employees.

AN ARTICLE appearing in a recent number of *Hospital Management*¹ gives some of the reasons why physical examinations of employees are essential and the methods which may be followed in order to secure the best results from them. There is little doubt that the advantages of a well-organized and well-conducted medical department are now generally conceded, and the writer believes that a thorough physical examination which is repeated periodically is the basis on which such a department must depend for success. It has been generally considered that employees feel an unwillingness or antagonism to physical examinations based largely upon the belief that the examination is used as an excuse for rejecting employees who may be considered undesirable by the management. It is true that the superficial examination at time of employment is open to this criticism, and while it is perhaps better than none it does not form a basis upon which a comprehensive preventive and curative program can be built.

The writer believes that if a thorough examination is given periodically and if its purpose and value are carefully explained to the examinee, not only will antagonism on the part of employees be avoided but they will eventually appreciate and desire examinations. Recent experience with mental analysis has shown the possibilities in regard to intelligence tests and also a very wide field, as yet almost untouched, of determination of motives, desires, inherent stability and balance, a study of which will result in more intelligent placement of employees.

The method of conducting a physical examination which shall be satisfactory to all concerned is outlined by the writer. It starts with the supposition that the applicant has been interviewed, shown the job, trade tested, and examined as to intelligence before being sent to the doctor for examination. The nurse or clerk first takes the preliminary data, together with weight taking and eye and ear testing. The doctor then questions in detail as to previous medical history, after which comes the actual physical examination, which should be as thorough as that of the best insurance companies or even as that of our Army. Any impairment discovered should be explained briefly and sympathetically, and if cause for rejection is found the examinee should be told with as full information as is necessary. In this way the resentment occasioned by an examination conducted in silence, the results of which are returned by the employment department, is avoided. After the examination is finished a blank form calling for information as to hygiene, habits, and general family health is given the employee with the statement that if he wishes a written report of the examination it is necessary to return this blank properly filled out.

¹Examinations of major importance, by W. A. Sawyer, M. C. *Hospital Management*, November, 1920, pp. 57-59.

The further activities of the medical department call for follow-up work with those found to be needing curative measures and for the exercise of preventive care of those who are physically fit. The requisites of a successful medical program in industry are summed up as follows:

- Sympathetic cooperation from the top of the organization.
- Personnel. Staff of adequate proportions and character.
- Equipment. (Necessary to a certain point.)
- Program—Ideals plus daily practice, resulting in consistent growth.
- A—Physical examination—complete and painstaking is of major importance.
- I. Initial or entrance examinations are for the purpose of placing or excluding. To acquaint worker with his physical impairments. This can be made interesting and helpful to the worker. If you get his interest you will have cooperation, which in the end makes for a more efficient and contented worker, which is our goal.
- II. Periodic reexaminations, not only of the rank and file, including special groups, such as food handlers, etc, but the executives of the organization also. Follow up to see that work does not prove hazardous and that advice as to correction is being followed.
- III. Should help to reduce sickness incidence—hence, cut down absenteeism.
- IV. Should promote longevity of service.
- V. Connect up with efforts of public health work in detecting contagious disease, and should be the surest and most effectual way of finding these members of a community suffering from tuberculosis or other prevalent diseases. Greatest opportunity to-day of medical science is through prevention, and physical examination is fundamental in prevention.
- VI. Physical examination leads into all other branches and parts of medical work in industry; diet, recreation, mental hygiene, housing and working conditions, fatigue, and even to the training and raising of children and health of the workers' families.
- VII. Finally, physical examination will often provide a diagnosis and help to fight quacks, charlatans, and other pretenders effectively. It will teach the worker the truth—something he is mightily interested in.

Rest Periods for New York Workers.¹

ACCORDING to the Bureau of Women in Industry of the New York State Industrial Commission, only 21 out of 111 New York firms, which were covered in a recent inquiry, reported definite rest period of 5 to 15 minutes.

Some employers take the position that definite rest periods are not required, as there are times in machine operation when the person who tends the machine has no work to do. Other employers feel that a change from one occupation to another tends to reduce fatigue as much as rest periods. Although a shift in occupation is not always practical, some small establishments with hand work are trying out this policy and a few large firms are taking similar action.

In one of the largest ribbon mills in New York State the blockers who stand at their work and the pinner who sit at their work now interchange jobs for two hours.

In the New York Telephone Co., in addition to the two rest periods each day for the women operators, times are arranged during which the operators push back their chairs and stand at the board. The supervisors who walk behind the operators, and are standing constantly, are given two "half fatigue reliefs" each day when they change places with some of the operators sitting at the board.

For elevator operators, rest periods have been almost universally adopted. In large office buildings, hotels, etc., where the elevators are constantly in use, a relief is planned so that the operator may have a 15 or 20 minute break twice a day.

¹ Source: New York State Industrial Commission. *The Bulletin*, November, 1920, p. 37. Albany.

The bureau of women in industry reports that "the consensus of opinion among employers" is that recess periods are required when occupations are monotonous or in the case of constant postures or those involving great physical strain.

The efficacy of the rest periods depends chiefly upon the change of position and the complete stoppage of work for a certain length of time.

We even find employees themselves among the objectors to rest periods. Pieceworkers, for instance, are opposed to the introduction of these brief recesses because of the fear of not getting as high wages. Some employers meet this opposition by paying for the rest period, and others by showing that as a matter of fact productivity is increased.

Girls in a large New York City candy factory who were given a 15 minutes' rest period twice a day cast a majority vote to have 2½ hours off at the end of their working week instead of these short recesses. In the light of the findings of the British health of munitions workers committee, such an arrangement could not be considered as salutary as the rest periods.

Some employers have introduced brief definite recesses for the purpose of diminishing unregulated cessations of work. A Long Island City factory now gives a morning rest period so that girls may have time for coffee and rolls. Previously these employees might be seen any time in the morning nibbling sandwiches while working at their machines, as the majority of the girls come long distances without any breakfast. Other employers have instituted regular short recesses in the hope of reducing the time lost by the girls because of frequent visits to the rest rooms.

The experience of employers, production managers, time-study experts, etc., tends to prove that all workers require pauses for rest and relaxation through a change of position, and that rest periods are among the first requisites in a fatigue-eliminating campaign.

Dust Hazards in Grinding Shops of an Ax Factory.

A STUDY of the dust hazard in ax grinding, made recently in a large New England factory by the United States Public Health Service,¹ included an investigation of the incidence of tuberculosis among grinders and polishers, which showed that the average tuberculosis death rate in the State for males for the period 1900-1918 was 1.7 per 1,000; for employees other than polishers and grinders in the factory studied the rate was 1.6 and for the polishers and grinders in the factory about ten times higher. This excess death rate occurred in a group of about 90 polishers, 85 wet grinders, and 25 dry grinders, and was considered surprisingly high since the polishing and dry grinding shops had excellent exhaust systems and wet grinding has been considered to be a process relatively free from danger from dust. The relative hazards of grinding and polishing were impossible to determine accurately since it is customary to transfer grinders who fail in health to the polishing shops where they

¹ Dust hazard in grinding shops of an ax factory. By C.-E. A. Winslow and Leonard Greenburg. Public Health Reports, vol. 35, No. 41, Oct. 8, 1920, pp. 2393-2401.

are usually able to work for some time, but it was considered that the greatest danger lay in grinding.

The great amount of stone and steel dust which is thrown off daily is shown in the fact that a stone 70 inches by 12 inches will last about one month when used to grind axes and tools, though one 13 inches wide will last three months when used to grind machetes, and an ax weighing 4 pounds 12 ounces loses 9 ounces of iron and steel in the process of grinding. A man can grind an ax in from 3 to 5 minutes so that with approximately 200 men working, a great amount of iron and steel dust is thrown off daily in addition to the stone dust from the 40 or 50 grindstones which are used up each month.

Samples of air obtained in the dry-grinding shop showed there was an average of 154,500 particles of one-fourth standard unit size (the size recognized as of the most serious sanitary significance) per cubic foot of air, which is well below the only standard which has been set so far, that for polishing shops of an average of 200,000 particles, so that the dry grinding does not seem to present a serious hazard. The samples of air from the wet-grinding shop which were analyzed, however, showed an average number of 15,800,000 particles of dust of the same size, a figure so greatly in excess of the amount which is considered fairly safe that it shows that the enormous incidence of tuberculosis among the grinders and polishers in this factory is due to the hazards in the process of wet grinding.

While the principle of wet grinding is considered a sound one, the fact that the rapidly revolving wet wheels are rotated upward in the face of the operator and that to facilitate rapid work operators are likely to cut down the amount of water supplied to the wheel so that in grinding a heavy object on the soft sandstone the water is pressed back exposing a practically dry surface for the abrasion makes the protection a more fancied than real one. The authors suggest as a remedy the substitution of dry grinding with an efficient exhaust system or possibly wet grinding on artificial abrasive wheels of a harder nature than the sandstone.

Plant Measures for Industrial Fatigue Control.¹

THE causes and control of fatigue have been the subject of recent studies by officers of the United States Public Health Service and others, and it is considered that sufficient progress has been made in determining the causes of industrial overfatigue to justify the introduction of programs for its control, although the extent to which such programs should be left to the initiative of plant managers rather than imposed upon them by governmental or municipal measures is still a debated question.

Fatigue has been defined as "the sum of the results of activities which show themselves in a diminished capacity for doing work," and in case of industrial fatigue responsibility for its elimination necessarily rests upon individual establishments. "Fatigue costs," it is said, "may be expressed in terms of the effect upon health, longevity, safety, labor supply, employment stability, industrial contentment, productive efficiency—i. e., alertness, speed, accurate

¹ From shop standards and fatigue, by Bernard J. Newman. National Safety News, November 29, 1920, p. 7.

work, minimum waste—as well as output and profits.” It has been estimated by a recent writer on this subject that there is a loss because of fatigue of 20 cents per day per year for each employee, which would reach the staggering total loss to the nation, for the 40,000,000 workers of the United States, of approximately two and one-half billion dollars a year. While these figures are estimates, Dr. Newman considers that they are logical and show that the loss is a national one and needs a nation-wide preventive program to combat the condition. He considers that the following measures are essential in a program which will result in humane working conditions and mutual profit to employer and employee. “First, there should be a physical examination of all applicants for employment, in order that their physical capacity may be known by the employment director, this examination to be followed periodically by reexaminations and replacements according to the health of the worker. This physical examination is in addition to the usual training and experience examination. Second, there should be a physical examination of the jobs, to find just what mental and muscular ability is required for maximum efficiency in output. Third, there should be a physical examination of the plant, to discover the working conditions which may injure the health of the worker, increase unnecessary fatigue and reduce output.”

A committee on industrial fatigue was appointed by the Canadian Government last spring to study this problem with a view to bettering conditions both for manufacturers and labor. An article on “Some of the preventable causes of fatigue” is published in *Industrial Canada*, December, 1920 (pp. 80, 81, 98), which is a summing up of the findings of the committee. The causes of fatigue are divided into two classes, circumstantial and personal and individual causes. The circumstantial causes are subdivided into working conditions and home conditions, the working conditions including a great many factors chief of which are hours, speed, concentration, posture, accident and health hazards, light and sanitation, food and wages, while the home conditions cover housing, poverty and amusements.

Practically all of the working conditions, which are the peculiar business and responsibility of employers, are susceptible of improvement and include a determination of the demands of the plant on the physical and nervous strength of the workers which may require an adjustment of the hours of work; of the environment, including ventilation, light, space, extremes of temperature required by particular processes, and even the psychological factors comprehended in the influence of the appearance of a room, its neatness and order and the color of the walls. The physical and nervous strain of the work requires attention to the right amount of speed which may be required without causing undue fatigue; rest periods scientifically apportioned so as to allow for the greatest amount of recuperation; selection of workers who can stand the physical strain of the work when it requires lifting heavy weights, and proper adjustment of chairs and tables so as to secure a natural, comfortable, and unstrained position. Noise and vibration and liability to accidents all impose a nervous strain often greater than is realized even by the workers, while monotony, which is one of the most fruitful causes of fatigue, is unavoidable, but may be lessened in some cases at least by alternation

of work. The general maintenance of health requires good food, proper sanitary facilities, including good drinking water, and provision of special work clothes where necessary, while the payment of a living wage and the adaptation of the worker to his job are regarded as fundamentals in a program for the prevention of fatigue.

Detection and Elimination of Industrial Fatigue.¹

WHILE the extensive introduction of the basic eight-hour day into industry is recognized by Dr. Hayhurst as having laid the foundation for greater control of industrial fatigue, still he states it has not by any means removed the fatigue hazard from industry, as the shorter workday applies to a comparatively small proportion of the total number employed, and among them are many who are employed for four hours at a time under a strain or at repetitive and highly monotonous tasks. The writer believes that there are two factors—intrinsic and extrinsic—governing industrial fatigue. The intrinsic factors which are the chief ones in causing fatigue are those pertaining to the individual and include different conditions relating to health and to the experience and skill of the worker, while the extrinsic factors have to do with external conditions such as long hours, night and overtime work, lack of rest, and bad working conditions of many kinds, all of which are easily controllable. As the intrinsic factors are largely matters of education and medical supervision, the writer sees no reason why the total control of fatigue is not possible eventually with a corresponding growth of productivity.

Although it is extremely difficult if not impossible to measure the extent or degree of fatigue, the author believes that if a broad view of the possible existence of fatigue in a group of workers is assumed it is possible to reach a solution by the following methods:

1. Adapt the workers to their jobs, not only by physical and past history examinations, which are necessarily important aspects of the problem, but by a careful selection and specification of standards for personal hygiene for the given job, including rest periods, best work methods, etc. This controls the personal equation.
2. Eliminate those environmental factors, so-called "industrial health hazards," which are known or believed to induce fatigue.
3. Make a practical application of all information gained by following up instances of health disturbances. These are to be sought for in resignations, absences, short days and times off, mishaps and slips, decreased morale, and health complaints. A checking up of health complaints requires detective work, and an investigation of all instances of objective and subjective findings and sensations commonly known to be associated with fatigue (whether with other bodily states or not), such as headache, muscle pains, lethargy, anxiety, fatigue facies, postures and attitudes, dyspepsia, depression, decreased initiative, etc.
4. Watch the output not so much from the point of view of quantity as of perfection, since fatigued workers may put out quantity but are less apt to satisfy the demands of quality.

The different degrees of fatigue as shown in the day's, month's, or year's work ranges from "tired looks" at the end of the day to impairment of health, loss of morale, and noticeably poor work for long periods of time, so that the "mass" signs of the day's fatigue in a group of workers he considers may be used as a check upon the results of the measures taken for its elimination.

¹ Points in the detection of industrial fatigue and measures for its possible complete elimination, by Emery R. Hayhurst. Ph.D., M. D., in *The Journal of Industrial Hygiene*, November, 1920, pp. 253-258.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION AND SOCIAL INSURANCE.

Methods of Amending Compensation Laws.

COMPENSATION legislation in the United States, although so nearly accepted throughout its entire area, is still in a developmental stage, and many additions and changes are made from year to year. Amendments made in 1920, when comparatively few legislative sessions were held, are noted in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for October (pp. 185-191); while a more general study of the trend of legislation is presented in the issue of November (pp. 1-19). The methods in use in the different jurisdictions to secure desirable amendments vary. With legislative terms of two years and biennial sessions, continuing committees can hardly have charge of subjects from session to session. This, of course, is not the universal rule, but is quite common. It is the purpose of the present article merely to note a few illustrative plans among the various methods adopted in the different States.

Illinois.

FOR some years past the Industrial Commission of Illinois has asked the State Federation of Labor and the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, representing, respectively, the employees and employers of the State, to select a committee to draft proposed amendments to the compensation act. This provides for a general preliminary discussion and an agreement for action, after which both groups interested are ready to cooperate to secure results. The amendments proposed by this committee in 1917 were adopted without change; in 1919 a trifling change was made, and the same plan is being carried out in regard to amendments to be considered at the legislative session of 1921. The chairman of the commission reports the plan as having worked successfully, and "we believe that we have accomplished more in this way than could be accomplished in any other."

Kansas.

A RESOLUTION was presented to the legislature of 1919 authorizing the appointment of a commission to revise throughout the compensation act of this State. This failed of passage, but Gov. Allen, on his own initiative, appointed a special commission to draft a compensation act to be presented at the legislative session beginning January 11, 1921. This commission consists of two senators, three representatives, two representative employers, the president of the State Federation of Labor, and the State commissioner of labor and industries. The law has not been satisfactory by reason of the restriction to so-called hazardous employments, its failure to require insurance, and its lack of an administrative head. The pur-

pose of appointing the commission was to secure a law of broader scope, providing increased benefits, requiring the insurance of all risks, and arranging for a responsible board of administration. It is reported that a vigorous effort will be made by the Federation of Labor to secure the enactment of a law providing for an exclusive State fund.

Massachusetts.

UNDER the constitution of Massachusetts any citizen of the State may file a petition with the legislature for action on any subject presented, and the legislature is directed to act upon this petition. This implies the appointment of committees, the holding of hearings, and reports to both branches of the legislature. Of course, the action may be a rejection of the subject matter, or its modification, as well as its adoption in the form presented. As a result of this provision there are annually presented to the legislature some 50 or 60 proposed changes to the compensation act, some filed by individuals and others by organizations such as the American Federation of Labor, etc. The industrial accident board, here as in other States where such agencies exist, makes suggestions from time to time as to new legislation. In the main, however, the recommendations of the board have been on the administrative side of the law rather than on the substantive, though this rule is not absolute. The board also furnishes information to committees holding hearings on the various petitions that have been filed, so that its ideas are valuable as an aid to the commission. The liberality of this method and the number of suggestions thus far submitted have rendered any other procedure unnecessary.

Oregon.

QUITE similar to the method in use in Illinois is that more recently adopted in Oregon, though here the appointment of the committee was made by the governor. The first step in this direction was taken in preparation for a special session of the legislature in January, 1920, which was called for the purpose of increasing benefits under the compensation act. Prior to the convening of this session, the governor appointed a committee consisting of five members representing employers, five representing workmen, and five the general public. The measures as recommended by this committee were adopted at the session of the legislature, and the results were so satisfactory that a like committee was arranged for to consider recommendations to be submitted at the regular session meeting in January, 1921. This committee held its first meeting in July, 1920, and had before it brief outlines recommending a dozen important changes in the law submitted by the State industrial accident commission. This was done to expedite the work, and not at all to exclude suggestions from members and others.

The recommendations by the commission were: (1) A flat increase in compensation benefits; (2) that the State continue its contribution to the accident fund—a provision that has been attacked by each session of the legislature and seems likely to be eliminated unless further recommendation be made by the committee; (3) a provision regulating appeals; (4) more effective provisions for the

collection of delinquent accounts; (5) changes in the lien provisions of the law relative to delinquent contributions; (6) suggestions as to the investment of accident funds; (7) a modification of the provisions as to rehabilitation, so as to give the commission discretion in regard to the amounts required in the various cases; (8) authority of the commission to commute to a lump sum compensation benefits for permanent partial disability for a term not running beyond 24 months; (9) the requirement that delinquent employers be compelled to post notices of their default so that workmen may be informed thereof; (10) recommendations as to experience rating and accident prevention; (11) the hospital contract system, which has been the subject of much complaint; and (12) a provision clarifying the application of the act to injuries occurring outside the State.

At the August meeting of the committee State aid to cover administrative expenses, but nothing for compensation, was recommended. The proposals regarding the finances for the rehabilitation fund were approved; similar action was taken with regard to lump-sum payments where the compensation term does not exceed 24 months.

At the September meeting there were evidences of rather vigorous differences of opinion with regard to the right of the injured workman to choose his own physician and the medical and hospital service generally, the discussion bringing out a declaration by employee representatives that they desired a State insurance system and full State control of the entire medical and hospital service. Two recommendations made were that employees be given a voice in the selection of any contract doctor or hospital service made use of by the employer, and that individual employees, subject to review by the commission, be given the option of choosing another physician. The matter of the cost of service was left to be worked out at another meeting. Three new proposals were submitted at this meeting, one to the effect that revisions of premium rates might be made annually instead of biennially, a second providing a penalty where employers fail to furnish monthly reports of their pay rolls, and the third extending the law to cover minors who have received permits to work or have signed up for lawful employment, claiming to be of lawful age.

At the October meeting final action was taken on the proposal as to State aid, the committee unanimously recommending a contribution equal to the entire cost of administration, excepting vocational rehabilitation and physiotherapy. Similar action was taken on a bill with regard to appeals from the findings of the industrial commission and the one relating to the collection of delinquent accounts. The proposal regarding the posting of notices of default in work places was adopted by a vote of 6 to 5. The three suggestions submitted at the September meeting were acted upon at this time, the first and second favorably, while the third was referred to the commission for an amendment. A new recommendation at this time was to compensate those diseases which arise directly out of the occupation and are beyond doubt traceable thereto. "The recommendations made quite an impression and the commission will seriously consider the practicability of the proposal." Other new proposals submitted at this time were that the salaries of the

commissioners be increased to \$5,000 each; that public employees be automatically brought under the act; that where there is an accrued surplus of \$400,000 in the hands of the commission one month's exemption be granted to all contributors, and that a definite waiting time of 7 days be fixed, benefits dating from the beginning of the incapacity if continuing longer than 30 days—this in substitution for the present provision of no waiting period. Proposals informally submitted by a labor representative, not a member of the committee, were also laid before the committee.

At the meeting in November a member of the legislature, who was an employer representative, declared his opposition to any amendments that would increase the tax burden of the State, whether in the form of rate increases, award increases, expenses, salaries, or extension of the law. The proposal to require employers to furnish reports monthly was adopted, reports to be furnished by the 15th of the month showing the total pay roll for the preceding calendar month. Other subjects considered were held over for amendment or further consideration. The State Federation of Labor embodied its recommendations under 7 heads. The present law is elective, and does not extend to nonhazardous occupations. The federation recommends that the act be compulsory for all public employees, and that any occupation in which one per cent or more are injured in any calendar year shall be considered as hazardous. It also recommends that compensation be increased 50 per cent, but not to exceed two-thirds of the wages received by the injured man at the time of his injury; that all contract hospitals and contract doctors be eliminated; that any waiting period be rejected; that salaries of commissioners be increased to \$4,500; that the present system of State aid to the benefit fund be continued; and that occupational diseases be brought within the provisions of the law.

This rather detailed account of the Oregon procedure discloses what is perhaps a unique method of publicity and continuous consideration. The meetings will continue until at least the meeting of the legislature and probably more frequently than monthly in order to speed up determinations.

States Without Compensation Laws.

IN THIS connection may be noted the existence of a commission in the State of Arkansas, created under house concurrent resolution No. 7 of the legislature of 1919, authorizing the governor to appoint such a commission. At latest accounts, the activities of the investigation have not been made public, but there was a feeling among lawyers of the State that restrictions contained in the State constitution would have to be eliminated before a compensation act can be passed.

The action of the voters in Missouri on November 2, in rejecting the compensation law passed by the legislature of 1919, has necessitated the resumption of the activity of friends of compensation legislation in the State in efforts to formulate a new measure which may be acceptable. The problem appears to be a difficult one in view of the charge made by friends of the act of 1919 that it was killed chiefly through the efforts of damage-suit lawyers who felt their financial

interests jeopardized by the existence of such a law; while on the other hand certain labor organizations based their hostility to the act on the ground that it did not provide a State fund—a provision which would likewise attract the opposition of the insurance companies. Indeed, both the Insurance Federation of America and the Workmen's Compensation Publicity Bureau, of which F. Robertson Jones, of New York, is secretary-treasurer and active head, report among their principal achievements for the year just ending their success in opposing "monopolistic State-managed insurance funds," and the year to come will find the same organizations in the field.

Reports indicate a serious attempt to secure the enactment of a workmen's compensation law in North Carolina at the 1921 session of this legislature. A legislative committee appointed at the last session is expected to have ready for report a measure that, it is hoped, will command the support of both employers and employees. Sessions will also be held in South Carolina and Florida, which are yet without compensation acts, while Mississippi, the only other State that has no such law, will have no regular legislative session until 1922.



State Agencies for Administering Workmen's Compensation and Accident Prevention Laws.

THAT complete and detailed information as to the number and nature of industrial accidents is fundamental to any intelligent concerted action looking to prevention work is conceded by all. That there is no machinery for, nor method of, ascertaining even the number of fatal and nonfatal industrial accidents occurring in the United States in any given period of time is not creditable to the country. The following statement shows the State agencies having authority over the administration of workmen's compensation, accident reporting, and accident prevention laws, and emphasizes the amount of reorganization of State functions necessary to secure such essential data through State machinery. It clearly reveals the conditions as they exist to-day relative to the lack of coordination in the various States along these lines.

ADMINISTRATION OF COMPENSATION ACTS, ACCIDENT REPORTING AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN THE UNITED STATES.

State.	Government agency having authority over—		
	Compensation.	Accident reporting.	Accident prevention.
Alabama.....	Compensation commissioner. ¹	Compensation commissioner.	Chief mine inspector. No provision in compensation law.
Alaska.....	Courts ²	Mine inspector (who is also commissioner of labor).	Mine inspector (who is also ex officio labor commissioner).
Arizona.....	Court system of administration. ²	Mine inspector.....	Mine inspector.
Arkansas.....	No compensation law.....	do.....	Insurance commissioner. Mine inspector. Commissioner of labor.
California.....	Industrial accident commission (compensation department). ³	Industrial accident commission (compensation department). ²	Industrial accident commission (safety department). ³ Bureau of labor statistics.
Colorado.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	Bureau of labor statistics. Inspectors of coal mines. Bureau of mines (metalliferous mines). Industrial commission also jurisdiction by law.
Connecticut.....	Board of compensation commissioners. 5 autonomous districts.	Compensation commissioners.	Department of labor and factory inspection. No provision in compensation law.
Delaware.....	Industrial accident board..	Industrial accident board..	No provision.
Florida.....	No compensation law.....	No provision.....	State labor inspector.
Georgia.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	No provision.
Hawaii.....	Industrial accident boards.	Industrial accident boards.	No provision.
Idaho.....	Industrial accident board..	Industrial accident board..	Industrial accident board. Inspector of mines.
Illinois.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	Department of labor. Mine inspector. No provision in compensation law.
Indiana.....	Industrial board.....	Industrial board.....	Industrial board: Department of mines. Department of boilers. Department of factories, buildings, and workshops. No provision in compensation law.
Iowa.....	Industrial commissioner...	Industrial commissioner...	Bureau of labor statistics. Mine inspectors. No provision in compensation law.
Kansas.....	Courts ²	Department of labor and industry.	Department of labor and industry.
Kentucky.....	Workmen's compensation board.	Workmen's compensation board.	Mine inspectors. Kentucky Employees Insurance Association.
Louisiana.....	Courts ²	Factory inspector.....	Factory inspector.
Maine.....	Industrial accident commission.	Industrial accident commission.	Department of labor and industry. No provision in compensation law.

¹ Director of the department of archives and history is ex-officio compensation commissioner.

² In the court type of law the amount of compensation and other questions at issue are settled directly by the employer or insurer and the injured employee. In cases of dispute the matter may be referred to an arbitration committee, and eventually taken to the courts. In some of these States, however, there exists a certain amount of supervision by one or more State agencies. For example, in Alabama the director of the department of archives and history, who is ex-officio compensation commissioner, shall receive accident reports and settlements, prepare blank forms, and compile statistics on the operation of the act; in Alaska, rejections of the act are filed with the United States commissioner; in Arizona, in case the parties do not agree, reference may be had to the attorney general; in Kansas, disputes are settled by local committees or arbitrators selected either by the parties in interest or by the court; in Minnesota, notices and settlements are filed with the commissioner of labor, who shall advise the employee of his rights and assist in adjusting disputes; in New Hampshire, acceptances and proof of financial solvency are filed with the commissioner of labor; in Rhode Island, acceptances, accident reports, and proof of financial solvency are filed with the commissioner of industrial statistics; in Tennessee the bureau of workshops and factory inspection receives notices of rejection of the act, accident reports, settlements, and releases; while in Wyoming the State treasurer supervises the State fund and county assessors are required to report lists of extra-hazardous employments to the treasurer, who shall compile accident statistics.

³ No subdivision of commission by law, merely administrative.

ADMINISTRATION OF COMPENSATION ACTS, ACCIDENT REPORTING AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN THE UNITED STATES—Continued.

State.	Government agency having authority over—		
	Compensation.	Accident reporting.	Accident prevention.
Maryland.....	Industrial accident commission.	Industrial accident commission.	Board of labor and statistics. Mine inspector. No provision in compensation law.
Massachusetts....	Industrial accident board..	Industrial accident board..	Department of labor and industries. District police.
Michigan.....do.....do.....	Department of labor. No provision in compensation law.
Minnesota.....	Courts ²	Department of labor and industries.	Department of labor and industries. County inspectors of mines. No provision in compensation law.
Mississippi.....	No compensation law.....	No provision.....	No provision.
Missouri.....do.....do.....	Bureau of mines. Department of industrial inspection.
Montana.....	Industrial accident board..	Industrial accident board..	Industrial accident board. Department of labor and industry (mines and boilers only).
Nebraska.....	Commissioner of labor (who is also compensation commissioner).	Commissioner of labor (who is also compensation commissioner).	Department of labor. No provision in compensation law.
Nevada.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	Labor commissioner. Inspectors of mines. No provision in compensation law.
New Hampshire..	Courts ²	Bureau of labor.....	Bureau of labor.
New Jersey.....	Department of labor (workmen's compensation bureau).	Department of labor (workmen's compensation bureau.)	Department of labor.
New Mexico.....	Courts ²	Mine inspector.....	Mine inspector. No provision in compensation law.
New York.....	Industrial commission (bureau of workmen's compensation).	Industrial commission (bureau of workmen's compensation).	Industrial commission (bureau of inspection).
North Carolina..	No compensation law.....	Mine inspector.....	Mine inspector.
North Dakota....	Workmen's compensation bureau.	Workmen's compensation bureau.	Workmen's compensation bureau.
Ohio.....	Industrial commission (workmen's compensation bureau).	Industrial commission (workmen's compensation bureau).	Industrial commission (division of workshops and factories).
Oklahoma.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	Department of labor. Inspectors of mines, oil, and gas. No provision in compensation law.
Oregon.....	Industrial accident commission.	Industrial accident commission.	Industrial accident commission in cooperation with bureau of labor.
Pennsylvania....	Department of labor and industry (bureau of workmen's compensation) workmen's compensation board.	Department of labor and industry (bureau of workmen's compensation).	Department of labor and industry. Department of mines.
Porto Rico.....	Workmen's relief commission.	Workmen's relief commission.	Department of agriculture and labor. No provision in compensation law.

² In the court type of law the amount of compensation and other questions at issue are settled directly by the employer or insurer and the injured employee. In cases of dispute the matter may be referred to an arbitration committee, and eventually taken to the courts. In some of these States, however, there exists a certain amount of supervision by one or more State agencies. For example, in Alabama, the director of the department of archives and history, who is ex-officio compensation commissioner, shall receive accident reports and settlements, prepare blank forms, and compile statistics on the operation of the act; in Alaska, rejections of the act are filed with the United States commissioner; in Arizona, in case the parties do not agree, reference may be had to the attorney general; in Kansas, disputes are settled by local committees or arbitrators selected either by the parties in interest or by the court; in Minnesota, notices and settlements are filed with the commissioner of labor, who shall advise the employee of his rights and assist in adjusting disputes; in New Hampshire, acceptances and proof of financial solvency are filed with the commissioner of labor; in Rhode Island, acceptances, accident reports, and proof of financial solvency are filed with the commissioner of industrial statistics; in Tennessee the bureau of workshops and factory inspection receives notices of rejection of the act, accident reports, settlements, and releases; while in Wyoming the State treasurer supervises the State fund and county assessors are required to report lists of extra-hazardous employments to the treasurer, who shall compile accident statistics.

ADMINISTRATION OF COMPENSATION ACTS, ACCIDENT REPORTING AND ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN THE UNITED STATES—Concluded.

States.	Government agency having authority over—		
	Compensation.	Accident reporting.	Accident prevention.
Rhode Island.....	Courts ²	Bureau of industrial statistics.	Factory inspector.
South Carolina....	No compensation law....	No provision.....	No provision.
South Dakota.....	Industrial commissioner....	Industrial commissioner....	Inspector of mines. No provision in compensation law.
Tennessee.....	Courts ²	Chief mine inspector.....	Chief mine inspector. Department of workshops and factory inspection. No provision in compensation law.
Texas.....	Industrial accident board.	Industrial accident board.	Bureau of labor statistics. Mine inspector. Texas Employers' Insurance Association.
Utah.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.
Vermont.....	Commissioner of industries	Commissioner of industries	Commissioner of industries.
Virginia.....	Industrial commission.....	Industrial commission.....	Bureau of labor and industrial statistics. No provision in compensation law.
Washington.....	Industrial insurance department.	Industrial insurance department.	State safety board. State mining board. No provision in compensation law.
West Virginia....	Compensation commissioner.	Compensation commissioner.	Bureau of labor. Department of mines. Compensation commissioner may require employers to adopt and post safety rules.
Wisconsin.....	Industrial commission (workmen's compensation department).	Industrial commission (workmen's compensation department).	Industrial commission (safety and sanitation department).
Wyoming.....	Workmen's compensation department (under treasurer's office).	District court.....	Inspector of mines.

² In the court type of law the amount of compensation and other questions at issue are settled directly by the employer or insurer and the injured employee. In cases of dispute the matter may be referred to an arbitration committee, and eventually taken to the courts. In some of these States, however, there exists a certain amount of supervision by one or more State agencies. For example, in Alabama, the director of the department of archives and history, who is ex-officio compensation commissioner, shall receive accident reports and settlements, prepare blank forms, and compile statistics on the operation of the act; in Alaska, rejections of the act are filed with the United States commissioner; in Arizona, in case the parties do not agree, reference may be had to the attorney general; in Kansas, disputes are settled by local committees or arbitrators selected either by the parties in interest or by the court; in Minnesota, notices and settlements are filed with the commissioner of labor, who shall advise the employee of his rights and assist in adjusting disputes; in New Hampshire, acceptances and proof of financial solvency are filed with the commissioner of labor; in Rhode Island, acceptances, accident reports, and proof of financial solvency are filed with the commissioner of industrial statistics; in Tennessee the bureau of workshops and factory inspection receives notices of rejection of the act, accident reports, settlements, and releases; while in Wyoming the State treasurer supervises the State fund and county assessors are required to report lists of extra-hazardous employments to the treasurer, who shall compile accident statistics.

Enforcing Insurance Under the New York Workmen's Compensation Law.

IN THE September, 1920, issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW (pp. 150-153) is a brief article entitled "The Crime of Uninsurance Under Workmen's Compensation." That the word "crime" is not used figuratively in that connection is evidenced by the fact that in the article an account is given of the first imposition of a jail sentence for failure of an employer to insure his risks under the compensation law. The beneficial effects of this action are there referred to, but further reports indicate that there is still need of

diligence. Among other recent cases is one in the city of Syracuse where an uninsured employer was found guilty and sentenced to one year in the penitentiary with a fine of \$50. He was put on probation to pay an award amounting to \$900 and the case continued. In Buffalo also an uninsured employer was sentenced to one year in the penitentiary with a \$500 fine. He was put on probation to pay an award amounting to \$6,100.

A case that has received considerable publicity is a New York City case in which an uninsured employer, financially irresponsible, was sentenced to six months in jail after every effort to collect the award had failed. The employee was fatally injured, leaving surviving a widow aged 31 years and three children aged 9, 7, and 1 year, respectively. The amount of the award was \$8,716.37. The family is now dependent upon private charity.

The New York Industrial Commission reports the attitude of courts in cases of this type as very favorable and helpful, as the "publicity that has been given to these sentences has caused thousands of uninsured employers to take out the necessary compensation insurance for the protection of their employees."

Missouri Compensation Law Rejected by Referendum.

THE MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for June, 1919, carries an account of the enactment of a workmen's compensation law for the State of Missouri. Accounts have been received from time to time of the progress of efforts to secure a referendum on the law, and when a sufficient number of names was nominally secured, the question of the legality of the process by which they were obtained was brought into dispute, the case being carried to the higher courts, where it was decided that the petition was in due form, duly signed, and that the referendum must be held. Accordingly, no commission was ever appointed, or other action taken looking toward the carrying out of the provisions of the law, awaiting the result of the referendum, at the election of November 2, the law then being rejected.

Though the State federation of labor declared for the law, certain trade groups joined the damage-suit lawyers in working for its defeat, inserting advertisements in labor papers, and otherwise seeking to align their friends against it. The principal objection urged was the failure of the law to provide a system of exclusive State insurance, one advertisement stating that "There will be no just workmen's compensation law in this State until one is enacted which embodies the plan of exclusive State insurance, which will eliminate insurance companies from cases of personal injury or death in industry." This was said to be in line with the recommendations of the recent convention of the American Federation of Labor, directing that efforts be made to secure the enactment of laws of this type in all jurisdictions in the United States and Canada.

One advertisement further declared that a measure will be introduced at the next session of the legislature containing this and other provisions not found in the act of 1919; as increased medical allowance, more liberal burial expense, right to choose the physician

furnished by the employer, lump-sum settlements in death cases, no waiting period in injury cases, and a benefit equal to two-thirds of the wages.

In the meantime, Missouri stands as by far the most important industrial State now under the discredited rule of the common law liability of employers for injuries to their employees.

Compensation Allowed for Injury Due to Horseplay.

AN IMPORTANT decision by the New York Court of Appeals sets at rest for that jurisdiction the question of the status of a workman injured as a result of sportive conduct on the part of his fellow workmen. There has been much conflict of opinion on the point, and the New York State Commission has long desired an authoritative ruling. It awarded benefits in the case of a claimant who lost the better part of the sight of an eye by being struck by an apple which one boy had in sport thrown at another, and this finding was sustained by the appellate division of the supreme court. The case was appealed, but the Court of Appeals on October 19, 1920, sustained the judgment of the court below, and the award stands (*Leonbruno v. Champlain Silk Mills*, 128 N. E. 711).

The court said that the accident arose in the course of the employment, which no one questioned; further that it arose out of the employment, as "the claimant's presence in a factory in association with other workmen involved exposure to the risk of injury from the careless acts of those about him." He was brought by the conditions of his work "within the zone of special danger" (citing the English case, *Thom v. Sinclair*, 1917, A. C. 127, 142). "Whatever men and boys will do, when gathered together under such surroundings, at all events if it is something reasonably to be expected, was one of the perils of his service. * * * The claimant was injured, not merely while he was in a factory, but because he was in a factory, in touch with the associations and conditions inseparable from factory life. * * * The test of liability under the statute is not the master's dereliction, whether his own or that of his representatives acting within the scope of their authority. The test of liability is the relation of the service to the injury, of the employment to the risk."

Recent Reports of Industrial Accident Commissions.

California.¹

THE report of the California Industrial Accident Commission for the year ending June 30, 1920, shows a substantial decrease in the industrial deaths and permanent injuries during 1919 as compared with 1918. In 1919 there were 586 deaths, as compared with 706 in 1918, while the permanent injuries in 1919 numbered 1,714, as against 2,100 in 1918. In 1919 there were 108,947 industrial

¹ Summary furnished the bureau by the Industrial Accident Commission.

injuries as compared with 104,767 in 1918. The temporary injuries in 1919 numbered 105,952, as against 101,961 in 1918. This reduction in the number of deaths and permanent injuries in the face of the increase in temporary injuries is regarded by the Commission as significant.

A survey of the 586 industrial deaths shows that 146 occurred in operations not coming within the scope of the law, leaving 440 compensable cases. There were 149 deaths in railroad, vessel, and stevedoring operations, 119 in construction and 95 in manufacturing. Agriculture was responsible for 40 deaths, and public utilities for 45. The greatest single cause of deaths was vehicles, 223 deaths resulting from the operation of boats, cars, automobiles, wagons, and other vehicles. There were 31 deaths from electricity, 86 from machinery, and 12 from the explosion of firearms. There were 9 women killed while at work in 1919.

Two hundred and seventy-eight decedents left 656 total dependents, 106 partial dependents were left in 53 fatal cases, in 170 fatal cases there were no dependents, and in 85 fatal cases the facts were unknown. The average age of the widows was 39.3 years, and of dependent children, 9 years.

In 15 cases of serious and permanent injuries life pensions were awarded. There were 13 such cases in 1918. Injuries that caused a time loss of over 7 days numbered 28,974. The remaining temporary injuries did not last longer than the waiting period.

The average age of the killed during 1919 was 34 years and the average wage was \$28.51 a week, as compared with 39.9 years and \$25.01 a week for 1918.

Occupational diseases reported in 1919 numbered 455; in 1918, 445; in 1917, 506; in 1916, 348.

The sum of \$5,621,828 was awarded California's 108,947 injured workers (including the dependents of those killed) during 1919. The sum of \$1,447,242 represents the medical, surgical, and hospital payments. The total of these two sums gives \$7,069,070.

Department of Self-Insurance and Legal Department.

Employers to the number of 221 have applied to the commission for certificates to self-insure. Approximately 204,802 employees are covered this way. Security has been deposited with the State treasurer by the 221 employers to the amount of \$4,275,000.

During the year 1,796 claims were filed with the commission and 1,782 cases were decided; applications for writs of review were filed with the supreme and appellate courts in but 53 cases, or 3 per cent of the cases decided. The courts sustained the commission in 40 cases, reversed the decisions in 12, and 1 case was undecided at the close of the fiscal year.

One of the most important decisions upheld the commission's interpretation of the word "injury" in a case where death resulted from influenza found to have been contracted in the course of employment. Applicant's husband, a hospital steward, had to care for influenza patients, and was held that the work was the proximate cause of his death.

Compensation and Permanent Disability Rating Departments.

During the year 2,190 formal hearings were held and 1,782 applications for compensation acted upon by the commission; supplementary proceedings were brought in 819 cases already decided. The commission acted upon 301 settlement agreements referred for examination and approval. The outstanding item of interest as regards the compensation department is the increase in the number of claims filed found to be without sufficient foundation; 494 applicants were denied compensation, an increase of 69 per cent when compared with the 292 similar claims decided adversely the previous year.

The time required for the determination of the ordinary contested case was 68 days from the filing of the claim. There was an increase in the time for all cases because of the war and the great difficulty in obtaining evidence concerning dependency claims from those residing in Europe. It is noteworthy that out of over 100,000 industrial injuries last year, only 1,782 contested cases resulted between employers (or their insurance carriers) and employees that necessitated formal proceedings and adjudication by the commission.

The main questions involved in the contested cases were extent and duration of disability (493), whether injury was in course of employment (257), whether disability was result of injury (236), hernia (106), dependency (102).

About 2,000 permanent injuries were rated during the year. The commission invites each permanently hurt man to visit either the office in San Francisco or that in Los Angeles, so that a member of its medical staff may examine him to find whether his disabilities are fully set forth on the forms sent in by employers and insurance carriers and their doctors. Quite a number of cases were found to be incompletely reported on the outside medical forms, and the commission's activity in this connection has resulted in considerably more money reaching the injured men than would otherwise be the case. The smaller group of disabled workers unable to visit the two main offices are checked up carefully by means of correspondence.

Rehabilitation Department.

A total of 1,074 men and women needing reeducation because of their serious injuries were in touch with this department during the twelve months. The commission's representative is a young man who lost both his hands in an accident. He is able to do practically everything that can be done by a man with two hands and thus speedily wins the confidence of the crippled. Such men and women are now in schools, business colleges, and technical schools, preparing for the future. Others are learning new occupations, watch making, engraving, mechanical dentistry, and various lines of activity suitable for those prevented from following their former hazardous callings. Several men are attending the State farm at Davis and are learning scientific methods of farming and poultry raising. All the expenses of tuition are paid by the State as the outcome of a law passed by the last session of the California Legislature.

Activities of other Departments.

The status of beneficiaries under the workmen's compensation act left dependent as the result of industrial deaths was ascertained during the year. The Industrial Accident Commission cooperated with the children's department of the State board of control. The limitation of four and one-half years for compensation death benefits means that frequently widows and children will have their income stopped when most needed. The survey covered 997 cases. It was found the standard of living was lower than that maintained during the lifetime of the breadwinner. The deplorable financial condition of some of these families when compensation stops can be imagined, and the commission will propose that new legislation be enacted to properly care for the dependents.

During the fiscal year 3,064 physical examinations of injured employees took place, as compared with 1,509 during the preceding year. All these examinations were made by the commission's doctors. In addition, 662 special medical examinations by outside experts as referees or examiners were reported.

The new methods of medical and surgical treatment and rehabilitation that proved so successful during the war were introduced in California, to the benefit of injured workers. Occupational and physical therapy have been installed. A "placement bureau" is advocated, so that hurt men may have function restored by means of light employment, and the employers and insurance carriers will also benefit by this plan. Convalescent departments in industrial plants will aid human rehabilitation.

A very important part of the commission's activities is to reduce industrial hazards and prevent injuries overtaking employees. Despite a lack of financial resources and a shortage of safety engineers, all that was humanly possible was done during the year. Cooperation with the United States Bureau of Mines and the fire prevention bureau of the Pacific resulted in enlargement of the work. It is the policy to ascertain the cause of each fatality and plan to prevent a recurrence.

State Compensation Insurance Fund.

In the year 1919 the net premium writings for compensation coverage amounted to \$9,739,617.15, of which the State compensation insurance fund wrote \$3,251,974.25, or 33.39 per cent, in competition with about 30 insurance carriers. Starting with an appropriated capital of \$100,000, which is still held intact in the State treasury, the State fund has now reached a position of financial strength and stability which is beyond any competitive criticism. The assets on June 30, 1920, amounted to \$4,584,779.14, dividends to policyholders have reached a total of \$1,737,447.68, and the State fund holds a net surplus of \$1,497,035.11 over and above all liabilities. It is expected the premium writings for the year 1920 will exceed \$4,000,000.

Montana.

THE Fifth Annual Report of the Industrial Accident Board of Montana covers the administration of the compensation law of this State and its activities as a bureau of safety inspection.² More than 200 pages are given to an intimate discussion of the various phases of the law, while its statistical report covers 55 pages. Rules of procedure and reports of inspection of boilers, mines, etc., complete the volume.

Much emphasis is laid in the report upon the moderate cost of administration, the total for the 5 years of the law being \$117,575.78, or if investments as for furniture, etc., the cost of printing and postage be deducted, the actual current administrative expenses for 63 months are \$75,519.12. During the 5 years, 3,358 employers have accepted the provisions of the law of the State, which is an elective one, having more than 74,000 employees, and representing a yearly pay roll of about \$95,000,000. The law provides for three forms of insurance, one self-insurance, adopted by a relatively small number of large employers; the second, insurance in a stock company, and the third, insurance in the State fund. While the second and third forms are used by a majority of the employers in the State, the number of employees affected is less than one-half those under self-insurance.

The following table shows the distribution of employers, employees, accidents, costs, etc.:

EMPLOYERS, ACCIDENTS, AND COSTS UNDER EACH FORM OF INSURANCE, 1915-1920.

Plan.	Employ-ers.	Employ-ees.	Acci-dents.	Deaths.	Compensation paid.	Per cent of pay roll	
						Accident cost.	Premium cost.
Self-insurance.....	65	40,550	20,799	592	\$1,771,382.63	0.8	0.8
Stock companies.....	1,038	14,120	7,510	102	400,363.31	.75	2.5
State fund.....	1,273	20,110	3,026	88	339,838.20	.9	1.25
Total.....	2,376	74,780	31,335	782	2,511,584.14

The report dwells at length on the matter of insurance, taking up the methods in order. During the 5 years of the law's operation, 99 employers elected self-insurance, of which 65 qualified, while 23 were unable to satisfy the board as to their solvency and 9 were denied because not engaged in hazardous occupations as defined by the act. The business of 2 others was not within the jurisdiction of the law, being in a national reserve. Of those operating under the act 18 had been required to furnish security against contingent payments. In no case has there been any failure to promptly meet all compensation payments due under the self-insurance plan. Payments to their employees or dependents of deceased workmen, including burial expenses, have amounted to \$1,676,382.63, to which should be added

² Fifth Annual Report of the Industrial Accident Board for the 12 months ending June 30, 1920, 357 pp., Helena, Mont., 1920.

pending claims amounting to about \$95,000. During the past 12 months the total compensation liability amounted to \$381,666.77, which is \$50,000 less than for the preceding 12 months. As shown by the table above, this indicates an average cost of about four-fifths of 1 per cent of the annual pay roll, which approximates \$45,000,000, or if current data be used, the basis would be a pay roll of \$50,000,000, and the average cost not more than three-fourths of 1 per cent. Had these employers carried insurance in casualty companies at the usual rates the premiums would have amounted to nearly \$2,000,000 for the year; a saving of more than three-fourths was therefore affected.

Casualty company insurance has been the choice of 2,682 employers during the 5 years covered by the act, though 236 of these were rejected because their employment was not hazardous, while 618 withdrew on account of completing their work, and 790 changed their plans of carrying insurance. The report gives premiums for the 5 years as amounting to \$1,248,542.80, while compensation benefits paid or payable amounted to \$400,363.51, or less than \$1 out of every \$3 collected in premiums. "From these figures, which are above dispute, it is evident that insurance companies are enjoying a profitable business in the State, as less than 33 cents out of each dollar collected in premiums has gone to pay compensation, while 67 cents has gone toward the cost of doing business and its profits." A lowering of rates is therefore recommended.

The State insurance fund had at the end of the first 24 months only 718 employers within its provisions. However, there has been steady increase during the succeeding years both in the number of employers originally electing this plan and in those changing from private insurance companies to the State fund. The growth of the State fund is indicated by the fact that during the first year but 453 employers operated under the plan, having 6,520 employees; during the second year the number was 718 with 9,691 employees; for the third year 1,017 employers with 12,060 employees; for the fourth year 1,032 employers with 14,681 employees, and for the fifth year 1,273 employers with 16,938 employees. This last number of employees is taken from the initial papers of the employers, a canvass made just prior to the publication of the report indicates that there are practically 20,000 employees under the plan. Several employers were rejected because not employed in hazardous occupations, to which the act is limited unless by voluntary election of both employers and employees. Some of these came in by such election, but during the 5 years covered by the act only 12 employers with 110 employees have taken advantage of this provision of the law.

The board secured an expert audit of the State insurance fund in April, 1920, by an independent actuary who found that "tested by the strictest actuarial requirements, the fund is unquestionably solvent with assets sufficient to supply an ample contingency reserve over and above all incurred liabilities. The premiums charged, while extremely low, have nevertheless been entirely adequate. The settlement of claims is liberal and equitable and payments are made promptly in accord with the interpretation of the law. The general management of the fund is unusually efficient and at the same time extremely economical. The ratio of expense of administration to

the insurance in force is extraordinarily low, and is, without a doubt, lower than that of any other similar fund."

Adjudications have been made by the board in a large number of disputed cases, though 90 per cent of all compensation claims are adjusted without dispute or contest. Appeals have been taken from the decisions of the board in but 2 cases throughout the entire history of the law, 2 other cases having gone to the higher courts on agreed statements of facts. Such a record covering more than 30,000 cases adjudicated is one of which the board is justly proud.

Another interesting record is found in the fact that under plan 3 (the State insurance fund) there are but 15 cases where compensation was not paid either the day before it was due or not longer than one day after. "The record under plan 1 is also very good, but under plan 2 unfortunately many of the insurance companies are backward in the payment of compensation. In many cases the first payment is not made until 90 days after the accident, on account of the necessity of the claim going to the eastern office of the company for investigation and adjustment before it can be paid." The board is able to report a steadily reducing interval between injuries and awards in disputed cases. For the first year under the law ordinary cases involving disputed questions were decided on the average within 70 days. The second year this average was reduced to 55 days; the third year to 48 days; the fourth year to 40 days; and for the past 12 months the average time for settling disputed cases has been reduced to 35 days.

The insurance fund is divided into 26 classes for which separate accounts are kept. The total shows assets amounting to \$556,901.61, of which \$334,046.53 is in cash and investments. The premium income for the last fiscal year was \$225,507.86, and compensation payable therefrom was \$135,002.94. Of this 37 per cent went for temporary total disabilities and 2 per cent for permanent total; 13 per cent was paid out on account of permanent partial disabilities, and 37 per cent for fatal cases. The remainder went to doctors, hospitals and undertakers. The number of accidents by classes showed 4,726 temporary total; 5 permanent total, 89 permanent partial, and 94 fatal, or 4,914 for the year. The aggregate for 5 years was 31,335 of which 29,834 were temporary total, 21 permanent total, 698 permanent partial, and 782 fatalities. The commission computes that the cost of these industrial injuries to the State aggregated more than \$70,000,000.

Emphasis is laid upon the importance of rehabilitation, and recommendations are made looking toward engaging in this line of work. The board also recommends a reduction of the waiting time from 14 days to 7, and the raising of the maximum weekly payment allowance (now \$12.50). Much stress is also laid upon the importance of accident prevention.

South Dakota.

THE Workmen's Compensation Law of South Dakota is administered by the industrial commissioner of the State, the work being chiefly performed by a deputy. The report for the year 1920 gives a brief summary of the work accomplished.³

The report first takes up suggestions for amendatory legislation, one being that there should be "material increases in the payments made for both injuries and death claims," unless there is a decided shift in living expenses. The subject of State insurance is discussed, but without an expression of opinion. However, the need is disclosed for a provision of the law that will lead employers to take out insurance of their risks, cases arising in which awards of damages to employees of uninsured employers are worthless.

There were two amendments made by the legislature of 1919, which definitely affected the policy of the law. One of these required commercial thrashing outfits to make arrangements for compensation payments. On account of the rates charged by casualty companies there have been some associations formed among thrashermen which have proved very efficient and satisfactory, dealing liberally and promptly with the injured workman. The second change related to short term disabilities, and provided that where a physician gives a certificate at the end of 10 days, certifying disability from work for any part of that time, compensation should be payable. The department has recommended that the provisions be met by the acceptance of an informal certificate, accepting simply the report of the physician. This policy has been adopted, so that "in minor injuries, where the disability extended only a day or two, compensation is to be paid for that time and 'waiting time' is practically eliminated so far as this State is concerned." The effect of this practice is shown by the fact that last year there were but 74 payments of amounts under \$10, and 45 over \$10 and under \$20; during 1920 there were 217 payments under \$10 and 195 of \$10 and under \$20.

Unlike the laws in a number of States, the South Dakota law covers steam railroads in so far as intrastate work is concerned. "Practically every railway operating in the State is now under the law by the filing of the proper statement which allows them to carry their own insurance."

The total number of accidents reported last year was 2,251, of which 1,845 were settled for, 406 remaining unclosed at the end of the year. In 21 cases the injury was fatal.

As the law was enacted in 1917, medical relief in the amount of \$100 was to be furnished; this amount was changed in 1919 to \$150. Several cases appear in which the legal limitations have not been observed, notably one in which an insurance company "paid \$1,039 medical relief on the ground that such expenditure would benefit the claimant, and at the same time considered it a good business policy for the company, as by this expenditure the injured employee was restored to ability to help herself and not be a permanent total disability charge against the company." In 11 cases the payments exceeded the legal requirement of \$150.

³ Third Annual Report of the South Dakota Industrial Commissioner for the 12 months ending June 30, 1920, Pierre, 1920. 48 pp.

Progress of the Mothers' Pension Movement in the United States.

ACCORDING to the latest annual report of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, 40 out of the 48 States have now adopted some form of mothers' pension, recognizing the principle that "children should not be taken from their mothers because of poverty alone." The rapid growth of the mothers' pension movement is an indication of the "general belief of the country in the paramount value of home life and a mother's care."

Many of the States make substantial allowances, but in general the grants are much too small and do not take into account the increased costs of living. Some States are at present carefully studying these increased costs, in order properly to adjust the pension provisions to higher prices.

Administration systems, allowances and supervisory methods vary greatly in the different States. The Children's Bureau points out the need of carefully investigating the methods of the various States in this connection, so that the whole country may have the benefit of the experience gained under these laws.

Compensation for Industrial Diseases in New Brunswick.

THE workmen's compensation law of New Brunswick (1918) authorizes compensation for industrial diseases, meaning thereby "any disease which by the regulations is declared to be an industrial disease." The workman's compensation board of the Province has drawn up a list of such diseases, and this has been approved by the Government. This list, as published in the Labor Gazette (Ottawa) for November (p. 1416), is as follows:

- Anthrax.*—Handling of wool, hair, bristles, hides, and skins.
- Lead poisoning or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of lead or its preparations or compounds.
- Mercury poisoning or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of mercury or its preparation or compounds.
- Phosphorus poisoning or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of phosphorus or its preparations or compounds.
- Arsenic poisoning or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of arsenic or its preparations or compounds.
- Sulphur poisoning or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of sulphur or its preparations or compounds.
- Ammonia poisoning or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of ammonia or its preparations or compounds.
- Carbon bisulphide or its sequelæ.*—Any process involving the use of carbon bisulphide.
- Carbonic acid gas.*—Any process involving the use of carbonic acid gas.
- Ankylostomiasis.*—Mining.
- Glanders.*—Care of any equine animal suffering from glanders, handling the carcass of any such animal.
- Compressed air illness.*—Any process carried on in compressed air.
- Infection by handling sugar.*—Any process involving the refining of sugar.

The list is novel in its inclusion of poisoning from sulphur, ammonia, and carbonic gas, and of infection from handling sugar. The other diseases are compensable under British law and in the Provinces generally.

Increased Unemployment Benefits in Germany.

INCREASED unemployment benefits, effective November 1, 1920, were announced by the German Government during the latter part of October, according to a report by the American consul at Hamburg. It appears that heads of households and families having several children are to receive increases above the average. Hitherto the family allowance of an unemployed man could not exceed as a sum total one and one-half times his individual allowance; this limit is now raised to twice the individual allowance. For those not heads of families the increase is smaller, the assumption being that these have the best chance in the labor market. The maximum allowances under the new scale are as follows:

	Daily allowance in marks. ¹
Men:	
Over 21 years of age, not members of some other household . . .	10
Over 21, members of some other household	8
Under 21 years of age	6
Women:	
Over 21 years of age, not members of some other household . . .	8
Over 21, members of some other household	6
Under 21 years of age	4
Family bonus for wife or husband, and children up to 16 years of age each	4
Other dependents, each	3

Standard Weekly Payments and Benefits Under British Unemployment Insurance Act, 1920.²

THE new unemployment insurance act, which came into force on the sixth instant, applies virtually to all employed persons, including nonmanual workers whose remuneration does not exceed £250 a year, but excluding everyone engaged in agriculture and domestic service. This act insures nearly 12,000,000 persons, of whom 8,333,000 are men and 3,430,000 women; the insurable age is 16, and there is no upward limit except in the case of pensioners. It is calculated that 628,000 of the men and 456,000 of the women will be between 60 and 80 years of age; for them there are reduced rates of contribution and benefit. The standard weekly payments and benefits are as follows:

¹ Mark at par=23.8 cents.

² Report to the Department of State by the United States ambassador at London, dated Nov. 16, 1920.

STANDARD WEEKLY PAYMENTS AND BENEFITS UNDER BRITISH UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE ACT, 1920.

[1 s. at par=24.3 cents; 1 d.=2.03 cents.]

	Contributions.			
	Employed person.	Employer.	State.	Benefit paid.
	<i>d.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>d.</i>	<i>s. d.</i>
Man.....	4	4	2	15 0
Woman.....	3	3½	1½	12 0
Boy.....	2	2	1½	7 6
Girl.....	1½	2	1	6 0

The boycott of the act by trade-unions, which was threatened in the House of Commons and in the Trades-Union Congress, is not taking effect. Dr. Macnamara stated in the House recently that up to October 31, 148 trade-unions had notified their intention to prepare schemes for its administration.

LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS.

Decision of Secretary of Labor in the Case of Ludwig C. A. K. Martens.

THIS is a case arising under a warrant issued by the Department of Labor upon affidavit of information and belief that Ludwig C. A. K. Martens has been found in the United States in violation of the immigration act of October 16, 1918. The portions of the act of October 16, 1918, applicable to this case are as follows:

Aliens who are anarchists; aliens who believe in or advocate the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States or of all forms of law; aliens who disbelieve in or are opposed to all organized government; aliens who advocate or teach the assassination of public officials; aliens who advocate or teach the unlawful destruction of property; aliens who are members of or affiliated with any organization that entertains a belief in, teaches, or advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States or of all forms of law, or that entertains or teaches disbelief in or opposition to all organized government, or that advocates the duty, necessity, or propriety of the unlawful assaulting or killing of any officer or officers, either of specific individuals or of officers generally, of the Government of the United States or of any other organized government, because of his or their official character, or that advocates or teaches the unlawful destruction of property. * * *

SEC. 2. * * * shall, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and deported in the manner provided in the immigration act of February fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen.

Counsel for the alien allege that he is an accredited official of a foreign Government, i. e., the commercial, political, and diplomatic representative of the Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Republic, and he is, therefore, beyond the jurisdiction of the Department of Labor in deportation proceedings because section 3 of the immigration act of February 5, 1917, provides "that nothing in this act shall be construed to apply to accredited officials of foreign Governments." It is further claimed that the term "foreign Governments" used in the immigration act can not be limited to such Governments only as are recognized by the diplomatic branch of the United States Government, but comprises all foreign Governments. In support of that contention, section 4, title VIII, of the act of June 15, 1917, the espionage act, is quoted as follows:

The words "foreign Government" as used in this act * * * shall be deemed to include any Government, faction, or body of insurgents within a country with which the United States is at peace, which Government, faction, or body of insurgents may or may not have been recognized by the United States as a Government.

There are some very serious defects in this line of argument. The omissions in the section quoted are important. Their inclusion more clearly shows the intent of Congress. The section referred to reads as follows:

SECTION 4. The words "foreign Government" as used in this act and in sections one hundred and fifty-six, one hundred and fifty-seven, one hundred and sixty-one, one one hundred and seventy, one hundred and seventy-one, one hundred and seventy-two, one hundred and seventy-three, and two hundred and twenty of the act of March fourth, nineteen hundred and nine, entitled "An act to codify, revise, and amend the penal laws of the United States," shall be deemed to include any Government,

faction, or body of insurgents within a country with which the United States is at peace, which Government, faction, or body of insurgents may or may not have been recognized by the United States as a Government."

It is clear, therefore, that Congress intended that the definition of the term "foreign Government" contained in the espionage act should apply only to that act and to the sections of the criminal code enumerated. If it had intended to include the immigration act, section 3 of that act would have been specified in the same manner as the sections of the criminal code which were included. If a general definition had been intended, there would have been no need to specify either its application to the law in which it occurs or to any other section of law. A simple declaration that "The words 'foreign Government' shall be deemed to include any Government, faction, etc., which may or may not have been recognized by the United States" would have been sufficient. The fact that the espionage act enumerated certain sections of law in its definition of the term "foreign Government" and omitted other sections in which the same or similar language occurs leads inevitably to the conclusion that Congress intended that the general rule of statutory construction should be applied, that "where certain things are specified, other things not specified or necessarily implied must be excluded," and as section 3 of the immigration act is not specified or necessarily implied in the definition under consideration, the proviso that "nothing in this act shall be construed to apply to accredited officials of foreign Governments" must be interpreted in accordance with accepted definitions of the language used. Therefore it is held that the words "foreign Governments" as used in the immigration act mean any Government the de facto or de jure existence of which is recognized by the United States. But even if the words "foreign Government" were given the broad interpretation placed upon them by counsel for the alien, we would still be confronted with the question of what constitutes an accredited official of such a government.

No one can be an accredited official of a foreign Government within the meaning and under the jurisdiction of our laws simply because he is accredited by an unrecognized revolutionary Government as its minister to or agent in this country. He must in addition to being accredited by the Government he claims to represent also be accredited, authorized and received as such by the President of the United States before his status as an accredited official is complete.

Section 7611, Compiled Statutes, provides:

Whenever any writ or process is sued out or prosecuted by any person in any court of the United States, or of a State, or by any judge or justice, whereby the person of any public minister of any foreign prince or State, authorized and received as such by the President, or any domestic or domestic servant of any such minister, is arrested or imprisoned, or his goods or chattels are distrained, seized, or attached, such writ or process shall be deemed void.

It will be observed that the protection given by this section against the issuance of any writ or process applies only to public ministers authorized and received as such by the President, and their families, and that no protection is granted to any one pretending to be a public minister who is not authorized and received as such by the President. This construction seems to be sustained by the opinions of the Attorneys General and by the courts.

In the case of Parker H. French, who brought letters from the provisory president of the Republic of Nicaragua accrediting him as minister plenipotentiary of that Republic to the United States, and who was alleged to be concerned in the engagement at New York of recruits and arms for transmission to Nicaragua, the Attorney General, C. Cushing, in an opinion dated December 24, 1855 (8 Opin. Atty. Gen., 471), says:

The President does not yet see cause to establish diplomatic intercourse with the persons claiming at this time to exercise political power in the State of Nicaragua; and that, for sufficient reasons assigned, he does not at present deem it proper to receive any one as a minister to this Government duly appointed by that Republic. * * * You will thus perceive that Mr. French is entitled to diplomatic privilege in the United States only in a very qualified degree. He is not an accredited minister, but simply a person coming to this country to present himself as such, and not received, by reason of its failing to appear that he represents any lawful Government. Under such circumstances any diplomatic privilege accorded to him is of mere transit, and of courtesy, not full right; and that courtesy will be withdrawn from him so soon as there shall be cause to believe that he is engaged in here, or contemplates, any action not consonant with the laws, the peace, or the public honor of the United States.

In *U. S. v. Skinner et al.* (Case No. 16309, Federal Cases, p. 1123), Capt. Skinner, Don Manuel H. Aguirre, and others were charged with fitting out a filibustering expedition in violation of the laws of the United States. Counsel for the defendants claimed diplomatic exemption for Don Manuel H. Aguirre on the ground that he was a minister from the Government of Buenos Aires to that of the United States and could not, therefore, be proceeded against in this way. Livingston, circuit justice, decided:

As to any privileges which Mr. Aguirre's commission conferred on him, the judge was of opinion that this gentleman, not being accredited by the President, and the independence of Buenos Aires not being acknowledged by the Government of the United States, he was liable to be proceeded against for any offense which he might commit against our laws, in the same way as any other individual.

From these quotations it would seem to be an established principle of law that no one can be an accredited official of a foreign Government until he has been accredited, authorized, and received by the President as such. This was the accepted meaning of the term at the time the immigration law was passed and must, therefore, be held to be the intent of Congress. Martens may have been accredited as a public minister by an unrecognized revolutionary government in Russia, but he has not been accredited, authorized, and received as such by the President of the United States, and does not come within the meaning of the words "accredited official" as used in the proviso to section 3 of the immigration law.

But, furthermore, these proceedings are not brought under the act of February 5, 1917. They are brought under the act of October 16, 1918, and that act does not provide for the exemption of officials of foreign Governments from the application of its provisions. The only reference made in the act to the act of February 5, 1917, is found in the language of section 2, which provides:

That any alien who, at any time after entering the United States, is found to have been at the time of entry, or to have become thereafter, a member of any one of the classes of aliens enumerated in section one of this act, shall, upon the warrant of the Secretary of Labor, be taken into custody and deported in the manner provided in the immigration act of February fifth, nineteen hundred and seventeen.

No reference is made to the exemption of any of the classes of aliens enumerated in section 1 of the act, but all are to be taken into custody and deported in the manner provided in the immigration act. The reference is to the manner of deportation and not to the cause of deportation or exceptions in the application of the cause.

However, in view of the conclusions stated above relative to what constitutes an accredited official of a foreign Government, it would seem to be unnecessary to enter into an inquiry of whether the act of October 16, 1918, should be administered as a separate act other than as to the manner of deportation, or as an amendment to the act of February 5, 1917, which should be read in conjunction with the proviso "that nothing in this act shall be construed to apply to accredited officials of foreign Governments." The conclusion is the same in either case that Martens is not an accredited official of a foreign Government within the meaning of our laws and is not exempt from the application of the immigration laws.

We may, therefore, proceed to a consideration of the facts in the case, bearing in mind that there is nothing in our immigration laws that requires the deportation of any alien because he believes in, teaches, or advocates socialism, communism, syndicalism, a soviet form of government, a dictatorship of the proletariat, abolition of property rights, or any other change in our political or social structure, or who belongs to an organization that believes in, teaches, or advocates these things, if he does not entertain a belief in, teach, or advocate the use of force or violence to overthrow the Government of the United States or belong to an organization that does so. The essence of the deportation provisions of the immigration laws in their application to this class of cases is the belief in, teaching, or advocacy of the use of force or violence to overthrow the Government of the United States.

The essential facts in the case of Martens are these: He was born, raised, and educated in Russia, of German parents long resident in Russia but who were never naturalized. He was recognized by the laws of Russia as being a German subject. He was imprisoned in Russia for three years and then deported to Germany because of revolutionary activities against the Czar's Government. He continued his revolutionary activities after deportation. He was a German subject at the time of his arrival in the United States in 1916. He testifies that he was made a Russian citizen by the provisional government in May or June, 1917, while he was residing in this country. In the certificate by G. Chicherin, people's commissar for foreign affairs, dated January 2, 1919, announcing Martens's appointment as its representative, this language is used: "That Russian citizen Ludwig Christian Alexander Karlovitch Martens, who resides in the United States of America, is appointed the representative of the people's commissariat of foreign affairs in the United States of America." In a statement addressed "To whom it may concern," Chicherin refers to him as "Citizen Ludwig Martens." There is no evidence to the contrary. He testified before the Lusk committee that he is a member of the Communist Party of Russia. He gave similar testimony before the Senate committee. He afterwards stated to the committee that he is not a member of the Communist Party of Russia, and explained that he had spoken of

himself as a member of that party because he adhered to its principles. He made a similar explanation at the hearings before the immigration inspector. There is no other evidence of his being a member of the Russian Communist Party. He declared that he approved the Third International, and closed a signed statement with the words, "Long live the Third International." He qualified that by saying that he did not approve of "every word of every manifesto, but anyhow he approved of the principles." While he was residing in the United States on January 2, 1919, he was appointed by the unrecognized Russian Socialist Federated Soviet Government as its representative to the United States. The Soviet Government has not been recognized by the United States, and he has not been authorized, received, or accredited by the President as an official of the Soviet Government.

The Soviet Government of Russia believes in, teaches, and advocates the overthrow of the Government of the United States by the use of force and violence, not by the process of military invasion, but by conducting propaganda to stir up insurrection. It has appropriated money for that purpose. In the decree of December, 1917, the Soviet Government said:

The Soviet of the People's Commissaries considers it necessary to come to the assistance of the left international wing of the labor movement of all countries, * * * absolutely independent from the fact whether these countries are at war with Russia or in alliance or are maintaining a neutral condition. With these aims the Soviet of the People's Commissaries decides to assignate for the needs of the revolutionary international movement for the disposition of the foreign representatives of the commissariat for foreign affairs, 2,000,000 rubles.

When the Soviet Government speaks of a revolutionary movement it does not mean a peaceful revolution brought about by parliamentary processes, but a revolution by force and violence. Lenine, in a letter to American workingmen, says:

Let incurable pedants, crammed full of bourgeois democratic and parliamentary prejudices, shake their heads gravely over our soviets. Let them deplore the fact that we have no direct elections. These people have forgotten nothing, have learned nothing, in the great upheaval of 1914-1918. The combination of the dictatorship of the proletariat with the new democracy of the proletariat, of civil war with the widest application of the masses to political problems, such a combination can not be achieved in a day, can not be forced into battered forms of former parliamentary democratism.

And again, in a "New letter to the workers of Europe and America," he says:

Now no conscious workingman and no sincere socialist can fail to see what shameful treason against socialism was perpetrated by those men who, in line with the Mensheviks and "social revolutionists" of Russia, with the Scheidemanns and Suedekums of Germany, with the Renaudels of France, and Vandervelds in Belgium, with the Hendersons and Webbs in England, and with Gompers & Co. in America, supported "their" bourgeoisie in the war of 1914-1918. * * * Only the overthrow of the bourgeoisie, and the annihilation of the bourgeois parliament, only soviet rule and proletarian dictatorship can put an end to imperialism and safeguard the victory of socialism, safeguard a permanent peace.

The officials of the Soviet Government are members of the Russian Communist Party. Through that party Lenine and Trotsky, the recognized heads of the Soviet Government, issued the call for the Communist International Congress in 1919, which became known as

the Third International. They participated in the congress and guided its counsels. The following excerpts are taken from the call issued on February 24, 1919:

Comrades: The undersigned parties and organizations consider it indispensable to call the first congress of the New Revolutionary International. * * * Already now the framework is laid for the real revolutionary international. The gigantic pace of the world revolution which gives rise to new problems, the danger that this revolution may be killed by the alliance of the capitalistic states which organize a League of Nations against the revolution, the attempt of traitor socialists to gather and after having "amnestied" each other to assist their Governments and the bourgeoisie again to betray the working classes, and finally in view of revolutionary experience and for the purpose of internationalizing the course of the revolution, we are induced to take the initiative in placing on the order of the day the question of calling the revolutionary proletarian parties to an International Congress. * * *

6. The world situation demands immediate and as perfect as possible relations between the different groups of the revolutionary proletariat and a complete alliance of all the countries in which the revolution has already succeeded.

7. The most important method is the mass action of the proletariat, including armed struggle against the Government power of capitalists. * * *

14. The Congress must lay the foundation of a common fighting organ which will be a uniting link and methodically lead the movement of the center for the Communist International which subordinates the interests of the movement in every separate country to the common interests of the revolution on an international scale.

In the platform adopted by the Third International at that time this language occurs:

The revolutionary epoch demands of the proletariat the application of such methods of struggle as will concentrate all its energies, first of all methods of mass struggle, with its logical conclusions—direct conflict in open battle with the bourgeois, governmental machinery. To this end must be subordinated all other means, as, for example, the revolutionary making use of bourgeois parliamentary institutions.

These are but samples from masses of evidence along the same lines.

With such definitions before us of what is meant by the revolutionary struggle, every reference to the revolution takes on the significance of force and violence against the existing machinery of government. There is an abundance of evidence showing the use of the term by Martens, Lenine, Trotsky, many other officials of the Soviet Government, the Russian Communist Party, and the Third International.

As a means of showing the close working cooperation between the Soviet Government and the Third International and the world-wide scope of their revolutionary purpose, the following order to the Red Army and the Red Fleet, issued by L. Trotsky, is significant:

Order to the Red Army and the Red Fleet—No. 83—March 9, 1919.

Moscow,
"Ivestia," March 11, 1919.

Greetings from the Communist International:

At the beginning of March in Moscow sat the representatives of revolutionary workmen of the various countries of Europe and America, who had come together to create a close revolutionary solidarity of the toilers of all countries in the struggle against oppressors of all countries. This congress founded the Communist International, that is the international union of workmen, soldiers, and toiling peasants, for the purpose of establishing a world soviet Republic which would put an end forever to hostilities and wars between peoples. At one of its sessions the communist international adopted the following resolution of greeting to the Russian workmen's and peasants' Red Army:

The congress of the Communist Internationals sends to the Red Army of soviet a heartfelt greeting and all wishes for complete victory in the struggle against international imperialism.

This brotherly greeting of the international proletariat should become known to all soldiers and sailors of the Red Army and Red Fleet. I hereby order the commissary to publish it in all regiments, divisions, and batteries, and on all warships. Every soldier of the Red Army, every sailor of the Red Fleet, with well-deserved pride will hear this word of greeting from the highest and authoritative institution of the world working class. The Red Army and the Red Navy will not deceive the expectation and hopes of the Communist International.

Forward—under the flag of the world working class.
President of the Revolutionary Military Soviet of the Republic,
People's Commissary for Military and Naval Affairs,

L. TROTSKY.

It will thus be seen that the Soviet Government, itself claiming to be a dictatorship of the proletariat, through its minister of war officially accepts the Third International as the highest and authoritative institution of the world working class, and pledges the Red Army and Navy not to deceive the expectations and hopes of the Third International, and orders them forward under the flag of the world working class.

In view of these facts, it seems to me that the questions to be decided are: First, Does Martens believe in, teach, or advocate the overthrow of the Government of the United States by the use of force or violence? Second, Is Martens a member of the Communist Party of Russia or the Third International? Third, Does his appointment as an official of the unrecognized soviet government constitute membership in or affiliation with an organization that believes in, teaches, or advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States, it being determined that the Soviet Government, the Communist Party of Russia, and the Third International are organizations of this character?

There is no evidence to show that Martens has personally made any direct statement of a belief in the use of force or violence to overthrow the United States, nor is there any evidence that he has ever distributed or caused to be distributed any literature containing any propaganda of that character, except the evidence to the effect that he attended meetings where revolutionary sentiments were expressed, employed people in his office who had been convicted under the espionage act, avowed his belief in the Third International, published a statement ending with the words, "Long live the Third International," and that secret couriers passed between a representative of the Soviet Government in Sweden and members of his official staff bringing to them diamonds and documents in violation of the laws and passport regulations of the United States.

Martens asserts that he is a revolutionist, has always been a revolutionist, but by that he meant a Russian revolutionist, and that he never touched upon internal conditions of America. He has been absent from Russia since 1899, a date long before the Russian Communist Party or the Third International were organized. He could not have presented himself physically for admission to the Russian Communist Party, and there is no evidence to show that he has ever been otherwise admitted, or that he is connected with any organization affiliated with the Third International, other than the fact that he is an official of the Soviet Government. It is therefore concluded that he is not a member of or affiliated with the Russian Communist Party or the Third International.

That he is an official of the Soviet Government of Russia is not controverted. The Soviet Government conducts a propaganda in the United States for the purpose of creating an insurrection to overthrow the Government of the United States by force and violence, as has already been pointed out. It is further shown that Lenine has proposed to withdraw the propaganda in turn for political and commercial recognition and intercourse between Russia and the United States. If there was no improper propaganda being conducted, there would be nothing to withdraw. Martens is an official of and therefore a member of or affiliated with the Soviet Government, an organization that entertains a belief in, teaches, or advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States, and this fact, taken in conjunction with his expressed belief in and approval of the Third International, proves that he believes in the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States.

The question of whether Martens is a Russian or German citizen does not affect the consideration of his presence in the United States in violation of law. For the purposes of the immigration laws his citizenship relates only to the country to which he shall be deported, and for that purpose it is held that he is a citizen of Russia.

It is therefore decided that Ludwig C. A. K. Martens is an alien, a citizen of Russia, and that he entertains a belief in and is a member of or affiliated with an organization that entertains a belief in, teaches, or advocates the overthrow by force or violence of the Government of the United States, and the Commissioner General of Immigration is hereby directed to take the said Ludwig C. A. K. Martens into custody and deport him to Russia at the expense of the Government of the United States.

It is further directed that he shall be treated with the utmost courtesy and given the best available accommodations in transit.

(Signed)

W. B. WILSON,
Secretary of Labor.

DECEMBER 15, 1920.

Recent Decisions Relating to the Closed Shop.

Contract Held Invalid at Common Law.

A DECISION of the chancery court of New Jersey handed down August 26 declared invalid a provision of a contract between an association of builders and contractors and an association representing the labor unions of New York City and Long Island, which had for its object the establishment of the closed shop by monopolizing the labor market for members of the union. (*Lehigh Structural Steel Co. v. Atlantic Smelting & Refining Works*, 111 Atl. Reporter, 376.) It was also decided that a sympathetic strike merely to force the employer working in another territory to comply with such provisions in that territory is without just excuse or cause and is unlawful. The steel company, a Pennsylvania corporation, had undertaken to deliver structural steel for

a building to be erected at Newark, N. J., and also to erect the building. The work of erection was sublet, and had been nearly completed when the employees thereon were called out by strike orders. The builders announced their purpose to complete the work with nonunion labor, whereupon the representative of the owners of the building said that this would not be permitted as it would lead to a general strike on their work elsewhere. The contractor disregarded this notice and continued with the employment of nonunion men until stopped by an order of the court granted on the declaration by the owners that the contract required the work to be done by union labor. Litigation proceeded until this decision found that the strike was purely sympathetic, that the difficulties affecting conditions in New York did not involve the members of the local union who had been employed on the Newark contract, and that the situation in New York did not warrant such action as had been taken.

The principle of the closed shop, i. e., the monopolization of the labor market, has found no judicial sponsor. In whatever form organized labor has asserted it, whether to the injury of the employer, or to labor, or to labor unions outside of the fold, the judiciary of the country has responded, uniformly, that it is inimical to the freedom of individual pursuit guaranteed by the fundamental law of the land, and contravenes public policy.

Numerous citations are then given illustrating the attitude of the courts of a number of States, in support of the conclusion announced. The contention that the remedy of the complaining company should be at law was rejected, and an injunction issued restraining the strike and a breach of the contract by the owners of the building.

The Oregon Statute.

IN 1919, the Legislature of the State of Oregon, following the example of a number of other States, enacted a law (ch. 346, Acts of 1919) declaring labor unions to be lawful organizations; restricting the powers of any court of this State in the granting of injunctions; declaring the labor of a human being not a commodity or article of commerce; prohibiting the indictment, prosecution, or trial of any person or combination of persons for any act in furtherance of the bettering of his or their conditions, unless such act should be forbidden by law if done by an individual. Two very important cases in the nature of test cases have been decided by the State supreme court involving the application of this law. The first case was *G. Heitkemper v. Central Labor Council* (192 Pacific Reporter, p. 765), in which the International Jewelry Workers' Union, Local No. 14 called a strike for the sole purpose of compelling the employing jewelers to maintain a closed shop. The employers refused to recognize the union and their places of business were picketed in the usual way, but entirely without violence or disorder. In this case the court held that there was no real dispute between the employers and their employees as to wages, hours of labor, treatment, or conditions of employment, and that the only question involved was the recognition of the union. Under the circumstances it was declared that the above-mentioned law did not apply to the case and an injunction was affirmed restraining the picketing of the plaintiffs' shops. Two of the seven judges sitting on this case rendered dissenting opinions.

The second case is much more important, as the issues were wholly within the law and the court was compelled to determine the constitutionality of the statute. In *Greenfield v. Central Labor Council* (192 Pacific Reporter, p. 783), the court by a unanimous decision upheld the constitutionality of the act. This case was a dispute between Greenfield, a shoe-dealer, and his former employees and the Retail Clerks' International Protective Association, Local Union No. 1257, of which they were members. Greenfield had made a contract with the union in which the wages, hours of labor, and conditions of employment were all fixed, and in which he also agreed to maintain a closed shop. This contract was to be effective until March 1, 1920. In November, 1919, Greenfield violated the contract by requiring certain of his employees who were members of the union to work four hours a week overtime without additional compensation. He also refused to maintain a closed shop, and finally on January 13, 1920, he wholly repudiated the contract and declared that he did not recognize the union. On January 19, 1920, a strike was called and Greenfield's stores were picketed by men and women of the union who bore banners and wore scarfs on which it was declared that Greenfield was unfair to organized labor. The pickets also spoke to prospective customers and sought to persuade them to refrain from dealing at the plaintiff's stores. They behaved in an orderly and peaceful manner and created no disturbance. The picketing was sufficiently successful to cause some damage to Greenfield's business and he brought suit for an injunction to restrain the picketing. The circuit court granted his petition, and the union appealed, declaring that the statute expressly legalized picketing and that the court could not grant an injunction to restrain the acts committed. The State Supreme Court declared that this case differed from the *Heitkemper* case in that here a real dispute between the employer and his employees was involved regarding the hours and conditions of labor, and that the law restraining injunctions against labor organizations applied. In reply to the plaintiff's contentions that the law was unconstitutional, the court spoke in part as follows.

The contract between plaintiff and the defendant union, as stated, did not expire until March 1, 1920. The strike was called on January 19, 1920. At that time, according to the finding of the trial court, all of the employees of the plaintiff at both of his stores, except four, were members of the defendant union. The complaint in this suit was filed on January 23, 1920. Based upon such facts, we hold that the relation of employer and employee and the terms and conditions of employment continued to exist after the strike was called, bringing the case under sections 2 and 3 of chapter 346.

Assuming that to be true, plaintiff contends that such sections are unconstitutional. Section 2 of chapter 346 is identical with paragraph 1464, Arizona Civil Code of 1913, and with section 20 of the Clayton Act. If it is unconstitutional, so are the two latter laws. The Clayton Act was passed in 1914. In so far as we are advised its constitutionality has never been attacked and no Federal court has ever declared it unconstitutional.

Again, section 2 of chapter 346 is identical with paragraph 1464 of the Arizona Civil Code of 1913, the constitutionality of which was sustained in the opinion of the Supreme Court of that State on December 14, 1918. Chapter 346 was enacted by the Oregon legislative assembly of 1919, and in the absence of the referendum, became the law of this State 90 days after its passage. In other words, at the time of its adoption, section 2 of chapter 346, which is a copy of paragraph 1464 of the Arizona Civil Code of 1913, had been construed and its constitutionality was sustained by a decision of the Supreme Court of Arizona.

The decree of the circuit court will be modified, and one will be entered here permitting the defendants during business hours to place and maintain one picket only, on the outer edge of the sidewalk, at each public entrance to plaintiff's stores, with authority to each picket to wear a banner or scarf inscribed with the words, "Unfair to Organized Labor, Local Union No. 1257," and in the usual, ordinary tone of voice used by one individual in addressing another on the public street to say to any prospective customer: "This place is unfair to organized labor. Please do not patronize it. Friends of union labor and all workmen will not patronize this place"—but not in any manner to impede or interfere with the right of any one to enter or depart from said stores, or any passer-by. Any picket so placed is hereby enjoined from the doing of any other act or thing which is intended to or would divert or turn away any patron or prospective customer from plaintiff's places of business. Otherwise the defendants and each of them, their agents, servants, and employees are hereby enjoined and prohibited from interfering with, intimidating, or harassing the plaintiff or any of his employees at his said places of business, or from the use of any violence, threat, or intimidation to induce any customer or patron to withhold or withdraw patronage from the plaintiff.

Bulgarian Law on the Conscription of Labor.

A LAW making labor compulsory for all Bulgarian subjects who have reached a specified age was enacted in Bulgaria on June 10, 1920.¹ From this law, which, owing to the novelty of the subject it deals with, ought to be of interest even outside of the country of its enactment, Bulgaria expects a number of social and economic advantages, above all a rapprochement of the different classes of society and a general awakening of zest for work in the population. All Bulgarian subjects are equal before this law. It makes no discrimination in favor of the well to do and educated classes.

The law subjects to compulsory labor all male subjects who have completed their twentieth year of age and all female subjects who have completed their sixteenth year of age. Mohammedan women and girls are exempt from compulsory labor. Youths over 17 years of age and girls over 12 years of age may voluntarily enlist for compulsory labor.

Article 3 enumerates as the objects of the law the following: (a) The organization and utilization of the social forces with a view to increase production and the nation's wealth; (b) the development among the citizens, independent of their social and material position, of a spirit of devotion to the public interest and love for manual labor; and (c) the assurance of the moral and economic uplift of the people by awakening in the citizens the sense of duty to themselves and to society as a whole and their training in rational methods of labor in all the economic fields of the nation.

The labor army conscripted in pursuance of the law is to be employed in all the economic fields of the nation, but principally at public works. Among the fields of employment the law mentions: Construction of roads, railroads, canals, water conduits, the laying out of villages and towns, reclamation work, construction of telegraph and telephone lines, reforestation, agricultural work, livestock breeding, culture of silk worms, fruit raising, fishing, mining, quarrying, factory work, tailoring, etc. All work in which compulsory labor is employed is to be executed under the direction and responsibility of the proper authorities.

¹France. Bulletin du Ministère du Travail, Vol. 27, Nos. 5, 6, and 7, p. 320; and Der Arbeitsnachweis in Deutschland. Berlin, Sept. 5, 1920.

Compulsory labor service must be rendered in person and not through a substitute. Only persons incapable of performing mental or physical work are exempt from compulsory labor. A list approved by the council of ministers enumerates the diseases which exempt from compulsory labor persons afflicted with them. Married women, gendarmes, and members of the army are also exempt. Persons exempt from compulsory labor on account of sickness must pay a tax to be fixed by a special law.

No Bulgarian subject may change his allegiance nor expatriate himself from Bulgaria before having complied with his duties under the present law.

The law fixes the term of compulsory service at 12 months in the case of men and at 6 months in that of girls. A reduction of the term of service to 6 months is granted (a) to only sons or only daughters of parents incapacitated for work, or of widows; (b) to only brothers or sisters supporting one or more orphaned brothers or sisters of tender age; (c) to only grandsons or granddaughters supporting a grandfather or grandmother who has no sons or sons-in-law capable of working. Such exemptions will be granted only in the case of poor families without property and having an income below 1,500 leva (\$289.50, par). A temporary reprieve from service will be granted to sick or convalescent persons under 24 years of age and to students at higher or secondary schools until the termination of their studies.

In case of serious damages caused by the elements or in case of a national calamity all Bulgarian male subjects 20 to 35 years of age may upon decision of the council of ministers be conscripted for compulsory labor for a term not to exceed four weeks.

A new bureau, the Central Office for Compulsory Labor, is to be established in the Ministry of Public Works. This bureau is charged with the carrying out of the law. It will consist of three divisions: An administrative, a technical, and an economic division. A similarly organized bureau is to be established in each territorial district (departement) in the engineer's office of the district, and the communal authorities are to act as direct agents of these bureaus.

The persons subject to compulsory labor are to be assigned to labor companies in accordance with their training and the work to be performed. Such companies will be formed for agricultural and technical work, trades, mining, fishing, etc. The Central Office for Compulsory Labor is to establish preparatory technical training courses for the various groups of conscripts.

The law provides heavy fines and imprisonment for draft dodgers and for government employees aiding persons subject to compulsory labor in evading service. The law became effective on the date of its promulgation.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS.

Eighth Annual Report of the Secretary of Labor.

THE eighth annual report of the Secretary of Labor for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920, summarizes the early history of the United States Department of Labor and also gives a brief account of that department's remarkable expansion and activities during the war period and a more detailed statement of its subsequent work.

Collective Bargaining.

OF SPECIAL interest is the Secretary's explanation of collective bargaining, which is quoted in part below:

Collective bargains are in the nature of "gentlemen's agreements," in contradistinction to legally enforceable contracts. They are made in good faith by both parties, under the circumstances of the time and upon an implied understanding that these circumstances will not change to the serious detriment of either side. They are not to be broken lightly; but when industrial circumstances alter, so that their enforcement would place either side in an unexpected plight whereby the other would unexpectedly profit, they should not be enforceable beyond the point at which the side thus prejudiced is willing, acting in good faith, to have them enforced. Were they legally enforceable the employing side would be free, in a contingency prejudicial to that side, to ignore its contract with impunity by restricting or stopping output as unprofitable; yet if the contingency were prejudicial to the wage earners, they could not quit work without subjecting themselves to penalties of the law for a breach.

To permit collective bargains to be legally enforceable would be to discourage the making of them; to leave their fulfillment to the good sense and good faith of each side, would encourage their making and thereby promote industrial peace.

Land for the Workers.

FOR years the department has fully realized that its labor distribution work should "extend to some such development of the natural resources of the country as will tend to make opportunities for workers greater than demands for work and to keep them so."

This subject, growing in importance with succeeding years, attracted general attention toward the close of the war and with reference especially to provision for returning soldiers. Meanwhile, expert investigations resulted in two reports on the subject, which this department has published in pamphlet form. One is entitled "Disposition of the Public Lands of the United States with Particular Reference to Wage-Earning Labor" and the other "Employment and Natural Resources." Further investigation became impossible from lack of appropriations, but those reports lay a firm foundation for legislative action and offer abundant material for general as well as official thought.

Among the Secretary's recommendations to Congress is the following:

Adjustment of the relation of wage earners to the utilization of public lands and community credits, so that unlimited opportunities for cooperative self-employment shall sustain profitable wage-earning work at a constant maximum.

Immigration and Emigration.

ACCORDING to the Secretary's report, the last fiscal year shows a material increase in immigration, 621,576 aliens being admitted as compared with 237,021 in the previous year. The departing aliens totaled in the year ending June 30, 1920, 428,062, or 193,514 less than the number of aliens admitted in the same period. Of the Japanese race 16,174 were admitted during 1919-20 as compared with 14,904 in the preceding year, and the departures number 15,653, making an increase in the Japanese population amounting to only 521. In addition to the 11,795 aliens debarred at port of entry, there were 2,762 aliens deported on departmental warrants and 15 deportations under the Chinese exclusion act. Of those deported on warrants 469 were classed as anarchists or criminals. Warrants were issued for approximately 6,000 who were alleged to be alien revolutionaries or members of or affiliated with revolutionary organizations. A very large proportion of all the warrants of arrest were canceled because the charges upon which they had been issued were not sustained by lawful proof at the hearings.

Jurisdiction of the Secretary Over Expulsion of Aliens.

THE following is a synopsis of the section of the Secretary's report which gives the facts leading up to the appointment of a committee to advise him in warrant and appeal cases:¹

The sole authority for the arrest and expulsion of aliens lies with the Secretary of Labor. It has been the practice, however, for all cases of aliens arrested under departmental warrant to be reviewed in the Bureau of Immigration first and transmitted to the Secretary with a recommendation as to action. This practice grew up because of its convenience and because it gave the Secretary the benefit of the specialized skill of the immigration officials to prepare these decisions for approval and relieve him of the necessity of a personal examination of the evidence in each case. Its chief drawbacks were a tendency toward decisions by official routine and a presumption on the part of persons having immigration business with the department that there was an intermediate tribunal in the Bureau of Immigration between aliens and the Secretary. Although the Secretary of Labor alone was authorized by law to make or render decisions, he was frequently unable to render decisions contrary to the recommendations of the Commissioner General of Immigration without being placed apparently in the position of reversing another tribunal. The development of this idea had its natural effect upon the bureau when the bureau itself assumed power not only to make a recommendation but to make a finding. The language of these findings would indicate that the bureau had authority to render decisions subject only to review by the Secretary, and that when he rendered judgment contrary to the recommendation his actions reversed decisions of those having legal authority to decide. It therefore seemed imperative that a departure be made from a convenient but nevertheless unlawful custom which, in addition to depriving aliens of their lawful rights, also clogged the administrative processes of the department. Accordingly an advisory committee in the Office of the Secretary has been appointed to advise the Secretary of Labor in warrant and appeal cases. It performs the functions heretofore

¹ Press release from the Office of the Secretary of Labor, Dec. 15, 1920, Washington, D. C.

performed by the Commissioner General, but under the direct instructions and immediate supervision of the Secretary and without any authority or appearance of authority to make decisions or make recommendations having the color of decisions. Under this arrangement all quasi judicial authority is therefore exercised by the Secretary of Labor, as required by law, with the advice and assistance of his own official staff. The functions of the Bureau of Immigration are limited to those of a strictly ministerial character.

Naturalization.

DURING 1919-20, 519,003 aliens took the preliminary or final steps toward citizenship. Within the same period first papers or declarations were filed by 300,106 aliens and petitions for final naturalization by 51,972 soldiers and 166,925 aliens in civil life.

Recommendations.

THE recommendations of the Secretary include:

Perfection of the United States Employment Service by an organic statute authorizing cooperation with States and Territories.

Legislation relative to adjustment of seasonal to nonseasonal industries, including transportation.

Statutory perpetuation in the Department of Labor of the Division of Negro Economics.

Adjustments in cooperation with other Governments whereby intending immigrants from countries across seas may apply for admission to this country before breaking up their foreign homes, and upon such application may secure the same benefits of adjudication by immigration officials, certificates by public health officials, and appeals to the final authority that are now available to them only upon arrival at our ports.

Authority whereby the Secretary of Labor may in immigration cases exercise discretion as to individual hardships.

Immediate legislation providing higher pay for competent and industrious employees of the department and its bureaus and divisions.

Migration of Negroes to Northern Industrial Centers.

DURING 1917 and 1918 there was a large migration of Negroes to some of the northern industrial centers. The following table, based on data furnished by the Census Bureau, shows the white and Negro population of certain northern cities in the census years 1910 and 1920, the per cent which each race formed of the total population, and the per cent of increase.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN WHITE AND NEGRO POPULATION IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIAL CENTERS IN 1910 OVER 1900.

City.	White and Negro population in—						Total. ¹
	1910						
	White.			Negro.			
	Number.	Per cent of total population.	Per cent increase over 1900.	Number.	Per cent of total population.	Per cent increase over 1900.	
Albany, N. Y.	99,171	98.9	6.7	1,037	1.0	² 11.9	100,253
Altoona, Pa.	51,665	99.1	33.9	453	(³)	11.6	52,127
Atlantic City, N. J.	36,231	78.5	70.4	9,834	21.3	51.0	46,150
Baltimore, Md.	473,387	84.8	10.3	84,749	15.2	6.9	558,485
Bridgenort, Conn.	100,650	98.6	44.2	1,332	1.3	15.9	102,054
Chester, Pa.	33,724	87.5	14.1	4,795	12.4	8.9	38,537
Cincinnati, Ohio.	343,919	94.6	10.4	19,639	5.4	35.6	363,591
Dayton, Ohio.	111,707	95.8	36.4	4,842	4.2	43.0	116,577
East St. Louis, Ill.	52,646	89.9	89.1	5,882	10.0	227.0	58,547
Fort Wayne, Ind.	63,340	99.1	41.3	572	(³)	107.3	63,933
Harrisburg, Pa.	59,636	92.9	29.5	4,535	7.1	10.4	64,186
Kansas City, Kans.	72,996	88.7	62.6	9,286	11.3	42.7	82,331
Lancaster, Pa.	46,415	98.3	14.1	803	1.7	3.3	47,227
Peoria, Ill.	65,361	97.6	19.5	1,569	2.3	11.9	66,950
Rockford, Ill.	45,196	99.5	46.6	197	(³)	7.1	45,401
Saginaw, Mich.	50,183	99.4	19.5	313	(³)	10.1	50,510
St. Paul, Minn.	211,516	98.5	31.6	3,144	1.5	38.9	214,744
Schenectady, N. Y.	72,493	99.5	129.9	274	(³)	115.7	72,826
Springfield, Ill.	48,699	94.2	52.5	2,961	5.7	32.9	51,678
Syracuse, N. Y.	136,101	99.2	26.8	1,124	(³)	8.7	137,249
Toledo, Ohio.	166,567	98.9	28.0	1,877	1.1	9.1	168,497
Troy, N. Y.	76,147	99.1	26.4	651	(³)	62.8	76,813
Washington, D. C.	236,128	71.3	23.3	94,446	28.5	8.9	331,069
Wichita, Kans.	49,976	95.3	114.7	2,457	4.7	76.9	52,440
Total.....	2,703,854	91.3	26.2	256,772	8.7	15.6	2,962,185

¹ The difference between this total and the total of the white and negro populations as given represents the numbers of Chinese, Japanese, and Indians, which are so small as to be negligible and are therefore omitted.

² Decrease.

³ Less than 1 per cent.

NUMBER AND PER CENT OF INCREASE IN WHITE AND NEGRO POPULATION IN SPECIFIED INDUSTRIAL CENTERS IN 1920 OVER 1910.

City.	White and Negro population in—						Total ¹
	1920						
	White.			Negro.			
	Number.	Per cent of total population.	Per cent increase over 1910.	Number.	Per cent of total population.	Per cent increase over 1910.	
Albany, N. Y.	112,040	98.8	13.0	1,234	1.1	19.0	113,344
Altoona, Pa.	59,430	98.5	15.0	889	1.5	96.2	60,331
Atlantic City, N. J.	39,688	78.3	9.5	10,948	21.6	11.3	50,707
Baltimore, Md.	625,074	85.2	32.0	108,390	14.8	27.9	733,826
Bridgeport, Conn.	141,195	98.4	40.3	2,256	1.6	69.4	143,555
Chester, Pa.	50,834	87.6	50.7	7,119	12.3	48.5	58,030
Cincinnati, Ohio.	371,540	92.6	8.0	29,636	7.4	50.9	401,247
Dayton, Ohio.	143,492	94.1	28.5	9,029	5.9	86.5	152,559
East St. Louis, Ill.	59,306	88.8	12.7	7,433	11.1	20.9	66,767
Fort Wayne, Ind.	85,051	98.3	34.3	1,476	1.7	158.0	86,549
Harrisburg, Pa.	70,644	93.1	18.5	5,256	6.9	15.9	75,917
Kansas City, Kans.	86,703	85.7	18.8	14,405	14.2	55.1	101,177
Lancaster, Pa.	52,226	98.3	12.5	916	1.7	14.1	53,150
Peoria, Ill.	73,977	97.2	13.2	2,131	2.8	35.8	76,121
Rockford, Ill.	65,125	99.2	44.1	490	(²)	148.7	65,651
Saginaw, Mich.	61,527	99.4	22.6	330	(²)	5.4	61,903
St. Paul, Minn.	231,169	98.5	9.3	3,379	1.4	7.5	234,698
Schenectady, N. Y.	88,242	99.5	21.7	390	(²)	42.3	88,723
Springfield, Ill.	56,404	95.3	15.8	2,769	4.7	³ 6.5	59,183
Syracuse, N. Y.	170,368	99.2	25.2	1,263	(²)	12.4	171,717
Toledo, Ohio.	237,390	97.6	42.5	5,690	2.3	203.1	243,164
Troy, N. Y.	71,401	99.2	³ 6.2	581	(²)	³ 10.8	72,013
Washington, D. C.	326,854	74.7	38.4	109,976	25.1	16.4	437,571
Wichita, Kans.	68,626	95.0	37.3	3,543	4.9	44.2	72,215
Total.....	3,348,306	91.0	23.0	329,529	9.0	28.3	3,680,120

¹ The difference between this total and the total of the white and Negro populations as given represents the numbers of Chinese, Japanese, and Indians, which are so small as to be negligible and are therefore omitted.

² Less than 1 per cent.

³ Decrease.

It will be seen from these tables that, so far as concerns certain industrial centers in Northern States, the increase in the Negro population in the decade 1910 to 1920 was 28.3 per cent, while the increase in the decade from 1900 to 1910 was 15.6 per cent. In the period 1910 to 1920 the Negro population increased at a slightly greater rate than the white population, the per cent increase of the latter being 23 as compared with 28.3 for the Negroes. However, the increase in the Negro population in the decade 1900 to 1910 was less than the increase in the white population during the same period, the percentage being 15.6 as compared with 26.2. While the per cent of increase in the white population of these cities in the decade ending in 1920 was less than in the previous decade, the per cent of increase in the Negro population was nearly twice that of the decade ending in 1910.

Efficiency of Labor on Railroads.

THERE is a somewhat significant difference in the tone and attitude of the journals published by corporations for circulation among their employees and that of the general press of the country, as well as different statements of alleged facts.

The Baltimore & Ohio Railroad has a monthly publication which it calls "The Baltimore and Ohio Magazine." In the November issue there are two very interesting articles which deal with the subject of efficiency. On page 25 there is an article on "How the New Castle division has increased its net train load." A few extracts are cited below.

Increased efficiency can only be granted as an actual fact where it is shown that the train loading has increased over previous periods under exactly the same operating conditions.

An increase in the train load is naturally to be expected where (1) Heavier power is furnished; (2) curves and grades are eliminated or reduced; (3) radical changes in operating standards are made to permit handling heavier trains.

Beginning with the fiscal year of 1912, the average net train load on the New Castle division for each year follows:

Year.	Fiscal or calendar.	Net train load.
1912.....	Fiscal.....	764
1913.....	do.....	825
1914.....	do.....	753
1915.....	do.....	998
1916.....	do.....	965
1916.....	Calendar.....	950
1917.....	do.....	1,027
1918.....	do.....	1,050
1919.....	do.....	1,132
1920.....	January to July, inclusive.	1,130

¹ Approximately.

No material changes in the motive power or in the physical conditions of the division can explain the increase in train load since 1917, and it can only be attributed to wise leadership, careful planning and teamwork in increasing efficiency.

This improvement has been made during a period of extraordinary demand for labor at prices much beyond the reach of the railroads of the country, and the forced use of much inferior labor. In 1920 the climax was reached when experienced men deserted the railroad service in appalling numbers. The ranks were filled with any class of labor that could be secured, without regard to previous railroad experience, but in the face of these seemingly insurmountable difficulties, the net train load was maintained at a point equal to the 1919 high record and with a splendid chance of making a new high mark.

Another article appearing in the same magazine (p. 7), "Curtis Bay piers again break all records for coal loading," details the increase in car-loading efficiency at the Curtis Bay coal piers from 424 cars in 24 hours on the first day that record was kept, in September, 1919, to 1,082 cars or 52,790 tons on October 26. The details in the exact language of the Baltimore and Ohio Magazine, are quoted as follows:

Way out in Brunswick officials had been planning, and are still planning, and employees had been working, and are still working, to shoot the long steel trains of coal into the Curtis Bay yard in such classification as to yard facilities, pools of coal and other factors entering into the situation, as to bring about the highest efficiency.

All along the line from Brunswick to tidewater thousands of factors operate to facilitate the movement of the trains. Men must not only handle their routine work

well but be able to make the right decision and the right movement in an emergency. Adequate motive power has to be available—and this is no small job in these days of locomotive shortage. The men in the Curtis Bay yard have to be on the job to get the best results out of the track facilities. The complicated and expensive machinery at the coal pier must be kept in prime condition to prevent any breaking down of the plant. Finally, supervision must see to it that there is a nice adjustment between the dumping of the coal and docking of the coal boats at the piers.

On September 16, 1919, the first big dumping record was hung up at the new and old piers at Curtis Bay, 424 cars in 24 hours.

On April 20 this record was eclipsed, when 655 cars were dumped and loaded.

On October 12, the 734 cars handled showed a further handsome increase in efficiency.

On October 19, 910 cars had been handled and every indication pointed to a record of 1,000 cars on that day when just one little thing went wrong. One man fell down on his job, a nut which he should have been watching backed off an eccentric strap bolt, and the resulting delay prevented the 1,000 car record being reached.

Generally speaking, it was what railroaders call "a refinement in operation" that made possible the record-breaking dumping of 1,082 cars, 52,790 tons, on October 26.

1. The coal dumping machinery was right.
2. The boats were docked at the pier with little delay.
3. Coal of the proper pools was available and was properly classified in the yard to enable its being sent up the hill tracks leading to the dumpers without delay.
4. Motive power was available in the yard to move the cars promptly from the empty tracks.

Industrial Activity in Pennsylvania.

UNDER direction of the Department of Internal Affairs of the State of Pennsylvania the Bureau of Statistics and Information is collecting regularly industrial statistics of various counties and important manufacturing cities of the State, making the information available to the public through the press. A series of these reports covering 11 counties and 17 industrial cities and the State as a whole, issued at various dates between May 28 and November 17, 1920, has recently come to this bureau. For the most part these reports cover the year 1919, but in practically every instance as affecting the counties and the State as a whole, the figures for 1916 are also given for purposes of comparison, that year being considered a "fairly normal year." In a few instances partial records of 1917 and 1918 are included, but it is remarked that comparison of 1919 with these years is hardly fair owing to the stimulus of war orders. In the case of the cities the record for 1919 only is given in these reports.

In the State as a whole the number of plants in operation decreased from 20,961 in 1916 to 20,888 in 1919, the peak being in 1917 when 22,101 were operated. The average days worked by each plant was 275 in 1919 and 287 in 1916. In spite of this fact the total value of the products increased from \$6,419,410,000 in 1916 to \$8,853,047,600 in 1919, or a percentage increase of 37.9. Pennsylvania industries gave employment in 1919 to 1,523,609 people, of whom 1,019,830, or 66.9 per cent, were Americans (white), 52,768, or 3.5 per cent, were Negroes, and 451,011 or 29.6 per cent, were foreigners. These figures represent a decrease from 1918 of 204,283, or 16.6 per cent, in the number of Americans (white), of 3,611, or 6.4 per cent, in the colored workers, of 95,598, or 17.5 per cent, in the number of foreigners, and of 16.6 per cent, in the total number of employees. Data for 1916 are not given in the report covering the State except as to total number

of employees, there being 1,735,543 in that year, or 13.9 per cent more than in 1919. The number of minors employed in 1919 was 21,327, or 3,867 less than in 1918, and 2,009 more than in 1916. Notwithstanding the reduction in the number of employees in 1919 as compared with 1916 the pay roll total in 1919 was 45.6 per cent greater than in 1916. In 1919 the total amount of pay roll was \$1,864,427,100, while it was \$2,217,272,900 in 1918 and \$1,280,694,200 in 1916. The average annual earnings of workers in 1916 was \$737.93; in 1919 this had increased to \$1,223.70.

Employment of Negroes in Pennsylvania Industries.

EXACT statistics for 1916 are not available in the Pennsylvania reports covering the State as a whole, but it is stated that the number of Negroes employed in 1919 was 52 per cent more than in 1916. Reports covering seven of the eleven counties for which figures for both 1916 and 1919 are given bear out this proportion, the number of Negroes being about 82 per cent more in 1919 than in 1916. In 1919 (based on reports from 8 counties) there were 15,341 less foreigners employed in Pennsylvania industries than in 1916, the total being 125,081 in the former year and 140,422 in 1916, and the per cent of decrease being 10.9.

This information is set forth in the following table. The validity of a strict comparison of the number of employees in 1919 with 1916 is somewhat impaired because of the difference in the number of plants reporting in each year.

INCREASE IN NUMBER OF PLANTS AND NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES IN SPECIFIED COUNTIES IN PENNSYLVANIA, 1919 OVER 1916.

County.	Number of plants.		Number of employees.							
	1916	1919	1916				1919			
			White (native).	Colored.	For- eigners.	Total.	White (native).	Colored.	For- eigners.	Total.
Allegheny.....	2,456	2,580	115,495	7,897	96,668	220,060	121,381	14,610	85,630	221,621
Armstrong.....	146	165	5,114	163	6,121	11,398	5,563	214	5,411	11,188
Bedford.....	61	65	1,623	49	256	1,928	2,243	34	251	2,528
Berks.....		727				38,376	39,505	269	4,317	44,091
Bradford.....	120	100	2,276	9	255	2,504	4,617	21	417	5,055
Cameron.....	22	20	2,630	91	622	3,343	645	31	102	778
Cumberland.....	141	151	3,987	20	13	4,020	4,928	51	20	4,997
Dauphin.....	299	301				25,450	21,906	1,741	3,696	27,343
Erie.....	439	462	16,187	(²)	6,584	22,771	19,008	(³)	5,570	25,178
Fulton.....	7	6	14			14	109		4	113
Lackawanna.....	469	522	25,109	18	29,903	55,030	35,491	47	27,676	63,214
Total.....	4,160	5,099	172,435	8,247	140,422	384,894	255,994	17,018	133,094	406,106

¹ This is not the sum of the items but is the figure given in the report.

² Erie County reported 16,187 Americans but did not state what proportion is colored and the number has been included as white.

³ Erie County reported 19,608 Americans but did not state what proportion is colored, and the number has been included as white.

Building Activity in Pennsylvania.

THREE of the reports include statistics as to building activity. In reference to Pittsburgh the report on Allegheny County states:

There were 3,268 building permits issued in Pittsburgh in 1919, representing a total cost for new buildings of \$11,000,236. One hundred and ninety-five of these were for miscellaneous structures, costing \$420,000. Permits were granted for the erection of 87 manufacturing plants and business houses at a total cost of \$2,400,000. There were 810 dwellings provided for at a cost of \$6,250,000. In number of operations the garages surpassed the rest combined, numbering 2,176, costing \$2,170,000, or an average of \$1,000 apiece. In only two wards of the city—the fourteenth and nineteenth—the number of dwellings built exceeded the number of garages.

The number of building permits issued in Harrisburg in 1919 was 478, representing a total value of \$2,733,815, and the number of permits issued in Reading was 584, representing a total cost for new building of \$2,263,325.

Exodus of Labor From Ohio Farms.¹

ACCORDING to a recent survey made by an agricultural statistician of the United States Bureau of Crop Estimates and the Ohio Bureau of Agricultural Statistics, under the direction of the State secretary of agriculture, there was a decrease of 60,000 men and boys over 15 years of age working on farms in Ohio for the year ending June, 1920. The survey covered from 100 to 300 farms in every county of the State. For every man who came back to farm life during the year covered, 7 left farms for other work. It is estimated from the returns that at present 410,000 men and boys are "actually working on farms as compared to 470,000 a year ago and approximately 500,000 three years ago." Seventy thousand were reported as having been hired for wages during the present year, while a year ago there were nearly 100,000. About one-half, therefore, of those who abandoned the farms during the 12 months covered by the survey were hired men.

The survey also shows an estimated total of 29,000 vacant habitable houses on farms this year, compared to 18,000 a year previous. That part of the report covering the number of abandoned farms has not yet been tabulated. The investigation also shows that of the total number of farms in the State which changed hands last year, 80 per cent were purchased by actual farmers who are living on them, while only 20 per cent were purchased for speculation or by men who purchased them to rent to others. The bulk of the farms sold were purchased by native Americans, except in the north-east counties, where the purchase of many farms by persons of foreign birth is reported.

The Danish Federation of Trade Unions on the Labor Situation.²

A FEW weeks ago the president of the Employers' Association, in a long speech before a general meeting of the association, declared that the Danish employers would have to oppose all demands for further increase in wages, "no matter what the cost," if Danish industries are to continue in existence. Also the principle of

¹ United States Department of Agriculture. Monthly Crop Reporter, November, 1920, p. 123.

² Data from United States minister at Copenhagen, dated Nov. 1, 1920.

the eight-hour day, which had proved far too expensive, would have to be revised.

The workmen's reply to this "declaration of war" was given in a number of resolutions adopted by a meeting of representatives of the Federation of Trade-Unions held in Copenhagen during the past week. One of these resolutions inveighs against the "malicious attacks of capitalistic circles on the working class," among these the assertion that the workmen have obtained much higher increases in wages than justified by the rise of the cost of living. "With a few exceptions," the resolution claims "the wages obtained have not kept abreast of the rising prices, and the workers' organizations will be fully justified in claiming increases to meet the rise of the price level since the last agreement and for whatever further rises may occur. The best means to avoid continued demands for higher wages will undoubtedly be price-regulating measures, by which not only a further rise of prices may be escaped, but also by which the present high-price level may be brought down, chiefly through a limitation of the sales profits. Therefore it should be the duty of the Government to see to it that the necessary steps for this purpose be taken. Otherwise the Government will have to bear the full responsibility for the serious situation in which the country may be placed in the days to come."

The resolution further protests against the assertion that the workers do not put in a sufficient amount of work in their eight-hour day, and declares that any attempt to deprive the workers of the cultural progress they have won through the introduction of the eight-hour day will be met with the most energetic resistance. "Besides, considering that at present over 11,000 workers are out of employment, and that this figure will probably grow rapidly in the near future, any lengthening of the working hours will be unjustifiable both from the point of view of the workers and from that of the entire community." In this connection the resolution points out the necessity of having the eight-hour day established by law in conformity with the decision of the Washington conference.

Shop Councils.

THE meeting of union representatives unanimously adopted a proposal for an agreement between the employers' association and the Federation of Trades Unions concerning the introduction of shop councils. The proposal is to the following effect:

In every work shop with a minimum of five employees all workers over 15 years shall choose a shop council for the term of one year. Only persons over 21 years of age who have been employed in the particular shop for at least six months are eligible. The size of the councils is to be fixed in proportion to the number of workers employed in the shops—not less than 3 and not exceeding 10. Moreover, the councils shall be assisted by "trusted men," where such are found. The shop council shall be entitled to collaboration in all questions concerning the justified interests of the workers. Dismissal of members of a shop council shall not occur unless justified by lack of work in their particular line or by such commissions on their part as are not dependent on their functions as members of the shop council.

It shall be the duty of the shop councils to safeguard the rights granted the workmen by their agreements and to take action in such cases as those mentioned below. In their functions the shop councils shall always consider the good relations between the various workers and between employer and employees, as well as their common interest in the progress of the concern.

In conjunction with the employers the shop councils shall give their attention to the prevention of accidents and of insanitary conditions and shall assist the authorities who are charged with the elimination of these dangers.

More especially the shop councils shall assist (1) in employments and dismissals in the concern; (2) in change of working methods; (3) in fixing reduced working hours on account of reduced work and in fixing rules for overtime, night, or holiday work in case of urgency; (4) in making up the accounts of the concern and in making dispositions as to its operations; (5) in adjusting disputes concerning wages between the employer and the individual workman; (6) in fixing the succession of vacations. Moreover, the shop councils shall be entitled (7) to a voice in determining questions relative to the training and treatment of apprentices; (8) to interference where the requisite means or measures for the prevention of accidents or insanitary conditions are lacking; (9) to attempt to adjust disputes of any kind. The shop councils may convene the workmen inside or outside the work shops.

Meetings shall not be convened during working hours unless urgently necessary, and not without knowledge of the employer or his representative. The employer may be present as advisor at any of the meetings held on the premises of the shop. He must furnish all necessary information to the shop council for the elucidation of a question.

Representatives of the organizations of employers and workmen concerned may attend the negotiations between employers and shop councils, and may not be excluded by either of the parties.

All questions which can not be adjusted by the shop councils may be referred to the decision of a joint meeting of the respective organizations and, possibly, to the vocational arbitration courts or to the permanent court of arbitration.

Unemployment and Vacations.

THE trade unions' representatives' meeting, furthermore, adopted an appeal to be made to the Government and the Rigsdag urging them to counteract unemployment, shortage of dwellings, and the constant rise of prices.

In regard to the question of the workmen's vacations the assemblage sanctioned a proposal made by the executive committee under which any worker having been in a shop for at least six months without intermission is entitled to a vacation of six working days, together with two Sundays. Having been in the shop for over two years he is entitled to two weeks' vacation. If such an arrangement interferes with the running of the shop, the vacations will have to be fixed by special agreement. During his vacation the worker is to be paid his regular wage if he is doing time work; if piece work the average wage for the last 12 weeks.

Industrial Recovery in the Devastated Regions of France.¹

RAPID progress in the past 15 months has been made toward the resumption of industrial activity in those sections of France which were within the war zone. The Bureau of Industrial Reconstruction has taken a census in the 10 invaded departments of industrial establishments which before the war employed at least 20 persons. On October 1, 1920, 4,241 of these establishments had been listed, of which 3,239, or 76.6 per cent, were found to have resumed work either wholly or in part. Before hostilities about 29 per cent of French labor was employed and about 17 per cent of the industries were located in this section of the country.

Among the departments which were more particularly industrial provinces the department of Ardennes stood at the head, with 83.9 per cent of its establishments at work. The department of Meurthe-et-Moselle followed, with 83.1 per cent of its industries working, the Nord 80.5 per cent, Pas-de-Calais 74.5 per cent, the Marne 74.3 per cent, and the Vosges 73.1 per cent. In the district of Lille 87.8 per cent of the industrial establishments had resumed operations. The rapidity with which the industries are being restored is shown by the fact that on July 1, 1919, only 9.7 per cent of the companies had resumed work, and in 15 months the proportion had increased to almost 45 per cent.

The situation is particularly good in the chemical industries, which now employ 54.2 per cent of their prewar forces. The textile industry and the metal trades show 50 per cent of their former numbers employed and the stone and pottery works 48.2 per cent.

The percentage of the former personnel now employed is greatest in the department of the Vosges, where 59.6 per cent are at work. The department of the Nord has returned 53.1 per cent to industry, Meurthe-et-Moselle 51.5 per cent, and the Ardennes 44.4 per cent, while the district of Lille leads the cities with 64 per cent of the number employed in 1914 back in industrial life.

Industrial Depression in Japan.²

RECENT advices have been received from Tokyo indicating a general business depression in Japan. Last August postal savings deposits were reduced 15,000,000 yen (\$7,477,500, par), notwithstanding the country-wide efforts to encourage this form of thrift. The Moji section of the railroad department was reported as about to discharge 1,000 employees because of the decrease in freight traffic. These workmen received an average annual wage of 600 yen (\$299.10, par). At the close of last August 80 ships were idle, and the number was growing. In Tokyo automobile sales had fallen off 70 per cent. Wages in Kobe and Osaki decreased 15 per cent in August, and in the same month a large department store discharged 300 employees.

With reference to the cost of production in Japan, which is of importance to American manufacturers, the United States trade com-

¹ Dans les régions dévastées. La République Française, November 6, 1920, p. 2.

² Data taken from Commerce Reports for Nov. 16, 1920, p. 750, Washington, D. C.

missioner in that country states that with the increased cost of raw materials and labor, the inefficiency of labor, and reduced production occasioned by the proposed shorter hours, it is a question whether production costs in Japan will be lower than in America. To meet this situation Japanese cotton mills are importing Koreans, and it may be expected that the Japanese will erect factories in Manchuria, Korea, and China, to secure labor which will accept lower wages.

Labor Conditions in the Cotton Textile Industry of Mexico.

ACCORDING to a report on the cotton textile industry of Mexico, published in Commerce Reports (Washington) for October 29, 1920 (pp. 473-475), there were in 1843 57 cotton textile plants operating 125,000 spindles and producing 700,000 pieces (25 meters (27.3 yards) long) of cotton cloth, known as *manta* and used almost entirely as clothing for the Indian population. At the end of the fiscal year 1913 there were 144 factories operating 750,000 spindles, using 32,821,205 kilograms (72,358,285 pounds) of raw cotton, and turning out 13,210,034 pieces of cotton sheeting, prints, percale, etc. There were in that year 27,000 looms and 51 printing machines in operation, giving employment to 32,600 operatives. As to the labor conditions in the industry, the report may be quoted as follows:

The managers, foremen, dyers, weavers, etc., are Europeans, French, and Spanish in the main, but some Germans and a few Mexicans are found in these positions. They are, as a rule, trained men, brought from the large mills in Spain, France, and Germany. The operatives are, of course, Mexican, mostly Indians, and they are about as efficient as their wages indicate. At a recent hearing before the board of conciliation in Mexico City it was stated that the average wage paid the operatives in Orizaba was 1.83 pesos, or about 92 cents United States currency, per day. Their capacity for production in comparison with workmen of this country may be gauged by a comparison of wages paid to each. The labor problem, however, has been a serious one to the industry, and frequently prolonged strikes have served greatly to curtail production. A study of article 123 of the Mexican Constitution of 1917 will explain the labor unrest and radicalism which have been so noticeable in Mexico since 1917. It has been impossible to enforce labor legislation based on the Constitution with entire satisfaction to both capital and labor.

Labor Conditions in Portugal.¹

ACCORDING to the American consul at Oporto, Portugal, the labor supply in the agricultural sections of that district is beginning to feel the effect of the unparalleled emigration. The emigration from the Oporto district to the United States amounts to about 1,000 persons a month, and there is probably a larger number of emigrants to Brazil. There was a considerable labor shortage during September for work in harvesting the crops. This labor shortage is also felt in the fishing districts, from which large numbers have emigrated to the United States. The class of workmen emigrating to the United States is the best labor of the country in all lines, and the number of emigrants is steadily increasing.

¹ Data furnished by the American consul at Oporto, under date of Oct. 14, 1920, and by the American consul general at Lisbon under date of Oct. 25.

There is considerable unrest and dissatisfaction among the organized laborers, reports the consul. Two strikes of considerable importance, as both affected transportation facilities, took place in September, 1920. One of these strikes involved the stevedores and bargemen of the River Douro and the port of Leixões, and for two weeks all navigation at this port was tied up. This strike was a demonstration of sympathy with the workers of the same categories who were striking in Lisbon. The strike was settled on October 10.

The other strike was of railroad workers. This strike began in the latter part of September on the Minho and Douro system, which serves the country lying in the valleys of the Minho and Douro Rivers and connects with Spanish lines. The strike spread and now includes practically all the railway systems in this consular district. Units of army engineers are operating a few trains, but there is a great freight congestion. Great dissatisfaction is felt by the merchants and manufacturers over this strike, and all commercial establishments in Oporto were closed for one day as a protest against the strike. A mass meeting of protest was forbidden by the civil governor as a clash between the strikers and protesters was feared. The demands of the strikers include a 200 per cent wage increase. There are no indications of an early settlement of this strike.

The American consul general reports (Oct. 25, 1920) that following strikes of the Lisbon street cleaners and of the longshoremen, the railroad men came out on strike four weeks ago, and that this strike still continues.

He states that the causes of all of these strikes were economic. The workers, paid with a steadily depreciating paper currency, found the purchasing power of their wages constantly decreasing, for, as the depreciation of the paper currency progressed, shopkeepers consistently raised their prices in order to save themselves from loss.

The railroads, however, which were working under heavy expenses on account of the exceedingly high prices, in Portugal, of imported coal and oil, were running on such a small margin of profit that to have acceded to the demands of their men would have meant for them grave financial loss, unless they themselves proceeded to raise their tariffs.

According to reports published in the papers on October 25, one very important railroad company had just announced that beginning the previous day its rates would be increased by a surtax of 200 per cent over the current rates in force, and it was further announced that this surtax would also be applicable to the tariff of all the State railroad lines.

HOUSING.

The Housing Situation in England.

AT THE close of the war England faced an acute shortage of housing, which was felt most severely by the working classes. Roughly speaking, a working-class house was one which could be let, with a fair return on the money invested, at an annual rental of £20 (\$97.33, par) or less. For a number of years before the war, the number of such houses built annually varied from 60,000 to 100,000, the average for the years from 1900 to 1910 being 80,000.¹ The construction of houses practically stopped during the war, so that at the lowest estimate there must have been a deficit of from 300,000 to 400,000 working-class houses by the end of 1918. But the cessation of house building was not the only trouble; during the war years little or nothing was done in the way of necessary repairs to houses or in eliminating slums, so that in addition to the actual shortage of houses the situation was complicated by the bad condition of numbers of the dwellings in use.

There are in this country at the present time at least 70,000 houses quite unfit for habitation, and a further 300,000 which are seriously defective. This position has to be dealt with in addition to the shortage due to arrears of building. People must continue to live in these defective dwellings until something better is provided. There are about 3,000,000 people living in overcrowded conditions, i. e., more than two in a room, and in the area covered by the London County Council, their return showed 758,000 living under these dreadful conditions.²

The difficulty of the position was enormously increased by the rise in building costs. Even before the war it had been recognized that certain classes of the community—e. g., agricultural laborers in some districts—simply could not pay an economic rent. It was evident that with the higher cost of building in the post-war period this incapacity would extend to a considerable portion of the working classes. Either hundreds of thousands must dwell in dangerously overcrowded and insanitary houses, or some means must be found of providing houses at a loss. As early as the summer of 1917 the Government recognized this situation, and accepted the responsibility for seeing that houses were so provided. In July, 1917, the Government sent out a circular letter, from which the following paragraphs are taken:

Realizing that private enterprise, to which we owe approximately 95 per cent of our house building prior to the war, will be quite unable to grapple successfully and speedily with this arrear, he [the president of the local government board] has come to the conclusion that for the years immediately following the war it will be necessary to rely far more than in the past upon local authorities to provide the houses required, with their road, water, and drainage accompaniments.

¹ Housing at the Close of the War, by H. R. Aldridge, London, p. 3.

² The Housing Problem, by J. J. Clarke, London, 1920, p. 204.

Having brought the matter before the war cabinet, Mr. Fisher is now authorized to say that the Government recognizes that it will be necessary to afford substantial financial assistance from public funds to those local authorities who are prepared to carry through, without delay, at the conclusion of the war, a program of housing for the working classes which is approved by the local government board.³

Other documents issued at intervals by the Government during the following years, outlined tentative plans for a partnership in loss between the Government and the local authorities, but a number of points were still unsettled when the armistice was signed. Meanwhile, the whole housing problem was transferred to the Ministry of Health, under which a special housing department was formed.

Housing Policy of the Government.

THE signing of the armistice, with its implied promise of speedy demobilization, gave new urgency to the housing problem. In the confusion of the first few months of the reconstruction period action on this, as on many other questions, was delayed, but by March, 1919, a bill was introduced, which was passed and became effective July 31, 1919, giving the Ministry of Health new powers and setting forth the extent and conditions of the aid the Government would give the local authorities in providing new houses. It soon became evident that this bill would not be as effective as had been hoped, and another bill was passed in December, 1919, extending its terms. These two together may be regarded as representing the Government's housing policy. Some important points were as follows:

1. Action by the local authorities, which had formerly been permitted, was made compulsory. England and Wales were divided into 11 districts, each having a housing commissioner, responsible to the central staff of the housing department, whose duty it should be to work in cooperation with the local authorities to forward the provision of houses.

2. The local authorities must at once make a survey of the housing needs of their districts, and submit to the Ministry of Health a scheme for providing for these needs, or some of them, this latter provision being intended to allow the authorities to begin building without waiting for the completion of the survey. Concerning these schemes the following conditions were laid down:

A scheme under this section shall specify—

- (a) The approximate number and nature of the houses to be provided by the local authority.
- (b) The approximate quantity of land to be acquired and the localities in which the land is to be acquired.
- (c) The average number of houses per acre.
- (d) The time within which the scheme or any part thereof is to be carried into effect.

Proposals by other bodies and persons for providing housing accommodation must be taken into account by both the central and the local authorities.

3. The local authorities must raise the money to carry out these schemes except that in small districts where the taxable value of property is low, the ministry might, under certain conditions, make a loan for building purposes.

³ Quoted in *Housing at the Close of the War*, by H. R. Aldricdge, London, p. 6.

4. The Government, through the Ministry of Health, would become responsible for that portion of the yearly loss on houses built under its conditions which could not be covered by a tax, to be imposed by the local authorities, of 1 penny on the pound. It was assumed that by 1927 post-war prices would reach a normal level. At that date there was to be a readjustment, and thereafter the liability of the Government was to be limited to the loss involved in the difference between the economic rent of the houses, if they had been built at the new price level, and their actual rent. Of this loss, the Government would assume whatever part was not met by the tax of a penny on the pound.

5. Special subsidies were offered to public utility societies, and direct grants to private persons, who would put up houses of approved types which might be used to relieve the housing shortage.

Progress of the Housing Campaign.

BY THE beginning of 1920, then, elaborate machinery had been set up to meet the housing needs. A housing department had been organized, regional commissioners established all over England and Wales, local authorities had been summoned to survey their districts and present plans for their housing needs, the general Government was prepared to bear a part of the loss involved, specifications as to the kind of houses which would be accepted had been made public, loans and subsidies had been guaranteed to public utility societies, and direct grants of money promised to private persons, upon their completion of working-class houses of approved types. The preliminary surveys were practically completed, showing a need within the immediate future of 800,000 houses, schemes were being submitted by the local authorities, contracts were being let, and while it was admitted that there had necessarily been delay in starting, it was believed that the machinery was now in good working order, and that results would appear with gratifying rapidity. In February Dr. Addison, the minister of health, estimated that "if building labor were available" 100,000 houses ought to be completed by the end of 1920 and 200,000 in the following year.⁴

These hopes were far from being realized. On October 20, 1920, in answer to a question in the House of Commons, Dr. Addison gave the following statement of progress:

On October 1 the number of houses completed was 10,042. Of these 7,448 were provided by local authorities and public utility societies under the housing act; the remaining 2,594 were built by private persons under the subsidy scheme of the housing (additional powers) act. This figure does not include 1,238 army huts converted into dwelling houses by local authorities.

In addition to these completed houses, there were under construction on October 1, 59,520 houses. Of these, 39,898 were being built by local authorities and public utility societies, and we have full particulars of their progress. The remaining 19,622 are houses for which preliminary certificates have been issued by local authorities to private builders under the subsidy scheme.

The number of houses covered by signed contracts amounts to 111,883.

Tenders have been approved for 148,158 houses.⁵

⁴ Questions in Parliament, Feb. 26, 1920.

⁵ Housing (London) Oct. 25, 1920, p. 115.

Charges as to Responsibility for Delay.

A TOTAL of 10,000 houses completed and approximately 60,000 more under construction nearly two years after the armistice was admittedly disappointing, but when it came to the question of placing the responsibility there was much disagreement. There were charges and countercharges, the delay being variously attributed to governmental red tape, to the holding up of supplies by profiteers, to restriction of output by workers, to trade-union opposition to dilution, to the diversion of building labor to the so-called luxury building, and to the indifference of the Government and the local authorities to the needs of the people. Out of the mass of recriminations emerge two distinct groups of charges—one directed against the Government and the other against the trade-unions of building workers. In the main, the charges center around three points—the supply of money, the supply of materials, and the supply of labor. The complaints concerning money were directed mainly against the Government; those concerning the shortage of materials involved the Government, the workers, and the profiteers, and those concerning the supply of labor gave rise to a bitterly contested dispute between the Government and the unions which is not yet settled.

Taking these in the order given, there has been strong criticism of the Government's decision that the local authorities must themselves raise the money for the building schemes which it is compulsory upon them to carry out. It is said that there would have been a saving of time, effort, and expense if the Government had raised one central housing fund, loaning this out to the local authorities as needed. As it is, since the credit of the local authorities is not so great as that of the Government, they have to pay a higher rate of interest, and in each district the time and effort of salaried officials must be devoted to raising a local loan. As there are over 1,800 local authorities, the duplication of effort is considerable. Moreover, the poorer a district is and the more urgently it needs new houses, the greater is its difficulty in raising funds—a situation which would have been avoided if the Government had undertaken to raise the money.

To this the Government makes two replies: First, that those in touch with the financial situation know that it would have been disastrous for the Government to undertake raising the money needed; and second, that raising the money in the district where it is to be spent tends to cultivate local patriotism and develop the sense of communal responsibility. The campaign for the sale of housing bonds especially may be useful in these ways.

In addition to these complaints about the means of financing the schemes, the objectors also claim that the method of Government supervision and control involves much waste of time. Schemes and estimates must be submitted to the housing department for approval, and if it is not satisfied with both plans and terms, revisions must be made and criticisms met—a process which takes time. Also, contracts must be approved before they can be signed, and the housing department may refuse its sanction because it dislikes some particular feature of the arrangement, or may insist upon making the bargain itself at a serious cost in time. For example, the Manchester housing

committee definitely ascribes the delay in securing houses to the methods of the Ministry of Health. In December, 1919, the committee estimated that Manchester needed 7,000 houses per annum for four years to make up its housing deficiency.

At that time the housing committee was anxious to place contracts for the building of brick houses with the local contractors, but the Ministry of Health, with a great belief in its own superior efficiency, prohibited the committee from making contracts, and intimated that it preferred to conduct its own negotiations through the district commissioner. Time sped, and in the following February the ministry had to confess that all its efforts had ended in failure. The housing committee then set to work as promptly as possible to arrange its own contracts. * * * But when the committee tried to place contracts the ministry discovered that the types of houses were too expensive, although it had previously approved them.⁶

The ministry admit that delay is involved in the submission of all schemes and contracts to them for approval, but claim that the financial saving thereby secured justifies this. Particularly, they say, is this true where land has to be acquired for a building scheme. In such cases they have found again and again that a wholly unreasonable price has been placed upon the land, and by refusing to sanction this they have saved the taxpayers heavy additions to the cost of schemes. As to the charges of unnecessary delay and interference they say nothing.

The scarcity and high price of building materials have given rise to angry charges against both the Government and the workers. One group holds that the whole trouble is due to profiteering, and that the Government should at the close of the war, have taken charge of the production of building materials, as it did during the war of the production of munitions, and have seen that what was necessary was produced promptly and at a reasonable price. Another group holds with equal conviction that the trouble is due to restriction of output by the workers in the various trades, and that the Government should take steps, the precise nature of these steps not being indicated, to end slacking on the job. Apparently, the scarcity of materials has not been so troublesome as the high price they have reached, which adds seriously to the cost of building. In October, 1920, the minister of health publicly stated that with few exceptions, the supply of building materials in the country is sufficient for the housing program,⁷ so that future delays can not be attributed to a lack in this direction. The cost, however, remains a serious item. A table published by the Housing Department shows that in the spring of 1920 the cost of materials and the cost of labor needed for the construction of one of the approved types of cottages were each approximately 170 per cent higher than in 1914.⁸

But the most vehement charges and countercharges have developed around the third difficulty—the labor supply. Here the issue is sharply drawn between the Government and the trade-unions, each charging the other with responsibility for the delay in providing houses. General charges that the workers were restricting output have been common for some time past, but in addition the Government has within the current-year claimed with growing emphasis that there are not enough building-trade workers in the country to meet

⁶ Manchester (England) Guardian, Oct. 27, 1920.

⁷ Housing, Oct. 25, 1920.

⁸ Idem, Sept. 13, 1920, p. 64.

the needs of the industry, and that the unions must accept both dilution and a system of payment by output. Apparently the claim concerning restrictions on output is not supported by definite evidence; as to the insufficiency of workers, the Government points to the undeniable falling off in the number of men in the trades since 1914, and presents the following table of the men needed as compared with those to be had. It is estimated that for each completed house the number of men needed for a year will be two when the scheme includes the construction of roads, sewers, etc., and 1.6 where no such construction is necessary.

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF MEN REQUIRED TO BUILD HOUSES AT THE RATE OF 200,000 PER ANNUM, AND NUMBER OF MEN AVAILABLE OCTOBER, 1919.¹

Trade.	Estimated number of men required to build houses at the rate of 200,000 per annum, based on—			Number of men available October, 1919. ²
	2 men per house.	1.6 men per house.	1.5 men per house.	
Bricklayers	64,800	51,840	48,600	50,993
Carpenters and joiners	55,800	44,640	41,850	104,441
Painters	11,000	8,800	8,250	93,597
Plasterers	22,000	17,600	16,500	11,671
Plumbers	9,600	7,680	7,200	30,098
Slaters	6,800	5,440	5,100	2,643
Total	170,000	136,000	127,500	293,443

¹ Housing, Mar. 29, 1920, p. 250.

² Ministry of Labor return, October, 1919.

This, it is argued, shows in several trades an absolute insufficiency of skilled men for the housing program, to say nothing of the other building needs of the country, a shortage which must be remedied before the needs of the people can be satisfied. To meet the situation the Government proposes that the building trades shall consent to an increase in the number of their skilled men by "the grading up of unskilled men, the training of ex-service men, and the resumption of apprenticeships extended to older men," and that they shall also accept a system of payment by results—in other words, a piece-work system. In return for these concessions, the Government proposes to guarantee men on housing schemes part-time wages when they are prevented from working by stress of weather.

The unions object to payment by results as tending to break down collective bargaining, substituting for it direct negotiations between the individual worker and his employer. One of the arguments brought forward by its advocates indicates clearly, according to the standpoint of the unions, the dangers in this system:

I want to see the unions grading their members according to capacity, and I want to see the best of the men taking piecework and employing those in the lower grades upon it.⁹

Of course, such an arrangement leads easily to all the objectionable features of subcontracting and the sweating system.

As to dilution, the attitude of the unions results naturally from conditions prevailing before the war. For a number of years the

⁹ Letter from secretary of Royal Institute of British Architects, published in Housing, Oct. 11, 1920, p. 99.

building trades had been overcrowded, with the result that unemployment had been common, and underemployment general. Conditions had become so bad that the natural flow of apprentices into the trade had almost stopped, while numbers of skilled workers emigrated, so that there was a marked decrease in the number of workers even before the war. For four consecutive periods, the number in five of the skilled trades was as follows:¹⁰

NUMBER IN SPECIFIED BUILDING TRADES IN 1901, 1911, 1914, AND 1920.

Trade.	1901	1911	1914	1920
Bricklayers.....	115,995	102,752	73,671	53,063
Joiners.....	265,000	208,995	126,345	108,199
Masons.....	73,012	52,188	34,381	19,310
Plasterers.....	31,301	25,082	19,479	12,067
Slaters.....	9,796	8,391	4,154	3,673

By 1914 several of these trades showed less than half of their numbers in 1901, but even so, the building trades were in a bad way at the beginning of the war. During the next four years their ranks were thinned by the casualties of war, as well as by the natural losses through age or death or transfer to other industries, so that, at the close of the war, at a time when there were unexampled demands upon the building trades, they had fewer members than for decades past. The unions admitted that a reasonable increase in numbers was desirable, but they were not willing to return to the overstaffed and underemployed conditions prevailing before the war. If wholesale dilution were permitted, they argued, there might be employment enough for a few years to keep everybody busy, but what about the years when the building boom should have spent itself? Before they would consent to break down all their trade-union safeguards, they wanted some guaranty against future unemployment, and they regarded the Government's promise of part-time pay for time lost on housing work through bad weather as entirely inadequate. Negotiations with the Government over this point have been going on for some months, but so far not much progress has been made.

Meanwhile the unions charge the Government with the deliberate intention of using the housing necessities of the people as a handle against trade-union customs and of permitting, if not encouraging, unnecessary delays for the purpose of rousing feeling against the unions. Commenting on the statement presented by Dr. Addison (see p. 218), they point out that the number of houses for which contracts have been approved is even yet far short of 200,000, and that it can not fairly be said that the housing plans of to-day are being held up because there is not at present a sufficient supply of labor to carry out the plans of next year or the year after that. Also, they claim that the Government has made little effort to avail itself of its power to divert labor from luxury building to the housing schemes, and in proof of this they point to figures submitted by Dr. Addison himself in response to a question in the House. Being asked what proportion of the building workers in England and Wales

¹⁰ Commerce Reports (Washington), No. 268, Nov. 13, 1920, p. 716. Report of Consul H. C. Claiborn, London, Oct. 18, 1920.

were employed on State-aided housing schemes of local authorities and public utility societies, Dr. Addison gave these figures:¹¹

TOTAL NUMBER OF MEN EMPLOYED IN THE BUILDING INDUSTRY OR ON THE CONSTRUCTION OF WORKS, JANUARY, 1920, AND NUMBER EMPLOYED ON STATE-AIDED HOUSING SCHEMES, JUNE 30, 1920.

Trade.	Total number of men employed—	
	In building industry or on construction of works, January, 1920.	On State-aided housing schemes, June 30, 1920.
Bricklayers.....	53,063	7,031
Carpenters.....	108,199	4,651
Painters.....	97,251	989
Plasterers.....	12,067	1,087
Plumbers.....	31,249	773
Slaters and tilers.....	3,673	569

This shows barely 5 per cent of the building labor of the country employed upon housing schemes. If the Government, with full power to stop luxury building and to withdraw workers from the less essential kinds of commercial building in order to put them on housing, prefers to utilize only one-twentieth of the supply of labor available, the unions feel that it is not fair to hold them responsible for the resultant delay in the progress of the housing schemes.

As a less important indication of the same kind, it is pointed out that there has been for some months past unemployment in the building trade, which is increasing as the fall comes on. According to the Labor Gazette, which publishes monthly reports upon unemployment, since last May the number unemployed in the building trades has never been below 14,000, and in September it was 20,577.

Furthermore, the workers point out that the attitude of the Government toward the building guilds is proof that the Ministry of Health is more anxious to make out a case against the unions than to supply houses. The guilds are associations of the building workers which have been organized to carry out building operations on the guild rather than on the capitalistic system. Some sixty local guilds have already been formed, and in a number of localities they have organized sufficiently to bid for housing contracts. The Ministry of Health at first refused to permit the local authorities to accept the bids put in by guilds on the ground that the latter, being new and untried organizations, might not have sufficient credit to secure the necessary materials, and the scheme might have to be abandoned. The guilds then succeeded in making arrangements whereby the wholesale cooperative societies guaranteed the supply of materials and the cooperative insurance societies guaranteed the local authorities against loss. Terms satisfactory to the Ministry of Health were then worked out, but while sanctioning some contracts of this kind, the ministry have declared that not more than 16 contracts may be let to guilds. As the number of guilds is rapidly increasing, and as they have expressed a warm desire to devote themselves to relieving the housing shortage rather than to engage in ordinary commercial

¹¹ Housing, Sept. 13, 1920, p. 70.

building, the unions ask why, if the desire of the ministry really is to get on with the housing program, this discrimination should be made? There can be no question, they point out, about the ability of the guilds to furnish the workers; they have a monopoly of the building labor of their respective districts, and if a contract is let to them, it will be put through, whatever delay may be caused to private building. The terms offered by the guilds are lower than those of private contractors, since the element of profit making is eliminated, and the cooperative societies insure the authorities against loss. Why, then, limit so drastically the number of contracts which may be thus undertaken? To this query the ministry responds in effect that the guilds are as yet experimental organizations, and that the number of contracts let to them "will be limited until the working of the guild system has been shown to be satisfactory."

Conclusion.

SUCH is the present situation in regard to housing in England. With an estimated need of upward of 800,000 working-class houses, as yet under 20,000 have been erected, and the increasing needs of the people are leading, in some districts, to the seizure of unoccupied houses or public buildings, in which the homeless may settle themselves with varying degrees of discomfort. In a number of districts, the huts used by the army camps during the war have been modified so as to form temporary dwellings, and a bill has been introduced into Parliament, authorizing the commandeering of unoccupied houses suitable for working-class dwellings, and their use for relieving the emergency. As to the outlook for the future, the three main causes for delay assigned, the inherent slowness of governmental action, the high cost of labor and materials, and the dissensions between organized labor and the Government, all seem likely to diminish in importance. As to the first, there is inevitably a great deal of preliminary work involved in any large campaign, and the time devoted to it can not be called lost, even though it shows no immediately apparent results. The presumption is that much of this has now been done, and that the output of houses will be very much greater in the coming months than at any time heretofore. As to the cost of labor and materials, it is reported that a process of deflation has begun in England, as in the United States. And as to the disagreements between labor and the Government, they will probably be materially affected by the results of the building guilds' experiment. Should the guilds fail, the Government's contention will be enormously strengthened, and either the unions will have to give up, or the quarrel will become acute and serious. If, however, the guilds prove themselves able to put up houses cheaply and expeditiously, the Government will have no reason for refusing their offers, and contracts will inevitably be let to them in increasing numbers. This will divert the building labor of the country to the work of housing, so that the effect of any scarcity of such labor which may exist will be felt mainly by the contractors engaged on luxury and commercial building. This will transfer the quarrel over dilution from the Government to the private builders, and whatever developments it may then undergo, it will no longer serve as a cause of delay to the housing program of the country.

STRIKES.

Industrial Controversies in New York State, 1919-20.

THE Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration of the New York Industrial Commission publishes in the October Bulletin of the commission the following figures on strikes and lockouts in that State for the years ending June 30, 1919 and 1920:

	1919.	1920.
Number of strikes and lockouts.....	168	240
Employees involved directly.....	208,952	334,188
Employees involved indirectly.....	2,006	16,403
Aggregate days of working time lost.....	11,346,653	10,608,483

It will be noted that, while the number of strikes and lockouts and the number of employees involved are considerably larger for the latter year, the number of days lost was not so great in 1920 as in 1919. The lower figure for days lost in 1920 is explained by the bureau as due to the fact that the idle time in the majority of disputes was of shorter duration than in 1919.

The principal objects or causes of disputes were as follows:

CAUSES OF INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES IN NEW YORK STATE IN 1919-20.

Principal cause.	Number of disputes.	Number of working days lost.
Increase in wages.....	139	3,803,755
Shorter hours.....	21	1,877,851
Trade unionism.....	37	4,010,988

The chief mediator states that the intervention of the bureau of mediation and conciliation in industrial controversies increased considerably in the year ending June 30, 1920, over preceding years and that the number of requests for intervention was proportionately higher. The mediation policy of the bureau has met with success in a large number of cases, due, it is stated, to the more uniform cooperation of employers and employees.

WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING.

Colorado.¹

A TENTATIVE bill is being drawn up by the governor of Colorado, under which, if enacted, the State labor department will be consolidated with the State industrial commission. The plan contemplates the administration of the work of the bureau of mines, of mine inspectors, plumbing inspectors, boiler inspectors, and oil inspectors, by the industrial commissioners. The employees of the present department are, with the exception of the deputy State labor commissioner, under the civil service.

Louisiana.

THE commissioner of labor and industrial statistics of Louisiana recently caused to be published in a New Orleans paper a warning to employers that the provisions of the Federal child labor law would be strictly enforced, calling attention to the fact that all industries are affected and noting the age limitations for child labor and restrictions as to hours. He says: "I hope it will not be necessary to report violations to Washington, but violations are going to be reported if they come to the attention of this office."

Upon assuming office the commissioner discontinued the custom of collecting wages due workers who complained to the department that they had been unpaid. No authority for such action was found and complaints are now referred to the Legal Aid Society if the amount involved is less than \$50. A law authorizing collections by the department of these unpaid wages is asked of the legislature.

In a recent interview with a representative of the Bureau of Labor Statistics the commissioner outlined the following provisions which he feels should be enacted, some of which are included in his tenth biennial report submitted in May, 1920:

1. The creation of a minimum wage or industrial welfare commission.
2. The appointment of an industrial insurance commission and establishment of a State fund for purposes of workmen's compensation.
3. A system of accident reporting at the time of the accident.
4. A consolidation of city and State factory inspection and an enlargement of the force.
5. The establishment of State free employment agencies.
6. The publication, for free distribution, of a pamphlet containing all the labor laws of the State.
7. Authority to force the payment of wages due.

¹ Source: Typewritten report, under date of Dec. 2, 1920, furnished by the deputy State labor commissioner of Colorado.

Massachusetts.²

THE following recommendations for legislation are made by the Massachusetts department of labor and industries in its first annual report:

Extension of the law regarding employment certificates to include not only children 14 to 16 years of age who may be employed in factories, workshops, manufacturing or mechanical establishments, but also to include such children who outside of school hours may engage in occupations other than those prohibited by statute which now do not require certificates.

Extension of the law regarding educational certificates to cover not only those 16 to 21 years of age who may be employed in factories, workshops, manufacturing or mechanical establishments, but also those who may be employed in other occupations, since such certificates are used as a basis for determining night school attendance of illiterate minors.

A law increasing the penalty for illegal employment of minors.

A law to require hoods on grinding machines to be suitably constructed of material to be approved by the department of labor and industries so as to afford adequate protection to workers using emery grinding wheels, etc.

A law requiring that first-aid, medical, and surgical chests be provided in all mechanical establishments where machinery is used and where the work done is often carried on under conditions causing frequent injury to employees, as well as in factories and shops where machinery is used for manufacturing or any other purposes, except for elevators or for heating or hoisting apparatus, as now provided under existing law.

A law requiring all transportation companies to pay their employees weekly, the present law not covering certain forms of transportation.

Safety Progress.

The rules and regulations for safeguarding woodworking machinery, which were recently approved by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries, went into effect on December 3, 1920. An advisory committee of experts assisted the department in the preparation of these provisions which have been published as Industrial Bulletin No. 16.

As a result of an investigation made by the department into accidents to street and steam railroad employees, it is planned to appoint an industrial safety council to cooperate with such railroads in order to decrease accidents to their employees.

An official investigation is now being made of the health hazards and other working conditions of women in power laundries. The findings in this study will be of assistance in determining whether the laundry industry in Massachusetts requires special rules and regulations.

² Information furnished by the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries under dates of Dec. 3 and 6, 1920.

Pennsylvania.³

A SURVEY of industrial home work was made in October, 1920, under the direction of the chairman of committees on women and children in industry, of the Pennsylvania Industrial Board, to check up a previous investigation of this subject. The findings of this later survey show that "there was no increase or decrease in the total number of home workers since the survey was made in 1917 and 1918, but there was a considerable shifting of occupations."

Because of the many demands upon the Pennsylvania Industrial Board in connection with woman and child wage earners, it has been decided that steps be taken toward the creation, by legislative action, of a bureau of women in industry and child welfare in the department of labor and industry. "It was agreed that the industrial board continue its efforts along this line by establishing such a bureau as an administrative measure for the present purposes."

The industrial relations committee of the board has been directed to "(1) continue its study of the immigration problem, (2) to make a preliminary study of labor camps in Pennsylvania and other States, and (3) to investigate apprenticeship systems in certain States."

A Comprehensive Safety Program.

Pennsylvania's safety program may be summarized as follows:

1. The enforcement of at least 25 specific acts of legislature, notable among them being the acts creating the department of labor and industry, the workmen's compensation board, and bureau of rehabilitation.

2. The placing of responsibility upon employers as well as employees of the Commonwealth, for complying with the requirements of 30 safety standards, and others that are being developed from time to time.

3. Serving the employees, the State officials and manufacturers of safety devices with a means of knowing and approving appliances which are safe for the industries of the Commonwealth. The approved devices, numbering 160, are classified as (a) boiler appliances, (b) elevator appliances, (c) mechanical appliances, machine and woodworking guards, (d) electrical appliances, (e) motion-picture appliances, (f) fire prevention and protection appliances, and (g) miscellaneous safeguards and appliances as antislip treads, no-slip ladder shoes, ladders, etc. These are open to inspection in the department museum.

4. Educational campaigns such as the safety congress and community-wide safety programs, motion-picture entertainments, vocational clinics and the publication of bulletins, posters and pamphlets that "all that run may read," in every industry in the Commonwealth.

5. Cooperation with the department of public education in the instruction on "safety first" in our public schools.

The work of the industrial board in approving safety appliances has grown to such an extent as to necessitate the immediate increase of facilities for testing and for housing the exhibits. The museum now being used in this connection is overcrowded, and devices are being submitted at an "interesting rate." The board reports that its services to the Commonwealth will "take on even greater proportions after the appearance of the first illustrated bulletin on approved appliances."

³ Source: Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry: Bulletin No. 6, 1920 series, Report of the activities of the industrial board; Bulletin No. 7, 1920 series, What Pennsylvania is doing for safety and safety codes; Bulletin of information issued by the (Pennsylvania) industrial board, October, 1920; and printed statement furnished by the commissioner of labor and industry, entitled "Activities of bureau of rehabilitation, Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry, up to Nov. 1, 1920. Harrisburg, Pa.

New Safety Codes.

Safety codes now in operation are being revised, and new codes are being formulated for head and eye protection, sanitation, laundries, housing, and refrigeration. Through the efforts of the commissioner of labor and industry a committee of 10 structural engineers, architects, and building experts have started to draft a long delayed and much discussed building code for Pennsylvania, which it is proposed to have administered by the industrial board. The committee expects to adopt regulations that will protect human life and render safe buildings of all kinds that are constructed in the future in Pennsylvania.⁴

Although the commissioner of labor and industry of Pennsylvania is a member of the national safety codes committee, he does not advocate the State's giving up the work of drafting standards or losing its identity in the larger movement. He declares that—

The best standards for Pennsylvania will always bear the "made in Pennsylvania" stamp. There is ever the danger in pooling interests of losing what might be termed the "personal touch." A national body is sure to become a group of experts, in which the technical side will be emphasized, not intentionally, of course, at the expense of the human interest. Somebody has said that standards to be of the maximum value must be 15 per cent technical and 85 per cent human. The technical or legal must never replace the common-sense viewpoint—this is one of the best features of the Pennsylvania standards.

By this we do not mean that standard making must not rise above the "rule of thumb" method. The technical spirit and the legal thought must be incorporated but only in so far as the industry in which the standard is to apply is educated to the safety idea.

Report of Bureau of Rehabilitation.

From January 1 to November 1, 1920, the bureau of rehabilitation offered its services to 971 persons disabled through industrial accidents, 570 of whom returned their questionnaires to that office, thereby registering with the bureau.

Of these 570 registrants 553 are males and 17 are females; 16 are colored, 97 are illiterate, 322 native-born Pennsylvanians, 51 were born in the United States, outside of Pennsylvania, and 197 were born in foreign countries.

The age groups of the registrants are of considerable interest. Of the total 570 registrants 99 are under 21 years of age, 155 are between 21 and 30, 119 are between 31 and 40, 92 are between 41 and 50, and 105 are over 50 years of age.

Among the persons registered the record of amputations or disablement of parts of the body is as follows: 178 hands, 109 arms, 61 feet, 167 legs, and 48 cases of total blindness. Forty-three of the registrants "are handicapped by disability other than loss of use of parts."

The bureau of rehabilitation, through cooperation with employers and registrants, has made possible the furnishing of 127 artificial appliances to physically handicapped persons, and up to November 1, 1920, was paying weekly maintenance to 32 disabled persons who were taking training courses, the amount varying according to the financial need of the recipient, but not exceeding \$15 per week.

The Pennsylvania Bureau of Rehabilitation is endeavoring to build up accurate experience records for a comprehensive study of the problem of rehabilitation in Pennsylvania, coincident with its activities for definite and genuine assistance of the disabled industrial victims. The bureau, of course, cooperates in close conjunction

⁴ Press release from the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry, Nov. 25, 1920.

with the workmen's compensation bureau of the State, with hospitals, insurance carriers, charitable organizations, employers, educational institutions, labor organizations, granges, and every other agency which can be of cooperative assistance in the genuine fulfillment of a universally applied rehabilitation program.

Philippine Islands.⁵

ONE of the most important functions of the Philippine Bureau of Labor, according to its director, is the inspection of factories, industrial establishments, and other centers through its division of statistics for the purpose of securing information on wages, hours of labor, and sanitary and other working conditions.

In March, 1919, the bureau took up the inspection of industrial machinery in the city of Manila in order to prevent labor accidents.

During the year 1919, 253 centers of labor have been inspected, 49 of which have been duly warned of certain defects found in their machineries. Of the 49 which were duly warned, 29 replied stating their conformity with the suggestions offered by the mechanical inspector of this bureau.

Upon finishing the inspection of machinery in Manila similar work will be carried on in the provinces.

Special Labor Register.

The bureau announces that it has recently added to its numerous activities a special register of laborers, with a view to eradicating the prevailing anomaly created by workmen in contracting pecuniary obligations with certain employers as advance payment for future services which they do not render at all in many cases, as they leave their former employment to accept another in other centers of labor to the detriment of former employers. This work will be carried on by correspondence.

Interisland Migration.

The Philippine Islands have been divided into 12 recruiting districts for the purpose of handling successfully the intermigration of labor. The Bureau of Labor has an employment agency at the head of each district, which is established not only to furnish employment in gainful occupations but to recruit emigrants with their families to settle and cultivate the immense tracts of public agricultural land in Mindanao and other almost unpopulated places where homesteads are easily acquired.

In addition to the circulation of a large amount of propaganda literature to put before the workers the advantages of abandoning congested places and migrating to vacant public lands and the opportunities of eventually becoming home owners, a committee of propaganda has been appointed. This body is composed of influential persons who work without compensation in conjunction with the bureau's recruiting agents. It is reported that from the middle of the year 1909 to December 31, 1919, approximately 35,743 emigrants have been recruited and distributed by the Bureau of Labor.

⁵ Source: Letter under date of Oct. 18, 1920, and inclosures from the Director of the Philippine Bureau of Labor, Manila.

Industrial Disputes.

The law declares that it shall be the duty of the Bureau of Labor "to secure the settlement of difference between employer and laborer, between master and servant, and to avert strikes and lockouts, acting as arbitrator between the parties interested * * *." The director of the bureau reports that "In spite of the unsettled conditions in the world to-day, labor agitation in the Philippine Islands is free from radicalism as being observed in other parts of the world and is confined mostly to the adjustment of fair wages to meet the ever-increasing cost of living and other minor issues. The relation between capital and labor in these islands can not be more harmonious than at the present time."

Texas.⁶

THE enforcement of labor laws is the principal duty of the Texas Bureau of Labor Statistics, which strives to improve working conditions by securing the cooperation of employers. In certain cases, however, prosecution is necessary. In two years there were 143 prosecutions for violation of the 54-hour week for women, 97 in connection with the child-labor law, and 11 with reference to the employment-agency law. There is considerable public indifference as to the enforcement of the State labor laws and a failure to take such legislation seriously, but the bureau is endeavoring to educate the people in this regard by means of circulars and bulletins.

Approximately 15,000 establishments are subject to inspection. Inspectors are usually accorded a courteous reception and "it is not uncommon to have requests made for inspection." Texas has no safety code fixed by law. In two years 1,694 inspections were made, 714 of which being only partial and 980 complete, the latter covering 787 places.

The bureau is not authorized to settle wage claims but has adjusted a number of these cases through correspondence with employers.

The 9-hour day, 54-hour week, law for women is being violated to quite an extent. The commissioner recommends, however, in his annual report, an 8-hour day and a 48-hour week for women.

It is reported that parents frequently make false statements regarding the ages of their children and child labor menaces education. There is no way at present of checking up work permits; children of any age are allowed to work from June 1 to September 1, and there is no prohibition of night work for them. Public objection is made to both the child-labor law and the compulsory school-attendance law because they include Mexican and Negro children. The commissioner recommends that no work permits be issued to children under 15; that no child under 18 be allowed to work more than eight hours or between 7 p. m. and 6 a. m.; and that night-messenger service be limited to persons over 21 years of age. He also recommends the repeal of the statute making violation of the child-labor law a misdemeanor and the substitution of a tax of 10 per cent on

⁶ Data taken from manuscript copy of the Sixth Biennial Report of the Commissioner of Labor Statistics of Texas, 1919-20.

business profits and the consolidation of the child-labor and school-attendance laws.

The report suggests that many employment agencies are operating illegally and without license, and that some of them are defrauding employers by placing labor, enticing it away, and placing it again. This is also said to be the practice of some licensed agencies. The reports of private employment agencies are not regarded as reliable and there is no report of fees paid by employers. There are now only three free municipal employment offices in the State. The commissioner recommends that private employment agencies be abolished and State free employment agencies be established to operate under the State bureau of labor statistics.

Woman's Division.

This division keeps in close contact with the women's organizations of the State, which are active and strong, and sends out literature to interest the women of Texas in working conditions and labor legislation and its enforcement. The division has recently made a survey of woman workers in Fort Worth⁷ and is now engaged on a child labor survey in Austin and Corpus Christi and on a complete industrial survey in El Paso.

Washington.⁸

UNDER the Smith-Hughes Act vocational education is beginning to be substituted for apprenticeship in the State of Washington. Some of the first-class cities of the State have taken advantage of the subsidy available under the new law and have established day-unit trade classes for the purpose of fitting the pupils for more remunerative trade jobs when they leave school. The classes run for six hours on school days, one-half of the time being taken up in practical work on a production basis. To enter these classes boys must be 14 years old and must have come to a definite decision regarding their vocation.

The night school classes subsidized by the State board for vocational education must be of the "trade extension type," that is, the pupils are required to take up work which will aid them in their day avocations. Boys must be at least 16 years of age to enter such classes.

Part-time work is being given in Spokane during the regular school year to compositor's apprentices in the printing trade on two afternoons a week, from 3 to 5 o'clock, making a total of four hours a week. This work is heartily endorsed by the unions; in fact, it was at their suggestion that the Typothetæ dock the boy for double time when he is absent from these classes without a bona fide excuse. Attendance is compulsory because it is required by the employing printers, and the boys are paid for their time while in school.

⁷ This report is summarized in the Women-in-industry section of this Issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, pp. 157 and 158.

⁸ Source: Fourth Biennial Report of the Industrial Welfare Commission of the State of Washington, 1919-20. p. 36. Olympia, 1920.

Difficulties In Child Labor Law Administration In Washington.⁹

The Washington Industrial Welfare Commission reports that the child-labor laws enacted in that State prior to the approval of the minimum wage act are not satisfactorily administered. Work permits for boys under 14 years of age and for girls under 16 years of age are issued by the superior court judges of the counties. As these judges have no means of investigating, it is impossible for them to handle this work properly. Sometimes the burden is shifted to the probation officer of the county, who is also without means of proper investigation. These provisions result in a conflict with the Commission's full legal authorization "to determine conditions of labor for children under 18 years of age." Certain minor orders have been formulated to harmonize with the Federal child-labor law and laws previously placed on the State's statute books.

No intensive child-labor survey has been made in Washington within the last two years. The need of such a survey and of a new code has led to inviting the National Child Labor Committee of New York to make an investigation in Washington to secure reliable data upon which to base a new children's code.

⁹ Source. Fourth Biennial Report of the Industrial Welfare Commission of the State of Washington, 1919-20. p. 23. Olympia, 1920.

CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR.

Success of Soldier Settlement Plans in Canada.¹

THE Canadian plans for the settlement of returned soldiers on the land seem to be working out successfully. Up to the end of September, 1920, there were 7,987 "soldier grant entries" of free land of 160 acres each, and it is estimated that one-half of the soldiers taking up these acreages also availed themselves of their civilian right to a further 160 acres of free land, if such land is available near a railway. This is an average of 240 acres per soldier, or a total of approximately 1,916,880 acres thus occupied.

Under the soldier settlement act of Canada, which became operative in February, 1918, provision is made for long-term loans, at a low rate of interest, which enable prospective soldier settlers to purchase land and obtain the necessary stock and equipment. Applicants for land who are otherwise qualified but who lack the experience requisite for successful farming may be recommended for training either at preliminary training centers operated by the board or on farms and possibly later through a supplementary course at an agricultural college or school.

There was an approximate increase of \$1,500,000 in the amount of loans to soldier settlers made by the Canadian soldier settlement board during September, 1920. The total loans approved to October 2 of the same year amounted to \$78,285,752, the number of settlers' loans being 19,526.

The following were the purposes for which loans were made, and the amounts: To purchase land, \$42,631,096; to remove encumbrances, \$2,169,466; for permanent improvements, \$8,991,015; for stock and equipment, \$24,494,175.

The distribution of settlers who have received loans, according to Provinces, is: Prince Edward Island, 291; Nova Scotia, 392; Quebec, 454; New Brunswick, 491; Ontario, 1,374; British Columbia, 2,991; Manitoba, 3,233; Saskatchewan, 4,765; Alberta, 5,625.

Out of 56,974 applicants for the privileges of the soldier settlement act, 41,161 have been approved by the board.

The economic gain to the Dominion as a result of the settlement of these large acreages will be enormous. It is estimated that the new acreage to be used for wheat growing is more than half of what the entire wheat area of the Dominion was two decades ago, and it is expected that the additional wheat crop will increase the national wealth approximately \$50,000,000 a year.

Profit-Sharing Scheme in Certain British Cotton Mills.

IT IS reported (Nov. 16, 1920) by the United States ambassador at London that the amalgamated Cotton Mills Trust (Ltd.), which controls about 15 cotton spinning and manufacturing concerns in Lancashire, employing over 15,000 operatives, has put into effect a

¹ Data taken from press release of Oct. 22, 1920, and a letter of Nov. 15, 1920, from the director of information of the Canadian soldier settlement board, Ottawa; from the Christian Science Monitor (Boston) for Oct. 25, 1920; and from an article on "Soldier settlement plans in Canada," in MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for June, 1919, pp. 52-58.

profit-sharing scheme by which the employees may invest their savings in a company loan yielding a minimum interest of 5 per cent per annum, free of income tax. Whenever the common stock of the company draws a higher rate than 5 per cent free of income tax then the employees' loan will also earn an equivalent rate of interest.

Central Arbitration Board for Settlement of Labor Disputes in Sweden.¹

A DISPATCH from His Majesty's minister at Stockholm, dated October 2, reports that, in accordance with the decision of the Riksdag, a central arbitration board for the settlement of labor disputes has been appointed in Sweden. This board consists of seven members; three of these are appointed by the Government and are neutral, representing the interests neither of employers nor of workpeople. Of the remaining four members, two are appointed by the Council of the Employers' Association, and two by the Workmen's National Council.

The object of the board is to render it easier for workmen and their employers to have collective agreements correctly interpreted, thus obviating recourse to lockouts or strikes. Appeals to the board are to be voluntary, and the decision of the board will be final.

Creation of Department of Labor in Switzerland.²

IN ACCORDANCE with a decree passed by the Federal Assembly on October 8, a Federal labor department is to be set up in Switzerland as a branch of the federal department of economics. The functions of the new organization are, in general, the preparation of legislative measures relating to labor and the regulation of labor (including the placing of labor and measures for dealing with unemployment); it has also to carry out duties which devolve upon Switzerland in consequence of adhesion to the international labor office.

With a view to the preparation and administration of national legislation and to giving effect to international conventions concerning labor legislation, and also with the object of preventing and settling labor disputes, the department is specifically charged with the duty of studying conditions prevailing in industry (especially "home industries"), in handicrafts and in commerce, watching the labor market and ascertaining existing standards of living. For these objects it can, where necessary, demand the cooperation of other public administrative bodies, employment exchanges and trade organizations, and employers and employed may be required to furnish wages data and other information.

The date upon which the decree enters into force will be fixed later, as it is subject to the referendum, the requisite number of demands for which must be obtained by January 11, 1921.

¹ From the Labor Gazette, London, November, 1920, p. 599.

² From the Labor Gazette, London, November, 1920, p. 601. Source: *Fouille Federale*, Oct. 13, 1920. Cf. article on proposed labor law of Switzerland, in *MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW* for May, 1920, pp. 182-185.

IMMIGRATION.

Restriction of Immigration to Canada.

AN ORDER in council dated November 29, 1920, and published in the Canada Gazette for December 4 (pp. 2180, 2181), sets aside temporarily the provisions and requirements of paragraphs 1 to 3, inclusive, of the order in council of May 9, 1910, as affecting immigrants of the mechanic, artisan, and laborer classes, whether skilled or unskilled, and substitutes therefor the following provision, the purpose being to protect these classes of laborers in Canada who, according to evidence furnished by the minister of immigration and colonization, are finding it difficult to obtain steady employment.

1. No immigrant of the mechanic, artisan, or laborer classes, whether skilled or unskilled, shall be allowed to land in Canada unless he possesses in his own right money to the amount of \$250 and in addition transportation to his destination in Canada.

2. If an immigrant of the mechanic, artisan or laborer classes, whether skilled or unskilled, is accompanied by his family or any member thereof, the foregoing regulation shall not apply to such family or members thereof, if the head of the family possess in his own right, in addition to transportation for his family to destination in Canada, a further sum of money equivalent to \$125 for every member of the family of the age of 18 years or upwards and \$50 for each child of the age of 5 years and under the age of 18 years.

3. The provisions of the two preceding paragraphs shall be applicable as from the 15th day of December, 1920, to immigrants of the classes herein specified, who land in Canada from foreign contiguous territory, and to other immigrants of the classes specified who land in Canada from other countries on or after the 1st day of January, 1921.

4. Unless otherwise ordered these regulations shall remain in effect until the 31st day of March, 1921, and on the expiration of these regulations the provisions and requirements of paragraphs 1 to 3 inclusive of the Order in Council of 9th May, 1910 (P. C. 924), shall again become operative to immigrants of the mechanic, artisan and laborer classes.

PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official—United States.

CALIFORNIA (LOS ANGELES).—*Social Service Commission. Report, July 1, 1919, to July 1, 1920. Los Angeles, 1920. 29 pp.*

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—*Board of Commissioners. Annual report, year ended June 30, 1920. Vol. III. Report of the health officer. Washington, 1920. 242 pp.*

The part of the report devoted to the eight-hour law for women shows that during the year there were 2,010 establishments in the District subject to the provisions of the law. During the year 12,794 inspections were made, 123 complaints acted upon, and 23 cases referred for prosecution for violation of the law.

GEORGIA.—*State Vocational Board. Georgia State plan for vocational education under the Smith-Hughes law. Atlanta, 1919. 62 pp. No. 8.*

Includes in addition to plans for student training an outline of courses for the training of teachers in industrial subjects.

— — — *Plans and aims for vocational school work in Georgia. Atlanta, 1917. 32 pp. No. 1.*

MASSACHUSETTS.—*Department of Labor and Industries. Division of industrial safety. Rules and regulations for safeguarding woodworking machinery. Boston, 1920. 10 pp. Industrial bulletin No. 16.*

MINNESOTA.—*Department of Labor and Industries. Court decisions, Attorney General's opinions, Department of Labor advice, relative to Workmen's Compensation Act from date when act was effective to July, 1920. St. Paul, 1920. 220 pp. Bulletin No. 17.*

This pamphlet supersedes earlier bulletins, setting forth the decisions and opinions on the State Compensation Act, some of which were out of print. Rulings that have been superseded by later decisions of the Supreme Court have been discarded. The subject matter is arranged under headings as Constitutionality and general spirit of interpretations, Territorial scope, Employment coverage, etc. A page is given to the discussion of the functions of the department of labor and industries in its relation to the compensation act. Two decisions are also appended in which the supreme court of the State affirmed a judgment in favor of a woman who contracted tuberculosis on account of improper working conditions, and another in which the same court affirmed the action of the subordinate court in refusing damages in an alleged case of occupational disease where the evidence failed to show any causal connection.

NEW YORK (CITY).—*Department of Education. Bureau of Attendance. Report, July 31, 1915, to July 31, 1918. [New York, 1919.] 294 pp.*

An account of an investigation covering 1,000 newsboys to determine whether the age at which boys might sell newspapers should be raised. Other sections are entitled Employment certificates and Continuation schools. The following table shows how the number of certificates granted to children between the ages of 14 and 15 years decreased while those granted to children 15 to 16 years of age increased about 50 per cent, due in part at least to changes in the requirements.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN NEW YORK CITY RECEIVING EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES, BY AGE AND GRADE, 1915 TO 1918.

Year.	Age.		Grade.		
	14 to 15 years.	15 to 16 years.	Seventh.	Eighth.	Graduates, high school and others.
1915-16.....	26,099	18,260	16,801	9,191	18,367
1916-17.....	23,521	18,624	12,735	6,847	22,563
1917-18.....	19,432	27,455	10,374	5,670	30,843

PANAMA CANAL.—*Governor. Annual report for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1920. Washington, 1920. 380 pp.*

Included in the general administrative report and the reports of the various departments of the Canal Zone are some sections of interest to labor, such as statistics on employment, housing, wages of American and of West Indian employees, and living costs. On June 30, 1920, it is stated, the total number of employees of the Panama Canal and the Panama Railroad Co. was 21,631 as compared with 20,361 on June 30, 1919. The average hourly wage of the West Indian employees is shown to have increased from 10 cents on May 1, 1914, to 23 cents on July 1, 1920. The cost of living for these employees increased 87.39 per cent over July 1, 1914.

PENNSYLVANIA.—*Department of Labor and Industry. Report of the activities of the industrial board. Harrisburg, 1920. 45 pp. Bulletin No. 6, Volume VII, series of 1920.*

Reference to this bulletin is made on page 225 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

— — *What Pennsylvania is doing for safety and safety codes. Harrisburg, 1920. 20 pp. Bulletin No. 7, Volume VII, series of 1920.*

Data from this bulletin are noted on page — of this issue of the REVIEW.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—*Industrial Commissioner. Report for twelve months ending June 30, 1920. [Pierre, 1920.] 48 pp.*

This report is noted more fully on page 183 of this issue of the REVIEW.

WASHINGTON.—*Industrial Welfare Commission. Fourth biennial report, 1919-1920. Olympia, 1920. 68 pp.*

Sections of this report are noted on pages 229 and 230 of this number of the REVIEW.

UNITED STATES.—*Bureau of Efficiency. Report, November 1, 1919, to October 31, 1920. Washington, 1920. 26 pp.*

Includes such topics as Duplications of work, Standardization of salaries based on classification of service, and Retirement of employees.

— *Council of National Defense. Report for fiscal year ended June 30, 1920. Washington, 1920. 108 pp.*

This report discusses: High cost of living, Industrial readjustment, Labor resources, Farm labor, and the National War Labor Board.

— *Department of Commerce. Bureau of Foreign and Domestic Commerce. Industrial machinery in France and Belgium. Washington, 1920. 61 pp. Special agents series No. 204.*

One section is devoted to industrial conditions after the war.

— *Department of Labor. Eighth annual report of the Secretary of Labor for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1920. Washington, 1920. 269 pp.*

Digests and excerpts of certain sections of this report appear on pages 198 to 201 of this issue of the REVIEW.

UNITED STATES.—*Department of Labor. Children's Bureau. Status of State bureaus of child hygiene, by Anna E. Rude. Reprinted from the October, 1920, issue of the American Journal of Public Health. Washington, 1920. 8 pp.*

A total of 34 States now carry on child-welfare activities on a State-wide plan.

— *Women's Bureau. The new position of women in American industry. Washington, 1920. 158 pp. Bulletin No. 12.*

This bulletin is reviewed on pages 153 to 157 of this issue of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

— *Department of the Interior. Bureau of Education. Progress in the preparation of industrial teachers. Washington, July, 1920. 28 pp. Industrial education circular No. 5.*

This is the report of a "conference of men from institutions in the Mississippi Valley engaged in training teachers of the manual arts and industrial education," called by the Commissioner of Education in response to a formal request made by representatives of the institutions concerned, and held at the University of Cincinnati, December 4, 5, 6, 1919. The chapter heads are: I. An experiment in developing a course in foreman training; II. Progress in the development of plans for preparing teachers of industrial subjects; III. The itinerant teacher of special subject in rural and village schools; IV. Provision for the training of vocational teachers in the Army; V. Examination and certification of special teachers; VI. Practice teaching; and VII. Training teachers of vocational and industrial work not now federally aided.

— *The university extension movement. Washington, 1920. 124 pp. Bulletin, 1919, No. 84.*

— *Bureau of Mines. Coke-oven accidents in the United States during the calendar year 1919. Washington, 1920. 25 pp. Technical paper 266.*

A brief summary of this report is given on pages — to — of this issue of the REVIEW.

— *Federal Board for Vocational Education. Trade and industrial education for girls and women. Washington, 1920. 106 pp. Bulletin No. 58. Trade and industrial series No. 15.*

This bulletin is issued as an official answer to the many inquiries concerning matters of policy in trade and industrial education for girls and women, and concerns the application of the provisions of the vocational education act of 1917 to them.

As a result of the great increase in the number of women in industry during the war, attention has been drawn to the need of increasing their efficiency by vocational training, the lack of which prevents many from earning a normal standard wage. It is stated that the benefits accruing to industry through such training will be improved product, increased output, better service rendered, and a stabilized working force. The benefits to the workers will be the better wage, improvement in the standards of living, and fuller participation in civic affairs. "Society will benefit automatically by the recognition of the service rendered by the woman wage earner or the woman home maker, and by the recognition of her right to participate in educational programs as they relate to her labor."

Part II is entitled "Ways and means of establishing and operating a program," and includes chapters on Organization for administration to secure the benefits of appropriations, Funds available for distribution, Special provisions for trade and industrial education, and Types of vocational schools and training agencies.

The bulletin contains a classified bibliography on women in industry.

— *Treasury Department. Bureau of Internal Revenue. Report of commissioner for year ended June 30, 1920. Washington, 1920. 230 pp.*

Includes the report of the child-labor tax division for the first full year of its operation. It is stated that since the law does not permit taxation until the company subject to the tax completes its fiscal year, with an additional 60 days for filing returns, the full results of this law do not yet appear, and little tax could be collected during 1920.

During the past year Federal age certificates were issued by child-labor tax officers in five States and in one State by school authorities. In 37 States the bureau accepts an employment certificate or other similar document attesting the age of the child, issued under State child-labor laws. Important work was done in spreading a broader knowledge of the requirements of the law among employers and those charged with enforcing the law.

UNITED STATES.—*Treasury Department. Public Health Service. A study of the relation of diet to pellagra incidence in seven textile-mill communities of South Carolina in 1916, by Joseph Goldberger, G. A. Wheeler, and Edgar Sydenstricker. Washington, 1920. 69 pp. Reprint No. 587 from the Public Health Reports, March 19, 1920, pp. 648-713.*

— — — *Keeping tab on sickness in the plant, by Dean K. Brundage and Bernard J. Newman. Washington, 1920. 12 pp. Reprint No. 589 from the Public Health Reports, April 9, 1920, pp. 881-890.*

This bulletin discusses the necessity for sickness records in industrial plants, points out in some detail what sickness records should show, and states that the United States Public Health Service hopes to render service in this respect to industrial establishments in two general ways: "To assist plants in keeping and interpreting sickness records for their own use, and to render the experience of these plants available for each other, as well as for any plant or individual interested in the prevention of sickness among wage earners."

— — — *Pellagra incidence in relation to sex, age, season, occupation, and "disabling sickness" in seven cotton-mill villages of South Carolina during 1916, by Joseph Goldberger, G. A. Wheeler, and Edgar Sydenstricker. Washington, 1920. 15 pp. Reprint No. 601 from the Public Health Reports, July 9, 1920, pp. 1650-1664.*

In a population of 4,399, a total of 115 definite cases, representing a rate of 26.1 per 1,000, was recorded. The addition of 73 "suspect" cases brings the rate up to 42.7 per 1,000. The incidence of the disease is shown to be many times greater in females than in males, and considerable greater among nonmillworkers than among millworkers. The season of onset appeared to be confined to the period from April to September, inclusive.

— — — *Public Health Reports, vol. 35, No. 46. Washington, November 12, 1920.*

The results of a study of economic factors in pellagra incidence are presented in this number of the Public Health Reports. A review of a previous report relating to this study was given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for February, 1919, pp. 212-226. At that time, although the low family income was recognized as accompanying high pellagra incidence, it was not determined to what extent the low income was a cause or a result of the sickness. Further study of these same data has resulted in the conclusion that the most potent factors influencing pellagra incidence in the villages studied were (a) low family income and (b) unfavorable conditions regarding the availability of food supplies.

— — — *Recent work on pellagra, by Carl Voeglin. Washington, 1920. 20 pp. Reprint No. 597 from the Public Health Reports, June 18, 1920, pp. 1435-1452.*

Official—Foreign Countries.

AUSTRALIA (NEW SOUTH WALES).—*Board of Trade. Apprenticeship in industries. Sydney, 1920. xv, 316 pp.*

This report considers among other subjects the legal incidents of modern apprenticeship and apprenticeship as a phase of national education. The probable effect of the provisions of the new industrial arbitration act, 1912-1918, as bearing upon apprenticeship is also discussed. One chapter is devoted to proposals for a constructive policy and another includes suggested regulations to be made and enacted under the provisions of the new industrial arbitration act.

AUSTRALIA (SOUTH AUSTRALIA).—*Inspector of factories. Report, 1919. 15 pp. No. 61.*

Shows number of hours per week being worked in specified trades and gives a table of average wages paid in certain trades. States that the printing trade secured through the industrial court a decision fixing the living wage at 12s. 6d. (\$3.04, par) per day effective on June 25, 1920; also that the basic living wage for females as a result of an appeal to the court by employees engaged in cardboard box and carton making was increased from 27s. 6d. (\$6.69, par) to 30s. (\$7.30, par) per week. A table shows that in 1,833 factories there were 20,538 employees, of whom 6,026 were women and 1,519 were children between 14 and 16 years of age. A total of 12,690½ hours overtime was worked by 860 women and children, or an average of 14.8 hours each. One hundred and twenty-four accidents were reported during the year, 32 (25.8 per cent) of these being in iron foundries and other metal working factories. The table of average weekly wages is reproduced in part on page 122 of this issue of the REVIEW.

— (TASMANIA).—*Government Statistician. Statistics for the year 1918-19. [Hobart] 1919. viii, 464, 15, 7 pp.*

Gives a table of accidents on railroads and street railways, showing a total of 5 killed and 29 injured during the year. The total number of persons employed by these companies was 2,004 and the total amount of wages paid was £344,988 (\$1,678,884.10, par). A table shows the average retail prices of provisions and other articles at Hobart during the year 1918 and certain preceding years. There is a statistical summary showing the operation of friendly societies, which in 1918 numbered 19 with 197 branches and a total of 22,283 benefit members. The expenditures of these societies amounted to £85,527 (\$416,217.15, par), of which £19,953 (\$97,101.27, par) was for sick benefits and £27,121 (\$131,984.35) was for funeral benefits.

CEYLON (COLUMBO).—*Public Health Department. Report, 1919. Colombo, 1920. 43 pp.*

The section on cost of living contains tables showing the rise in price of foodstuffs, etc., 1914-1920; the increase in cost of living in Colombo, 1914-1920; and the increase in house rent in Colombo, 1914-1920. According to the report the cost of parboiled rice increased 153 per cent and of raw rice 127 to 177 per cent, according to quality. The price of sugar increased 183 per cent; potatoes, 66 per cent; flour, 66 per cent; eggs 40 per cent; and beef, 20 per cent. Rents increased during the same period by 32 to 33 per cent for tenement houses, in which most of the working class live, and 39 per cent for small houses, such as are used by the more highly paid mechanics.

FRANCE.—*Ministère de l'Hygiène, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance Sociale. Rapport du conseil supérieur des habitations à bon marché pour les années 1914-1919. Paris, 1920. 41 pp.*

A report of the housing activities in France of governmental agencies and of the various cooperative and credit societies for the years 1914-1919.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Board of Education. Annual report of the chief medical officer, 1919. London, 1920. 231 pp. Cmd. 995.*

This is the twelfth report of the school medical service. The work which was originally planned to cover only medical inspection now includes, in addition to that medical and dental treatment; hygiene, physical training and open-air education, the provision of school meals where necessary; special schools for blind, deaf, defective, and subnormal children; the control of infective disease in schools and establishment of nursery schools. In England and Wales there were 1,630 medical officers and dentists and 2,027 nurses employed in the year ending March 31, 1920.

— *Department of Overseas Trade. Report for the year 1919 on the conditions and prospects of British trade with China. London, 1920. 61 pp. Map. Cmd. 853.*

A tabular statement of wages of skilled and unskilled labor in Shanghai in 1919, taken from pages 52 and 53, appears on pages 120 and 121 of this issue of the REVIEW.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Home Office. Fencing and safety precautions for cotton spinning and weaving machinery. Part I. Opening, blowing, and card-room processes. Part II. Cotton spinning and doubling processes. London, 1920. 16, 13 pp. Illustrations. Safety Pamphlet Nos. 4 and 5.*

— — *Chief inspector of mines. Mines and quarries: General report with statistics, for 1919. Part II.—Labor. London, 1920. Pp. 203–248. Cmd. 1007.*

During the year 1919, 1,270,050 persons were employed at mines and quarries under the coal-mines act, the metalliferous-mines act, and the quarries act in the United Kingdom and the Isle of Man. Of these 57,076 were employed in or about quarries and 21,661 under or above ground at metalliferous mines. A total of 995,012 persons were working underground in mines or inside at quarries. Of a total of 275,038 persons working above ground at mines or outside at quarries, 9,956 were women. Most of these were employed at coal mines. Of employees under 16 years of age, 54,086 males were employed underground in mines, and 27,886 males and 656 females above ground at mines and outside at quarries. An increase of 13,861 in the total number of employees under the quarries act, 840 under the metalliferous-mines act, and 182,446 under the coal-mines act as compared with the previous year is noted.

— — *Committee on workmen's compensation. Minutes of evidence, 30th July, 1919, to 28th May, 1920. 2 vols. London, 1920. 517, 486 pp. Cmd. 908, 909.*

— *Ministry of Labor. Industrial Court. Decisions. Vol. II. Nos. 228 to 361. London, 1920. 278 pp.*

— *Industrial Fatigue Research Board. A study of output in silk weaving during the winter months. London, 1920. 69 pp. Report No. 9. Textile series No. 3.*

This study relates to two silk-weaving factories, one making plain and the other fancy silks, in which the output of certain weavers was studied in an effort to determine the effect of fatigue upon output, weaving being the occupation in which the greatest amount of individual effort is required. Light, atmospheric conditions, lost time, inefficiency, and variations in the quality of material used, all are additional factors affecting output. Some of the conclusions drawn by the committee were that 4½-hour and 4¼-hour spells of employment are too long; that in general fatigue acquired by the average worker is not carried over to the next day; that the "Monday effect," increased by the lower weaving qualities of materials on Monday morning, owing to their standing during the week-end in reduced temperature, was noticeable; that a gradual increase in output occurs from December to March, due to decreasing amount of artificial light used, and that within a temperature range of 58° to 65° F. output tends to increase with temperature.

— *Ministry of Labor. National trade advisory committee. Reports upon openings in industry suitable for disabled sailors and soldiers. The leather-goods trade (including general saddlery and harness work, retail trade). London, 1920. 13 pp. No. VI (revised).*

— — *Wages and Arbitration Department. General awards of the committee on production, interim court of arbitration and industrial court relating to the engineering and foundry trades, together with awards in special district cases and a number of relative agreements and decisions. London, 1920. 125 pp.*

The committee on production was appointed in February, 1915, with a view to securing the maximum output in engineering and shipbuilding establishments engaged on Government work and later was charged with the additional duty of arbitrating wage disputes. After the armistice this committee ceased to exist, and its place was taken by the interim court of arbitration, which in turn was superseded by the industrial court in 1919. This report includes the awards made by these three bodies, the decisions being arranged in chronological order.

GREAT BRITAIN.—*Parliament. House of Commons. Select committee on pensions. Report, together with proceedings of the committee, minutes of evidence, and appendices. London, 1920. xxvi, 217 pp. 185.*

— *Privy Council. Medical Research Council. The effects of alcohol and some other drugs during normal and fatigued conditions. London, 1920. 34 pp.*

This investigation was carried out on two subjects, the greater number of tests being on one subject who had never, as far as she knew, taken alcohol previously in any form. The effects of the drugs fell into two antagonistic groups, alcohol and chloroform on one side as against strychnine, opium, and tea on the other. Alcohol produces a distinct loss of precision in the "dotting" test, a loss of power of recall in memory tests, and a great reduction in the rate of alternation of phases in the "wind-mill" illusion, a test said to be a very delicate index of drug effects, while opium acts in a precisely opposite manner in all these tests.

— *Treasury. Employment of ex-service men in Government offices on 1st July, 1919, and 1st October, 1920. London, 1920. 1 p. Cmd. 1033.*

On October 1, 1920, 84,266 ex-service men, of whom 18,609 were disabled, held permanent positions in the Government offices, and 43,683 held temporary positions. Of these 19,850 were disabled.

— — *Staffs of Government departments on 1st October, 1920. London, 1920. 2 pp. Cmd. 1032.*

On October 1, 1920, the total number of employees in the Government departments was 366,243, a decrease of 1,783 as compared with the number employed the previous month.

— (LONDON).—*County Council. Report to 31st March, 1919. London [1920]. 325 pp.*

This report differs from the annual report in that it is a survey of the work of the council from the time of its formation.

Chapter VII traces official action as to the housing of the working classes from 1851, when the first legislative action was taken to deal with the evils of overcrowding and insanitary conditions. It is stated that the two bills passed in that year, although subsequently altered and amended, still form the basis of much of the existing legislation on the subject. The chapter closes with a brief summary of housing after the war.

— (SCOTLAND).—*Board of Health. Appendix to first annual report, 1919. London, 1920. xxx pp. Cmd. 992.*

Contains statement of estimated cost of different types of houses for which tenders have been approved, and financial report of Scottish national health insurance fund.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS.—*International Labor Office. Agrarian conditions in Spain. Geneva, November 10, 1920. 11 pp. Studies and Reports, series K, No. 2.*

— — *First international congress of landworkers' unions affiliated to the International Federation of Trade-Unions (Amsterdam, August 17-19, 1920). Geneva, November 9, 1920. 11 pp. Studies and Reports, series K, No. 1.*

A brief account of the first international congress of farm workers at Amsterdam was published in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for December, 1920, pages 167 and 168.

— — *International congress of metal workers. Geneva, October 22, 1920. 11 pp. Studies and Reports, series A, No. 9.*

— — *Small holdings in Scotland. Geneva, November 12, 1920. 12 pp. Studies and Reports, series K, No. 3.*

Takes up the subject under the following heads: Systems of land tenure in Scotland, the agrarian reforms effected, the reforms still needed, and the economic position of the small holder.

LEAGUE OF NATIONS. *International Labor Office. The action of the Swiss Government in dealing with unemployment. Geneva, November 13, 1920. 17 pp. Studies and Reports, series C, No. 4.*

Considers the creation of a Federal unemployment fund and a Federal unemployment relief office, the establishment of relief works (for the skilled, the unskilled, and the professional classes), facilities for finding employment, relief of the unemployed (total unemployment, partial unemployment, differential relief, and relief to foreigners), and the gradual suppression of relief.

— — — *The congress of the labor and socialist international (Geneva, July 31–August 6, 1920). Geneva, October 14, 1920. 28 pp. Studies and Reports, series A, No. 6*

— — — *The international labor organization: A comparison. Geneva, October 21, 1920. 10 pp. Studies and Reports, series A, No. 8.*

Compares the old international association on labor regulation, with its infrequent conferences, lack of authority and support, and consequent ineffectiveness, with the international labor organization established by Part XIII of the Treaty of Versailles, which has regular annual conferences of representatives of the governments, employers, and employees, who vote as individuals, not by countries. In various ways it is shown that the present organization is proving far more effective than the old system.

SWITZERLAND (AARGAU).—*Statistisches Bureau des Kantons Aargau. Die Ergebnisse der Wohnungszählung vom 1. Dezember 1910 in den Gemeinden Aarau, Baden, Ennetbaden und Brugg. Leipzig and Berlin, 1920. 108 pp. (Aargauische Statistische Mitteilungen. Neue Folge. Heft III.)*

In 1910 the Intercantonal Association of Official Statisticians of Switzerland had resolved to undertake on a uniform plan a housing census in the largest possible number of Swiss communities. This volume contains the results of a housing census in four communes of the Canton Aargau. Owing to difficulties which had arisen during the war the results of this census, which was undertaken in conjunction with the general census of 1910, could not be published until the present year and for this reason the above volume has a mere documentary value. The housing census undertaken by the Statistical Office of the Canton Aargau is, however, of general interest by reason of the fact that it covers four of the smallest cities of Switzerland. In comparison with the housing censuses made in large cities the census under review has brought out three important facts: (1) A very large number of the houses are owned by their occupants; (2) the absence of high buildings and of buildings with basement dwellings; and (3) that most houses stand in large lots, part of which is given over to gardening.

Unofficial.

ACTION POPULAIRE. *Les dossiers de l'action populaire. Nos. 1–20. Paris, 1920.*

The publications of L'Action Populaire which were discontinued after the destruction of the offices during the burning of Rheims have now been resumed. This present series, which was started in January, 1920, covers among other subjects pamphlets on social questions, trade-union organization, cooperation, social insurance, and charities and relief.

ALTMANN-GOTTHEIMER. ELISABETH. *Jahrbuch des Bundes deutscher Frauenvereine, 1920. Berlin, 1920. 59, 143 pp.*

The yearbook for 1920 of the Federation of German Women's Societies. In addition to a report on the activities of the federation during the period July 1, 1918, to October 1, 1919, part 1 of the volume contains articles on the attitude of the federation during the war toward national policies; the legal position of women in the new Germany; the part played by women in national and State elections; the representation of women in the National Assembly, State legislatures, city councils, etc., and the new problems of woman labor. Part 2 consists of a directory of women's societies affiliated with the federation.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION. *Review of labor legislation of 1920. New York, September, 1920. 49 pp. American Labor Legislation Review.*

Presents an analysis, by subject and States, of the labor laws enacted in 1920, making a topical grouping of the laws; there is also a topical index by States. The introductory note states that "as a result of the spirit of reaction that had grown so prevalent and temporarily blighting, the year's output of protective labor legislation, in the light of all legislative experience, is conspicuously meager and ill considered." Outstanding exceptions are the retirement system for Government employees and a provision for Federal-State cooperation in the vocational rehabilitation of industrial cripples. An appendix sets forth draft conventions and recommendations adopted by the International Labor Conference of the League of Nations for the protection of seamen.

AMERICAN CHILD HYGIENE ASSOCIATION. *Transactions of the tenth annual meeting, Asheville, N. C., November 11-13, 1919. Baltimore, 1920. 346 pp.*

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. *Arizona Branch. Proceedings of convention, October 4-7, 1920. [Phoenix, 1920.] 52 pp.*

— *Iowa Branch. Constitution and proceedings as enacted at the twenty-eighth annual convention held at Fort Dodge, Iowa, May 18, 19, 20, 21, 1920. Sioux City, Earl C. Willey, secretary, 1920. 97 pp.*

BIGELOW, CARLE M. *Installing management in woodworking plants. New York, The Engineering Magazine Co., 1920. 323 pp.*

The practical application of scientific management in the woodworking industry is given in great detail. The handling of the labor problem takes up employment methods, social service, and a special plan for wage payment, in which is included a description of time-study methods adapted to the industry.

BRITISH LABOR DELEGATION TO RUSSIA, 1920. *Report. London, Offices of the Trades Union Congress, 32 Eccleston Square, S. W. 1, and The Labor Party, 33 Eccleston Square, S. W. 1 [1920]. 150 pp.*

CLEVELAND CHAMBER OF COMMERCE. *The causes of high building costs in Cleveland. Cleveland, 1920. 39 pp.*

This report was prepared by a special committee appointed by the chamber of commerce to study the causes of high building costs in the city of Cleveland. The study was taken up from two viewpoints—that of the relation of building labor to building costs and of building materials to building costs.

CUNNISON, JAMES. *Economics. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co. [1920]. 168 pp.*

The production of wealth, the division of labor and its organization, underlying principles of distribution and exchange are dealt with in this book. The chapter on "The payment for labor" takes up the different theories in regard to wages such as the wages fund theory, the subsistence theory, and the productivity theory.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA. *Commission on the Church and Social Service. Report on the strike in the textile mills of Lawrence, Mass., February-June, 1919. New York, 105 East Twenty-second Street, June, 1920. 24 pp.*

This report, it is stated, is submitted not for the purpose of adding one more to the many statements that have appeared on the subject but rather to present with a certain advantage of perspective an examination of the underlying causes of the strike which may aid in interpreting future industrial conflicts.

FEIG, JOHANNES. *Verordnung betreffend eine vorläufige Landarbeitsordnung vom 24. Januar 1919 nebst sonstigen Bestimmungen über das landwirtschaftliche Arbeitsrecht. Berlin, 1919. 122 pp.*

A compilation of German laws relating to agricultural labor.

FRIDAY, DAVID. *Profits, wages, and prices.* New York, Harcourt, Brace, and Howe, 1920. 256 pp.

Lack of information in regard to the relation of profits to capital is responsible, the author states, for the general confusion of thought in regard to the question of profiteering, while the same lack of information prevails as to prices and wages. The writer analyzes the relation between high prices, large profits, excess profits taxes, and high wages in order to determine the part each plays in the general high living costs. He shows that industrial profits generally reached their high-water mark during 1917, although for different industries there is great variation, textiles, rubber, and oils having increased in 1919, while others, notably iron and steel, have declined since 1917. Wages, on the other hand, show a general increase up to 1920. A large amount of statistical data from varied sources has been used by the writer, but there is a failure to make references sufficiently definite. The tone of the book is decidedly optimistic, the author believing that we have a basis upon which to build a broad and constructive industrial program with potential prosperity for all classes if the lessons of the war are heeded.

GRAMMES, L. F., & SONS (COMPILERS). *Reference book of valuable information on safety devices.* Allentown, Pa., 1920. 60 pp. Illustrated.

HARRIMAN, R. D. *Suggestions for Americanization teachers.* Salt Lake City, 1920. 20 pp. *Bulletin of the University of Utah*, vol. 10, No. 16. *Extension division series*, vol. 1, No. 3.

Contains suggestions for reading on the subjects of immigration and Americanization, and also on methods of conducting classes of foreigners and teaching them English and citizenship.

HARRISON, SHELBY M. *Social conditions in an American city. A summary of the findings of the Springfield survey.* New York, Russell Sage Foundation, 1920. 439 pp.

This survey was conducted under the direction of the department of surveys and exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation assisted by individuals and by representatives of other organizations. It was divided into nine general groups as follows: Schools; recreation; care of mental defectives, insane and alcoholics; public health; corrections, charities; industrial conditions, and city and county administration. Most of the data presented relates to 1914, the period of the survey, showing methods followed, conditions uncovered, and manner in which the findings were presented to the public, but some information as to improvements resulting from the survey is also given.

HERSCH, L. *L'inégalité devant la mort d'après les statistiques de la Ville de Paris. Effets de la situation sociale sur la mortalité.* Paris, 22 Rue Souffiot, 1920. 54 pp.

A discussion of the social and occupational factors and general economic condition which have an influence on mortality. The statistics upon which the study is based are those published in the statistical yearbook of the city of Paris.

HETHERINGTON, H. J. W. *International labor legislation.* London., Methuen & Co., 1920. 194 pp.

The international regulation of industrial conditions by means of legislation and international cooperation form the subject of this book, in which the author analyzes that part of the peace treaty creating the International Labor Office and discusses the work of the Washington conference and the various conventions adopted by it. The writer, who was connected with the British delegation, believes that in spite of the fact that the labor organization has no power to compel governments to put in force the provisions of the conventions, much good was effected by the conference. The text of Part XIII of the treaty of Versailles, the list of delegates to the Washington conference, the conventions and recommendations passed by the conference, and a list of the members of the governing body of the International Labor Office are appended.

INDUSTRIAL WELFARE SOCIETY. *Second annual report, for the year ended June 30, 1920.* London, 1920. 33 pp.

This society, which was formed for the purpose of standardizing and extending industrial welfare work in England, has grown rapidly, and has many well-known persons, both employers and workers, in its list of members. It is stated that there is an increasing tendency among the workers to finance the welfare schemes themselves, with a consequent lessening of opposition to the movement.

INSTITUTE INTERNATIONALE D'AGRICULTURE. *Annuaire international de législation agricole. IX^{ème} Année—1919.* Rome, 1920. 1130 pp.

This yearbook gives the text of agricultural laws in all countries which were passed during 1919. It is stated in the introduction that agricultural legislation in 1919 differs profoundly from that of the few years preceding, in that legislation during the war period was necessarily of a transitory character intended to insure the people of the different countries the foodstuffs needful for their use, while now governments are beginning to deal with larger problems, such as agricultural reform, water supplies, and labor questions. The laws are classified as follows: Agricultural and commercial statistics; sale of agricultural produce, of machines, fertilizers, and cattle; fiscal legislation and customhouse legislation in relation to agriculture; vegetable production and trade in vegetable products; horse and cattle breeding and trade in animal products; legislation on agrarian organization and on agricultural instruction: diseases of plants; cooperation, insurance, and agricultural credit; rural property and land settlement; relations between capital and labor in agriculture; rural hygiene and country police.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF WOMEN PHYSICIANS. *Proceedings.* New York, The Woman's Press, 600 Lexington Avenue, 1920. 6 vols.

The second volume of the proceedings deals with industrial health. Papers and subjects discussed include health insurance; social unrest; health and industrial placement; the creative workman; the creative impulse in industry; industrial physiology; occupational causes of ill health; and conservation of the health of women.

JOHNSTON, THOMAS. *The history of the working classes in Scotland.* Glasgow, Forward Publishing Co., Ltd. [1920]. 408 pp.

This history begins about the thirteenth century with the slavery period and deals in great detail with the conditions of the laboring classes down to the modern labor movement. The last chapter, entitled "The communist seeds of salvation," takes up the friendly orders, the cooperative movement, and the socialist movement.

KIRKALDY, A. W. *Wealth, its production and distribution.* New York, E. P. Dutton & Co. [1920]. 147 pp.

A considerable portion of the book is devoted to a consideration of labor as a factor in production. The benefits which labor has secured for itself through organization, the dangers to the community because organized labor has learned its strength, a fact which may lead to syndicalism or State socialism, and the different methods for securing better relations and greater production are subjects covered in this chapter.

LAUGHLIN, J. LAURENCE. *Labor and wages. Ten tracts.* [New York, National Association of Manufacturers, 30 Church Street], 1920. *Tracts for the times.*

The titles of these tracts are: I. The solution of the labor problems; II. Management; III. The hope for labor unions; IV. Monopoly of labor; V. Is labor a commodity; VI. Socialism a philosophy of failure; VII. Wages and prices; VIII. The British industrial crisis; IX. British and American labor problems; and X. Extravagance.

LE COUTRE, WALTER. *Die Grundgedanken der deutschen Preispolitik im Weltkriege 1914-1918*. Berlin, 1919. 117 pp. *Bibliography*.

The present work attempts to show by what considerations the German Government was influenced when during the war it began hesitatingly and gropingly to influence the formation of prices, on what fundamental conceptions with respect to the elements of price formation it built up its price policy, and what aims it wished to achieve with this policy. The endeavor to establish "fair" prices is the principal theoretical idea that has crystalized from the German governmental price policy. The author discusses what deviations were made from this ethical fundamental idea partly by reason of the political aims in view and partly by reason of the field of its application, namely, in agriculture, industry, and commerce. In an appendix are reprinted the principles set up by the Economic Division of the Imperial Food Office and the Fair Prices Boards (Preisprüfungsstellen) for their determination of prices. The volume is concluded with a valuable bibliography of official and unofficial publications on the subject of price regulation.

LLOYD, C. M. *The present state of the poor law*. London, *The Labor Party* [1920]. 8 pp.

It is stated that as a result of the war the number of persons receiving poor relief decreased from 765,077 in 1914 to 596,298 in 1917 and 551,262 in 1918. In 1919 the number increased to 560,312 as a result of unsettled industrial conditions, and it appears that the volume of pauperism is going back to its perwar proportions, and reforms are urgently needed.

MACDONALD, J. RAMSAY. *A policy for the Labor Party*. London, *Leonard Parsons*, 1920. 188 pp.

A short history of the rise in power of the Labor Party from the beginning of its aspirations toward political power opens the book while the main part is given to a recital of the aims of the party in respect to nationalization and to an outline of its claims in respect to its ability to become the ruling party, and of the program it might be expected to formulate if it secured control of the Government.

MACLAURIN, ROBERT. *The oversea illusion. Its amazing effect on prices, wages, and output*. London, *G. Bell & Sons, Ltd.*, 1920. 213 pp.

The author cites the economic causes and results of the wars in which England has been engaged since the first of the last century, and attempts to show that the war for trade has resulted in a rise in prices and in lowered output. His remedy is found in a tax upon all exports and foreign investments, which he contends would increase employment, lower living costs, and increase wages.

MONEY, SIR LEO CHIOZZA. *The triumph of nationalization*. London, *Cassell & Co., Ltd.*, 1920. 276 pp.

The arguments of the author for nationalization are based upon the centralization of control which obtained in England during the war in industries manufacturing or dealing in essential materials and in Government control of prices.

MURLAND, CLEO. *Vocational training for women in industry*. Reprinted from *Bulletin No. 32, National Society for Vocational Education, Proceedings of the Chicago convention, February, 1920*. [1920.] 8 pp.

This is the report of the committee on women in industry and gives figures showing the great increase in the number of women wage earners in the last two decades. In 1900, 5,319,397, or 18.8 per cent of the women over 10 years of age, were wage earners; in 1910, 8,075,772, or 23.4 per cent; and in 1919 it was estimated that the number of women wage earners over 10 years of age was 11,000,000.

It is believed that the problems presented by this great increase in the number of employed women can be met partly by protective legislation, organization of workers, and education of employers and consumers, but that the most important remedy is better general education and better vocational education, which will fit the women for protecting themselves.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CORPORATION SCHOOLS. *Committee on unskilled labor and Americanization. Report. Eighth annual convention, New York, May, 31 to June 4, 1920.* [New York], 1920. 87 pp.

Contains reports on the Americanization work carried on by various industrial organizations and its effects on accident prevention, wages, labor stability, etc.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL. *Safe practices. No. 40. Suggestion systems.* Chicago, 168 North Michigan Avenue, 1920. 15 pp.

NIEDERÖSTERREICHISCHE HANDELS-UND GEWERBE-KAMMER (VIENNA). *Bericht über die Industrie, den Handel und die Verkehrsverhältnisse in Niederösterreich während der Jahre 1914-1918.* Vienna, 1920. cxlviii, 1,152 pp.

A report of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Lower Austria on industrial business and transport conditions in that province during the years 1914-1918. The report is composed of three parts. Part one consists of a general review of economic life in Austria during the period of the war and the year following the armistice. The second part reviews the activities of the Chamber of Commerce and Industry during the five-year period 1914-1918, and the third part is devoted to statistics of production and commerce in the various raw materials and manufactured goods; construction of roads, railroads, waterways and water conduits; railroad, river, postal and telegraph traffic, insurance; industrial, commercial and arbitration courts; trade and business schools; and banking. The volume is a valuable historical document, as it gives a clear picture based on statistics of the economic difficulties of Austria during the war.

ÖSTERREICHISCHES JAHRBUCH DER ARBEITERVERSICHERUNG. *X-XI. Jahrgang.* Vienna, 1916-18. 2 volumes.

Two volumes of the Austrian yearbook of workmen's insurance containing a collection of social insurance and socio-political laws of Austria and foreign countries.

ONTARIO SAFETY LEAGUE. *Report, 1919.* Toronto [1920]. 8 pp.

Contains also the first annual report of the Canadian National Safety League.

PHELPS, EDITH M. (COMPILER). *Selected articles on Government ownership of railroads. Vol. II.* New York, The H. W. Wilson Co., 1919. 200 pp.

Contains a selected bibliography.

REED, ANNA Y., and WOELPPER, WILSON. *Junior wage earners.* New York, The Macmillan Co., 1920. 171 pp.

This book was prepared especially for the information and use of business men, normal schools, teachers' colleges, public-school teachers, and employees of the United States Employment Service. The nature of the contents is shown in such chapter headings as Efforts to solve the employment problem, Educational guidance, Functions and methods of placement, and Functions of a junior employment office.

REW, R. HENRY. *Food supplies in peace and war.* London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. 183 pp.

The problem of providing the world with food is considered from the standpoint of the developments within approximately the last 40 years in the means of transporting food from one part of the world to another. The book is divided into three sections, dealing in the first with the supply and demand before the war; in the second, with the effect of the war on world supplies, the kinds and amounts of food produced in the United Kingdom, and the accomplishments of the State in the control of food supplies. The third section deals with postwar conditions throughout the world, and, in closing, with the need for better conditions and a less monotonous existence if the best equipped men and women are to be retained on the farms.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION. *Annual report, 1919. New York, 61 Broadway [1920]. 449 pp.*

Besides the reports of the president, secretary, and treasurer of the Rockefeller Foundation, there are also those of the International Health Board and the China Medical Board, the latter for the period 1915 to 1919. Considerable space is devoted to the control and prevention of hookworm disease.

RODOLPHE-ROUSSEAU, JACQUES. *Les Coopératives de reconstruction dans les régions libérées. Paris, Rousseau & Cie., 1920. 120 pp.*

Contains a description of the cooperatives of reconstruction which were "born with the first battle of the Marne in 1914 in the villages of the Department which were liberated by the first retreat of the Germans." From there they soon spread to all the recovered Departments and now number about 1,600. The author shows in what way these cooperative societies are a benefit to people whose property has been destroyed, to the architects and contractors, and to the State. He also describes their defects and what he considers to be the causes thereof. A detailed analysis of certain proposed laws dealing with these societies is given.

RYAN, JOHN A. *Capital and labor. [Washington, D. C.] National Catholic welfare council, 1920. 30 pp.*

RYAN, JOHN A. *Social reconstruction. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1920. 242 pp.*

A collection of lectures delivered at the Fordham School of Social Service (New York) in the last two months of 1919 and the first two months of 1920. The main subject of the volume is the Bishops' Program of Social Reconstruction. The author describes some of the problems and agencies created by the war. Three of the lectures outline methods by which the State could better the condition of the working classes—a living wage by law, social insurance, and public housing. Three other lectures deal with methods by which the working people may assist in improving their own condition—the labor union, labor sharing in management, and copartnership and cooperation. In chapter 10 on "Exorbitant profits," the author declares that "The tests should be productive service * * *. Capital should get about the average competitive rate of interest; but the excess beyond that should go to men for their services, not because they own capital."

RYAN, JOHN A., AND HUSSLEIN, JOSEPH (EDITORS). *The church and labor. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1920. 305 pp.*

The principal propositions set forth and defended in the various contributions in this book are:

The moral aspect of industrial relations, the necessity and limitations of private property, the indestructible right of labor to the means and conditions of decent living, the duty of the State to remove industrial evils that can be abolished in no other way, and the right of labor to organize.

SIMONS, GERDA. *Die Erwerbslosenfürsorge während des Krieges. Berlin, 1919, viii, 113 pp. Schriften der Deutschen Gesellschaft zur Bekämpfung der Arbeitslosigkeit, Heft 5.*

During the first half of 1918 the German Society for the Combating of Unemployment has sent questionnaires to the German State Governments, provincial administrations, communes, communal unions, and State insurance institutes with a view of obtaining information as to the measures taken during the war for the relief of unemployment in general and for the payment of unemployment allowances in particular. The material collected in this manner has been compiled in the present volume. In part one the volume discusses unemployment relief before the war, the state of unemployment during the first months of the war, the introduction of general unemployment relief and its character in the individual federal States, and unemployment relief in individual industries (textile, shoe, clothing, and tobacco industries.) Part two deals with the practical carrying out of unemployment relief: The general

principles to be observed in public unemployment relief, the organs for its administration, the preconditions for the granting of relief (unemployment, neediness, ability to work, willingness to work, legal residence in the locality in question), nature of the relief, computation and amount of relief. In part three the problem of public unemployment relief is discussed from the viewpoint of the experiences made with unemployment relief during the war. In an appendix the material obtained through the questionnaires is arranged in tabular form.

SLINGERLAND, W. H. *Child-welfare work in Colorado. A study of public and private agencies and institutions and conditions of service, in the care of dependent, delinquent, and defective children.* Boulder, 1920. 174 pp. *University of Colorado bulletin*, Vol. XX, No. 10. *General series No. 161.*

This study was made by a special agent of the Department of Child-helping of the Russell Sage Foundation.

TOLEDO CONSUMERS' LEAGUE. *Toledo children who leave school for work.* Toledo [1920]. 31 pp. *Pamphlet 31.*

This survey, undertaken in cooperation with the Toledo woman's committee of the Council of National Defense, dealt with 329 boys and girls out of a total of 2,327 who received working certificates in Toledo in the years 1915-1917. Of the number of children studied only about 8 per cent had made normal progress in their school work. Under the Ohio law boys must attend school between the ages of 8 and 15, but may leave school between the ages of 15 and 16 if the sixth grade has been completed, while girls who leave school must be past 16 and have completed the seventh grade. In nearly half the cases studied the reason for leaving school was given as financial need, with indifference the next most frequent reason. In the majority of cases there was much changing of places and a variety of jobs held in individual cases, so that it was clear that there was no tendency toward finding work for which they were best adapted. It was recommended, as the result of the survey, that a vocational guidance bureau should be added to the school system of the city so that causes of nonpromotion, early withdrawal and indifference to school, and the vocational adaptations of the pupils could be studied and remedies for the situation devised, and that State aid should be extended to children obliged to leave school for lack of money, and vocational training with tools and machinery should be provided for girls as well as boys.

WEBB, SIDNEY AND BEATRICE. *A constitution for the socialist commonwealth of Great Britain.* London, Longmans, Green & Co., 1920. 364 pp.

In the introduction of this book it is stated that the authors do not seek to attempt any indictment of the capitalist system. There is pointed out what, from the authors' point of view, are the failures of the present system, the changes necessary to make the country over into a socialistic State are discussed, and all the fancied benefits of such a complete change of system are pictured.

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 bulletin 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. 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.
- * Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.

Wages and Hours of Labor—Concluded.

- * 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.
- Bul. 232. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1916.
- Bul. 238. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1916.
- Bul. 239. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing and finishing, 1916.
- Bul. 245. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1917.
- * Bul. 252. Wages and hours of labor in the slaughtering and meat-packing industry, 1917.
- Bul. 259. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1918.
- Bul. 260. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907 to 1918.
- Bul. 261. Wages and hours of labor in woolen and worsted goods manufacturing, 1918.
- Bul. 262. Wages and hours of labor in cotton goods manufacturing and finishing, 1918.
- Bul. 265. Industrial survey in selected industries in the United States, 1919. Preliminary report
- Bul. 274. Union scale of wages and hours of labor, May 15, 1919.
- Bul. 278. Wages and hours of labor in the boot and shoe industry, 1907-1920. [In press.]
- Bul. 279. Hours and earnings in anthracite and bituminous coal mining. [In press.]

Employment and Unemployment.

- * Bul. 109. Statistics of unemployment and the work of employment offices.
- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- Bul. 172. Unemployment in New York City, N. Y.
- Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
- * Bul. 183. Regularity of employment in the women's ready-to-wear garment industries.
- Bul. 192. Proceedings of the American Association of Public Employment Offices.
- * Bul. 195. Unemployment in the United States.
- Bul. 196. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference held at Minneapolis, January, 1916.
- Bul. 202. Proceedings of the conference of the Employment Managers' Association of Boston, Mass., held May 10, 1916.
- Bul. 206. The British system of labor exchanges.
- Bul. 220. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the American Association of Public Employment Offices, Buffalo, N. Y., July 20 and 21, 1916.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.

Employment and Unemployment—Concluded.

- * Bul. 227. Proceedings of the Employment Managers' Conference, Philadelphia, Pa., April 2 and 3, 1917.
- Bul. 235. Employment system of the Lake Carriers' Association.
- Bul. 241. Public employment offices in the United States.
- Bul. 247. Proceedings of Employment Managers' Conference, Rochester, N. Y., May 9-11, 1918.

Women in Industry.

- Bul. 116. Hours, earnings, and duration of employment of wage-earning women in selected industries in the District of Columbia.
- * Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
- * Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons.
- Bul. 119. Working hours of women in the pea canneries of Wisconsin.
- * Bul. 122. Employment of women in power laundries in Milwaukee.
- Bul. 160. Hours, earnings, and conditions of labor of women in Indiana mercantile establishments and garment factories.
- * Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- * Bul. 175. Summary of the report on condition of woman and child wage earners in the United States.
- * Bul. 176. Effect of minimum wage determinations in Oregon.
- * Bul. 180. The boot and shoe industry in Massachusetts as a vocation for women.
- Bul. 182. Unemployment among women in department and other retail stores of Boston, Mass.
- Bul. 193. Dressmaking as a trade for women in Massachusetts.
- Bul. 215. Industrial experience of trade-school girls in Massachusetts.
- Bul. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- Bul. 253. Women in the lead industry.

Workmen's Insurance and Compensation (including laws relating thereto).

- Bul. 101. Care of tuberculous wage earners in Germany.
- Bul. 102. British National Insurance Act, 1911.
- Bul. 103. Sickness and accident insurance law of Switzerland.
- Bul. 107. Law relating to insurance of salaried employees in Germany.
- * Bul. 126. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
- * Bul. 155. Compensation for accidents to employees of the United States.
- * Bul. 185. Compensation legislation of 1914 and 1915.
- Bul. 203. Workmen's compensation laws of the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 210. Proceedings of the Third Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 212. Proceedings of the conference on social insurance called by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 217. Effect of workmen's compensation laws in diminishing the necessity of industrial employment of women and children.
- Bul. 240. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States.
- Bul. 243. Workmen's compensation legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 248. Proceedings of the Fourth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 264. Proceedings of the Fifth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 272. Workmen's compensation legislation of the United States and Canada, 1919. [In press.]
- Bul. 273. Proceedings of the Sixth Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions.
- Bul. 275. Comparison of workmen's compensation laws of the United States and Canada.
- Bul. 281. Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Meeting of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [In press.]

Industrial Accidents and Hygiene.

- Bul. 104. Lead poisoning in potteries, tile works, and porcelain enameled sanitary ware factories.
- Bul. 120. Hygiene of the painters' trade.
- * Bul. 127. Dangers to workers from dusts and fumes, and methods of protection.
- Bul. 141. Lead poisoning in the smelting and refining of lead.

Industrial Accidents and Hygiene—Concluded.

- * Bul. 157. Industrial accident statistics.
- Bul. 165. Lead poisoning in the manufacture of storage batteries.
- * Bul. 179. Industrial poisons used in the rubber industry.
- Bul. 188. Report of British departmental committee on the danger in the use of lead in the painting of buildings.
- * Bul. 201. Report of committee on statistics and compensation insurance cost of the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. [Limited edition.]
- Bul. 205. Anthrax as an occupational disease.
- Bul. 207. Causes of death by occupation.
- Bul. 209. Hygiene of the printing trades.
- * Bul. 216. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building.
- Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
- Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
- Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
- Bul. 231. Mortality from respiratory diseases in dusty trades.
- Bul. 234. Safety movement in the iron and steel industry, 1907 to 1917.
- Bul. 236. Effect of the air hammer on the hands of stonemasons.
- Bul. 251. Preventable death in the cotton manufacturing industry.
- Bul. 253. Women in the lead industries.
- Bul. 256. Accidents and accident prevention in machine building. Revision of Bul. 216.
- Bul. 267. Anthrax as an occupational disease. (Revised.)
- Bul. 276. Standardization of industrial accident statistics.
- Bul. 280. Industrial poisoning in making coal tar dyes and dye intermediates. [In press.]

Conciliation and Arbitration (including strikes and lockouts).

- * Bul. 124. Conciliation and arbitration in the building trades of Greater New York.
- Bul. 133. Report of the industrial council of the British Board of Trade on its inquiry into industrial agreements.
- Bul. 139. Michigan copper district strike.
- Bul. 144. Industrial court of the cloak, suit, and skirt industry of New York City.
- Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- Bul. 191. Collective bargaining in the anthracite coal industry.
- Bul. 198. Collective agreements in the men's clothing industry.
- Bul. 233. Operation of the Industrial Disputes Investigation Act of Canada.

Labor Laws of the United States (including decisions of courts relating to labor).

- * Bul. 111. Labor legislation of 1912.
- Bul. 112. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1912.
- * Bul. 148. Labor laws of the United States, with decisions of courts relating thereto.
- * Bul. 152. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1913.
- * Bul. 166. Labor legislation of 1914.
- * Bul. 169. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1914.
- * Bul. 186. Labor legislation of 1915.
- * Bul. 189. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1915.
- Bul. 211. Labor laws and their administration in the Pacific States.
- * Bul. 213. Labor legislation of 1916.
- Bul. 224. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1916.
- Bul. 229. Wage-payment legislation in the United States.
- Bul. 244. Labor legislation of 1917.
- Bul. 246. Decisions of courts affecting labor, 1917.
- Bul. 257. Labor legislation of 1918.
- Bul. 258. Decisions of courts and opinions affecting labor, 1918.
- Bul. 277. Labor legislation of 1919. [In press.]

Foreign Labor Laws.

- Bul. 142. Administration of labor laws and factory inspection in certain European countries.

Vocational Education.

- Bul. 145. Conciliation, arbitration, and sanitation in the dress and waist industry of New York City.
- * Bul. 147. Wages and regularity of employment in the cloak, suit, and skirt industry.
- Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment.
- Bul. 162. Vocational education survey of Richmond, Va.
- Bul. 199. Vocational education survey of Minneapolis.

Labor as Affected by the War.

- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 219. Industrial poisons used or produced in the manufacture of explosives.
- Bul. 221. Hours, fatigue, and health in British munition factories.
- Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
- Bul. 223. Employment of women and juveniles in Great Britain during the war.
- Bul. 230. Industrial efficiency and fatigue in British munition factories.
- Bul. 237. Industrial unrest in Great Britain.
- Bul. 249. Industrial health and efficiency. Final report of British Health of Munition Workers Committee.
- Bul. 255. Joint industrial councils in Great Britain.

Miscellaneous Series.

- * Bul. 117. Prohibition of night work of young persons.
- * Bul. 118. Ten-hour maximum working-day for women and young persons.
- * Bul. 123. Employers' welfare work.
- Bul. 158. Government aid to home owning and housing of working people in foreign countries.
- * Bul. 159. Short-unit courses for wage earners, and a factory school experiment.
- * Bul. 167. Minimum-wage legislation in the United States and foreign countries.
- Bul. 170. Foreign food prices as affected by the war.
- Bul. 174. Subject index of the publications of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics up to May 1, 1915.
- Bul. 208. Profit sharing in the United States.
- Bul. 222. Welfare work in British munition factories.
- Bul. 242. Food situation in Central Europe, 1917.
- Bul. 250. Welfare work for employees in industrial establishments in the United States.
- Bul. 254. International labor legislation and the society of nations.
- Bul. 263. Housing by employers in the United States. [In press.]
- Bul. 266. Proceedings of Seventh Annual Convention of Governmental Labor Officials of the United States and Canada. [In press.]
- Bul. 268. Historical survey of international action affecting labor.
- Bul. 271. Adult working-class education in Great Britain and the United States.

SPECIAL PUBLICATIONS ISSUED BY THE BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS

Descriptions of occupations, prepared for the United States Employment Service, 1918-19.

Boots and shoes, harness and saddlery, and tanning.
Cane-sugar refining and flour milling.
Coal and water gas, paint and varnish, paper, printing trades, and rubber goods.
Electrical manufacturing, distribution, and maintenance.
Logging camps and sawmills.
Medicinal manufacturing.
Metal working, building and general construction, railroad transportation, and ship-
building.
Mines and mining.
Office employees.
Slaughtering and meat packing.
Street railways.
Textiles and clothing.
Water transportation.

○