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Trend of Child Labor in the United States, 1913 to 1920.

By Nettie P. McGill, Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

WITHIN the last few months persistent newspaper statements to the effect that children were continuing, despite a gradual return of the country to peace-time conditions, to go to work in increasing numbers, caused the United States Children's Bureau to bring up to date statistics bearing on numbers of children entering gainful employment which it had secured as a result of an earlier inquiry.

Practically the only source of current information regarding numbers of children going to work is furnished by data on "age and schooling certificates," "work permits," or "employment certificates" required in most States before a child, usually 14 to 16 years of age, may go to work in certain occupations, generally manufacturing and

mercantile.

Only a few States regularly compile statistics of employed children, and these cover only manufacturing and, in some instances, mercantile pursuits, and are so various as not to be comparable. Certificate figures, it should be noted, do not show the number of children actually employed, but merely indicate the number of children presumably

intending to go to work.

This information, while the best that can be secured, is in many cases far from satisfactory. It covers only cities and such occupations as require employment certificates. Less than half a score of States collect certificate data for the State as a whole, and in only a few of these do the records go back as far as 1913, the last year not affected by war conditions. Many cities, also, while able at the present time to furnish figures, have been keeping records for so short a time as to render comparisons over a period of years impossible, or have changed the method of keeping their records so that the old and the new figures are not comparable. Other difficulties arise in attempting to make comparisons. Certificates issued for vacation and after-school employment are in some cases, but not in all, included in the total; certificates issued to children going to work for the first time are in certain cities tabulated with certificates issued to children on changing employment; records are in many cases kept for the fiscal year, which differs from city to city, whereas in other cases they are kept for the calendar year. Monthly records are available for only a few places.

Even if complete and comparable figures can be secured for a particular city, an increase in the number of certificates issued may not indicate a corresponding increase, and may mean an actual decrease,

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in the number of children going to work, due to a better enforcement of the certificate regulations of the child-labor law.

These are factors the extent of which it is never easy, and in some cases it is impossible, to evaluate even when they are known to exist. In many cases one or another may be operating with significant results without its presence being suspected.

Nevertheless, it is possible in the case of a limited number of States and cities to make certain rough comparisons of one year with another as regards the number of children receiving employment certificates for the first time, to present evidence tending to show whether or not the increase or decrease is a real or an apparent one, and, in some cases, to advance explanations of the change which has occurred.

cases, to advance explanations of the change which has occurred.

The present inquiry was confined to published reports and such information as could be secured through correspondence. Letters asking for employment certificate figures covering the years 1913 to 1920 were sent out to 71 cities, in which, according to the United States Census of Manufactures for 1914, there were a large number of children employed, or in which the proportion of children to the total number of wage earners was considerable. From 19 cities there was no reply, and 10 supplied no definite data. Of the remaining 42 cities, 27 furnished information for only a part of the period, four of these for less than two full years. Of the 15 cities which furnished statistics for each of the years 1913 to 1920, only 12 supplied monthly figures, or figures for the calendar year, so that for purposes of exact comparison three of these cities had to be excluded.

The cities for which we have complete statistics, however, form a representative group, comprising as they do cities of different sizes in various parts of the country and with diversified industries. The South Atlantic States are the only ones not represented in the list, no data being available for any of the industrial cities in those States.

An attempt was made to secure, in addition to the figures, specific data for the purpose of showing changes year by year in the ages of children going to work, whether boys are going into industry in larger numbers than girls, to what extent the children are being equipped educationally, what industries they are entering, and what opportunities their work offers; but the value of compiling such information has not generally been recognized, and too little material was secured for practicable use in this report.

Table 1 presents the certificate figures for all cities for which statistics were available for calendar years; Table 2 for all cities furnishing

statistics for other than calendar years.

			19	14	. 19	15	19	916	19	017	19	018	19	19			1920		
	State and city.	1913. Num- ber.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change com- pared with pre- ceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change com- pared with pre- ceding year.	Per cent of change com- pared with 1918.	Per cent of change compared with 1916.	Per cent of change compared with 1913.
	California: San Francisco	787	772	- 1.9	664	-14.0	523	- 21.2	708	+ 35.4	588	-16.9	477	-18.9	536	+12.4	- 8.8	+ 2.5	-18.9
	Connecticut: Bridgeport New Haven Waterbury	1,342	1,452 1,055 266	-31.3 -21.4 -49.9	2,155 1,363 438	+48. 4 +29. 2 +64. 7	2,383	+ 26.7 + 74.8 + 55.9	2,547 1,695 821	- 6.7 - 28.9 + 20.2	3,634 2,168 928	+42.7 +27.9 +13.0	1,982 1,100 468	-45. 5 -49. 3 -49. 6	1, 918 1, 460 528	$ \begin{array}{r} -3.2 \\ +32.7 \\ +12.8 \end{array} $	-32.7	- 29.8 - 38.7 - 22.7	- 9.3 + 8.8 6
1	Delaware: Wilmington District of Columbia				577		703	+ 21.8	776	+ 10.4	730	- 5.9	515 1,234	-29.5	484 929	$ \begin{array}{r r} -6.0 \\ -24.7 \end{array} $	100000000000000000000000000000000000000	- 31.2	
	Indiana: Indianapolis Kentucky: Louisville.		2,274		2,212	- 2.7	3,612 2 703	+ 63.3	4,505	+ 24.7 +173.5	5,387 2 2,930	+19.6 +52.4	5, 570 2 1, 812	+ 3.4	5, 159 368	- 7.4 -79.7		+ 42.8	
	Louisiana: New Orleans	2,067	1,950	- 5.7	3 2, 341	+14.9	3 2, 935	+ 25.4		+ 12.0	3 3, 450	+ 5.0	3 3, 263	- 5.4	2,769	-15.1	-19.7	- 5.7	+34.0
	Maryland: Baltimore	4 6, 571	4 3, 580	-45.5	4 3, 252	- 9.2	4 3, 695	+ 13.6	4 4, 434	+ 20.0	4 4,659	+ 5.1	4 3, 823	-17.9	4,373	+14.4	- 6.1	+ 18.3	-33. 5
	Massachusetts: Boston New Bedford Springfield		4, 508 1, 234		3,686 1,327 276	-18. 2 + 7. 5	1,751	+ 92. 2 + 32. 0 +145. 3	7,033 1,330 760	7 - 24.0 + 12.3	8,700 1,545 823	+23.7 +16.2 + 8.3	6, 497 1, 213 640	-25.3 -21.5 -22.2	6, 118 838 630	- 5.8 -30.9 - 1.6	$ \begin{array}{r} -29.7 \\ -45.8 \\ -23.5 \end{array} $	- 13.7 - 52.1 - 5.5	
	Minnesota: Minneapolis St Paul	532	446	-16.2	379	-15.0	553 97	+ 45.9	642 206	+ 16.1 +133.0	745 327	+16.0 +58.7	704 485	$-5.5 \\ +48.3$	873 480	+24.0 -1.0	+17. 2 +46. 8	+ 57. 9 +394. 8	+64.1
	Missouri: St. Louis	5, 276	4,233	-19.8	3,691	-12.8	5, 912	+ 60.2	6,829	+ 15.5	7,840	+14.8	4,858	-38.0	6,060	+24.7	-22.7	+ 2.5	+14.9
	New Hampshire: Manchester	571	184	-67.8	191	+ 3.8	332	+ 73.8	387	+ 16.6	433	+11.9	348	-19.6	359	+ 3.2	-17.1	+ 8.1	-37.1

¹ Compiled, except where otherwise noted, from figures furnished by certificating officers, school officials, etc., in correspondence with the United States Children's Bureau.

2 Ninth Biennial Report, Bureau of Labor, Kentucky, 1918–19, pp. 39, 40.

3 Annual Reports of Factories Inspection Department, Parish of Orleans, 1916, p. 5; 1917, p. 6; 1918, p. 8; 1919, p. 6.

4 Annual Reports, State Board of Labor and Statistics, Maryland, 1913, p. 35; 1914, p. 10; 1915, p. 45; 1916, p. 101; 1917, p. 30; 1918, p. 30; 1919, p. 56,

TABLE 1.—NUMBER OF CHILDREN RECEIVING REGULAR EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR THE FIRST TIME AND PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (-), BY CALENDAR YEARS, 1913 TO 1920, IN SPECIFIED CITIES—Concluded.

		19	914	19	15	19	916	19	17	19	918	19	19			1920		
State and city.	1913. Num- ber.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Per cent of change compared with 1918.	Per cent of change compared with 1916.	Per cent o change compared with 1913.
New Jersey: Jersey City Newark Paterson		1,836		1, 118 2, 027	+10.4	2, 289 2, 549 918	+104.7 + 25.8	2, 865 2, 769 1, 518	+ 25.1 + 8.6 + 65.4	3, 248 3, 271 993	+13. 4 +18. 1 -34, 6	2, 494 2, 682 1, 439	-23. 2 -18. 0 +44. 9	3,012 2,915 1,006	$+20.8 \\ +8.7 \\ -30.1$	$ \begin{array}{r} -7.3 \\ -10.9 \\ +1.3 \end{array} $	+ 31.6 + 14.4 + 9.6	
New York: Buffalo New York City Rochester Yonkers Ohio:	5.41,432 1.956	2,909 5 33,056 1,427 171	-27. 1 -20. 2 -27. 0	2, 986 5 36, 936 1, 664 214	$\begin{array}{c} + \ 2.6 \\ +11.7 \\ +16.6 \\ +25.1 \end{array}$	3,640 5 46,858 2,196 379	+ 21.9 + 26.9 + 32.0 + 77.1	2,768 5 39, 274 1,561 375	- 24.0 - 16.2 - 28.9 - 1.1	3, 211 5 49, 459 2, 472 598	+16.0 $+25.9$ $+58.4$ $+59.5$	3, 152 50, 575 2, 435 509	$ \begin{array}{r} -1.8 \\ +2.3 \\ -1.5 \\ -14.9 \end{array} $	3, 914 50, 740 2, 664 521	+24. 2 + .3 + 9. 4 + 2. 4	$ \begin{array}{r} +21.9 \\ +2.6 \\ +7.8 \\ -12.9 \end{array} $	+ 7.5 + 8.3 + 21.3 + 37.5	- 2, +22, +36.
Cincinnati		311		6 1, 272 180	$+14.9 \\ -42.1$	⁶ 1, 942 481	+ 52.7 +167.2	6 2, 349 719	+ 21.0 + 49.5	2,712 875	$+15, 5 \\ +21, 7$	2,576 787	- 5, 0 -10, 1	3, 015 923	+17.0 +17.3	+11.2 + 5.5	+ 55.3 + 91.9	
Philadelphia Pittsburgh Rhode Island: Providence.		2, 264	-11.0	2,359	+ 4.2	5, 159 1, 171 2, 778	+ 17.8	9, 371 2, 342 2, 740	+ 81.6 +100.0 - 1.4	10,776 2,039 3,499	+15.0 -12.9 $+27.4$	9,730 1,939 2,794	$ \begin{array}{r} -9.7 \\ -4.9 \\ -20.1 \end{array} $	9, 808 2, 408	+ 8. 0 +24. 2	- 9.0 +18.1	+ 90.1 +105.6	
Wisconsin: Milwaukee			42.							8,061		4, 764	-40.9	5, 238	+ 9.9	-35.0		

⁵ Reports of the Bureau of Attendance, Department of Education, New York City, 1915, p. 176; 1915-1918, p. 182. ⁶ Annual Reports, Cincinnati Public Schools, 1914, p. 276; 1915, p. 157; 1916, p. 200; 1917, p. 242.

TABLE 2.—NUMBER OF CHILDREN RECEIVING REGULAR EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR THE FIRST TIME, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE (+) OR DECREASE (-), BY FISCAL YEARS, 1912-13 TO 1919-20, IN SPECIFIED CITIES.1

		1913	3-14	1914	-15	1915	5-16	1916	5-17	1917	7–18	1918	8-19			1919-20		
City and year.	1912-13. Num- ber.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change com- pared with pre- ceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change compared with preceding year.	Num- ber.	Per cent of change com- pared with pre- ceding year.	Per cent of change, compared with 1917-18,	change com- pared with	Per cent of change com- pared with 1912-13
July 1 to June 30. Chicago, Ill. Detroit, Mich. Reading, Pa. ³ . Springfield, Mass Washington, D. C. ⁴ . Aug. 1 to July 31.	3,058	2, 592	-15. 2 +24. 8	² 2,470 491	-4.7		- 27.8 + 14.5	2,354 770 1,383 727	+32.0	942 1,604 1,917	- 6.4 + 22.3 + 16.0 +163.7	25, 160 2, 074 880 1, 402 1, 478	+32.7 - 5.9 - 6.6 -12.6 -22.9	19,733 1,857 1,550 1,724 1,070	-21.6 -10.5 +76.1 +23.0 -27.6	+64.5 + 7.5 -44.2	+ 90.4	- 39. +143.
New Britain, Conn,5 Sept. 1 to Aug. 31.	327	297	-9.2	326	+ 9.8		+149.7	575	-29.4		+ 15.7	666	+ .2	619	- 7.1		- 24.0	
Akron, Ohio		444			- 2.9 -46.8		+8.9 +110.4 + 85.8	715 332 565 695	+10.0 +47.5 +52.1	572 742	+ 28.0 + 72.3 + 31.3 + 38.4	858 510 758 974	$ \begin{array}{r} -6.2 \\ -10.8 \\ +2.2 \\ +1.2 \end{array} $	610 564 760 1,143	$ \begin{array}{r} -28.9 \\ +10.6 \\ + .3 \\ +17.4 \end{array} $	$\begin{vmatrix} -1.4 \\ +2.4 \end{vmatrix}$		

Compiled, except where otherwise noted, from figures furnished by certificating officers, school officials, etc., in correspondence with the U. S. Children's Bureau.
 Report of the Public Schools, Detroit, 1915, p. 220.
 Minutes of Reading School Board, Aug. 21, 1917, p. 177; Aug. 20, 1918, p. 240; July 15, 1919, p. 148; July 29, 1920, p. 261.
 Annual Reports of Board of Education, Washington, D. C., 1913-14, p. 85; 1914-15, p. 127; 1915-16, p. 167; 1916-17, p. 158; 1917-18, p. 193; 1918-19, p. 145.
 Annual Reports of Board of Education, Connecticut, 1914-15, pp. 40, 43; 1916-1919, p. 39.

Child Labor Before the War.

THE number of employed children under 16 years of age was diminishing during the years just prior to 1914, to judge by statistics for manufacturing establishments given in the Census of Manufactures for 1914. In 1909 there were 19 cities in which children under 16 constituted 4 per cent or over of the wage earners employed in factories, whereas in 1914 there were only 8 cities of this class.1 The average number, also, of wage earners under 16 in factory industries in cities with a population of 10,000 or over is given for both 1909 and 1914 in the Census of Manufactures, showing a decline from 98,528 child workers in 1909 to 72,870 in 1914. But the date (Dec. 15, 1914) on which the Bureau of the Census took its employment figures for the latter year fell within a period of industrial depression following the beginning of the war in Europe, and the figure, therefore, does not represent ordinary labor conditions. Decreases during these five years were, however, to be expected in view of the rapid growth of child-labor legislation. Reliable certificate figures are, unfortunately, not available over a period of years preceding 1914.

Effect of European War on Child Labor.

THE industrial depression which marked the opening months of the war in Europe and continued throughout the winter of 1914–15 was reflected in the numbers of children taking out permits to work. Each of the 13 cities for which we have data for the calendar year 1913 showed in 1914 a decrease from the preceding year in the number of children receiving regular original employment certificates. This decrease amounted to approximately one-fifth in New Haven, St. Louis, and New York City, over one-fourth in Buffalo and Rochester, about one-third in Bridgeport, almost one-half in Baltimore

and Waterbury, and reached two-thirds in Manchester.

In the calendar year 1915, of 20 cities for which data were available covering both 1914 and 1915, all except 7 reported an increase in the numbers of children receiving certificates. By the latter part of 1915 the effect of foreign orders for war goods was beginning to make itself felt in the increased employment of children, so that while in the earlier months of the year relatively few children went to work, the numbers taking out employment certificates during the last quarter more than counterbalanced the decrease. The downward tendency throughout the summer of 1915 is illustrated by five other cities, statistics for which cover the fiscal years 1913-14 and 1914-15, ending either June 30, July 31, or August 31, before business began to look up. Four of these five cities showed a decrease from the preceding year. New Britain is the exception. This is accounted for by the fact that even by the spring and early summer of 1915 the placing of war contracts by the belligerent countries of Europe had begun in cities prepared to manufacture munitions, so that the consequent enormous industrial expansion characterizing the State of Connecticut during the war had already set in. The increase in 1915 in Waterbury was not quite two-thirds, in Bridgeport almost one-half.

² Idem, p. 285.

Abstract of the Census of Manufactures, 1914, p. 286.

The cities which do not show an increase for the calendar year 1915 over 1914, namely, San Francisco, Indianapolis, Baltimore, Boston, Minneapolis, St. Louis, and Toledo, are cities which were not immediately affected by the increased manufacture of munitions for export.

Beginning with the autumn of 1915 an unprecedented rise began in the number of children entering gainful employment, and heavy increases were practically everywhere recorded for 1916 and 1917, even before the United States entered the war. Detroit stands alone among the six cities furnishing figures for the fiscal year covering this period, in recording a decrease in 1915-16 (July 1 to June 30). The large decrease in Detroit was, no doubt, caused by the law of 1915 raising the minimum age from 14 to 15 years. Of 23 cities for which data are available for the calendar year 1916 and also for 1915, every one except San Francisco suffered an increase in 1916 over 1915 in the number of children receiving employment certificates. increases were very large; for example, 167 per cent in Toledo, 145 per cent in Springfield, 105 per cent in Jersey City, 92 per cent in Boston, 77 per cent in Yonkers, 75 per cent in New Haven, 74 per cent in Manchester, 63 per cent in Indianapolis, 60 per cent in St. Louis, 56 per cent in Waterbury, 53 per cent in Cincinnati, 46 per cent in Minneapolis. The smallest was 14 per cent in Baltimore, possibly influenced by an amendment to the law in 1916 reducing the maximum hours for child workers. A decrease of about one-fifth in San Francisco may be due to the law of 1915 which strengthened the minimum age provision of the former law and improved the physical requirements for certification.

Massachusetts cities manufacturing foundry and machine-shop products recorded increases in 1916 much above the average:3 Cambridge, 90 per cent, Holyoke, 123 per cent; Springfield, 145 per cent. The increase in the number of child workers was most striking in centers where children are not normally employed in large numbers; the textile cities which always employed children did not show relatively large increases. An exception to this is Lowell, which in 1916 suffered an increase of almost 400 per cent over 1915 in the number of children taking out employment certificates. The increase in child labor in Lowell may be attributed to the fact that during 1916 large foundries, machine shops, and cartridge plants were located

In every one of the 13 cities for which the earlier statistics could be secured, except in San Francisco, Baltimore, Manchester, and Buffalo, a larger number of children were certificated in 1916 than in 1913.

Child Labor After the United States Entered the War.

AFTER the entrance of the United States into the war the number of children taking out employment certificates continued to rise. The forces at work pushing children into industry included the growing cost of the necessities of life, combined, in many cases, with the absence on military duty of members of the family who had previously contributed to its support. High wages offered by employers hard pressed for help proved a powerful magnet, drawing into business

³ Figures given in Annual Reports of the Massachusetts State Board of Labor and Industries, 1916, pp. 37–42; 1917, pp. 109–120, except those for Springfield, which were furnished by the School Department of Springfield in correspondence with the U. S. Children's Bureau.

and industry many children under 16 who in normal times would have remained in school. A spirit of adventure due to the excitement of war has been mentioned also as an important cause for the increased number of children going to work, especially among boys. Table 3 shows the number of children certificated in certain States in 1916-17 and 1917-18 and the per cent of increase in the latter year over the former, thus comparing the years before and after the participation of the United States in the war. The periods vary in the different States according to the month when the State begins to keep its records for the fiscal year.

TABLE 3.—NUMBER OF CHILDREN RECEIVING REGULAR EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR THE FIRST TIME IN 1916-17 AND 1917-18, AND PER CENT OF INCREASE 1917-18 OVER 1916-17, IN CERTAIN STATES.

		1917	-18.
State.	1916–17. Number.	Number.	Per cent of increase over 1916–17.
California ² . Connecticut ³ . Iowa ⁴ Massachusetts ⁴ . Minnesota ⁵ . New Jersey ⁶ New York ⁷	1,060 11,502 1,836 41,958 845 17,578 57,694	1,285 13,714 3,077 47,041 1,047 20,086 60,706	21. 2 19. 2 67. 6 12. 1 23. 9 14. 3 5. 2

1 Furnished, except where otherwise indicated, by labor and school officials in correspondence with the United States Children's Bureau.

2 Figures from June 25 to June 25. Eighteenth Biennial Report, Bureau of Labor Statistics of California, 1917-18, p. 27.

8 Figures from Aug. 1 to Aug. 1. Report of Connecticut Board of Education, 1916-1919, p. 35.

4 Figures from July 1 to July 1.

5 Figures from June to June.

6 Figures from June to June.

Figures from Sept. 1 to Sept. 1. Include records of age kept from Nov. 1, which show 248 16-year-old children in 1917-18. It is probable 217 16-year-old children are included in the 1916-17 figures.

7 Figures from June 30 to June 30. Annual Report, Industrial Commission, Department of Labor of New York, 1917, p. 118; 1918, p. 96.

In a few States for which statistics of children at work can be obtained, a similar increase for these years is observed. In New Hampshire, for instance, the number of children between 14 and 16 employed in the chief factory towns increased in 1917 119 per cent over 1916, and in 1918, 58.7 per cent over 1917.4 In Rhode Island the number of children under 16 employed in inspected factories increased 6 per cent in 1917 and 14.7 per cent in 1918.5 In Massachusetts the number of wage earners under 18 in a number of important industries rose from 52,339 on December 16, 1916, to 58,741 on December 15, 1917.6

All except 9 of the 28 cities for which certificate figures were obtained covering calendar years of 1916 and 1917 suffered an increase in the number of children going to work. Bridgeport and New Haven recorded a decrease from 1916, but so large had been the increase in these cities in 1915 and 1916 that the net increase over 1913 was still considerable. Boston had a decrease of less than 1 per cent to offset the 92 per cent increase in 1916 over the preceding

<sup>New Hampshire School Report, 1917-18, p. 100.
Annual Reports of Rhode Island Factory Inspector, 1916, p. 5; 1917, p. 5; 1918, p. 5.
Annual Reports on the Statistics of Manufactures, Massachusetts Bureau of Statistics, 1916, p. xlii;</sup> 1917, p. xlii.

year. New Bedford, with a decrease of approximately one-fourth, nevertheless, certificated more children in 1917 than in 1915. Four of the 9 cities in which decreases for 1917 were recorded were in New York State, where an amendment to the child-labor law, effective February 1, 1917, requiring higher educational qualifications no doubt was responsible for fewer children going to work. Of 6 additional cities for which we have figures for the fiscal years 1915–16 and 1916–17, only 1, New Britain, recorded a decrease in the latter year. But it will be remembered that New Britain, like other Connecticut cities, had seen a tremendous rise in the preceding year—almost 150

per cent.

In 1918 the increase continued. Four cities only among the 28 furnishing comparable statistics of the number of children taking out permits to work showed a decrease. The decrease of 13 per cent in Pittsburgh, an important munitions center, followed a 100 per cent increase in 1917 over the preceding year. In Paterson the situation was similar. In Wilmington, despite its shipbuilding, munitions, and steel and iron industries, there was a decrease of 6 per cent, partly explained by the fact that in April, 1917, Delaware had raised the educational requirements for certificates and in other ways had strengthened its child-labor law. Of the nine cities for which data are available for other than calendar years there was an increase in each one in 1917–18, except in Detroit. In 1917 Michigan had passed a law whereby fewer school exemptions were permitted than

previously. While with the few exceptions noted 1918 was the peak year as regards the numbers of children under 16 years of age going to work, in several cities the increase in 1918 was so striking as to arrest attention even in that year of generally large increases. In Washington, D. C., there was an increase of more than 163 per cent in 1917-18 (July 1 to June 30) over 1916-17, said to be due largely to a demand for child workers in Government offices.7 In Louisville, Ky., there was an increase in 1918 of 52 per cent, following an increase in 1917 of 174 per cent, so that the number of children receiving employment certificates was in 1918 over four times as great as in 1916. occurred in spite of the fact that Kentucky had in 1918 strengthened requirements relating to the evidence which might be accepted in proof of age before a certificate was issued. Louisville had developed into an industrial center only a few years before the European war began. Among its principal manufactures were tobacco, plows, wagons, and machinery, and in addition it contained a large woolen mill and a basket and box factory. Most of these industries received Government contracts, and, moreover, large munitions plants near the city absorbed much labor. In Philadelphia an increase of 82 per cent in 1917 was followed by a still further increase of 15 per cent in 1918. This large increase over the prewar figure is explained by the fact that boys of 16 might work in the shipyards located near the city or in the munitions plant established there during the war, receiving unusually high wages, so that there was a shortage of help in office, trade, and messenger service, to be filled by children 14 to 16 years old.

⁷ Annual Report, Board of Education, Washington, D. C., 1917-18, p. 193.

Children Illegally Employed.

IT should be kept in mind that the figures here given relate only to children legally certificated, and give no indication of the numbers going to work without complying with the law. While in a few instances higher standards became effective during the war, due to changes in the child-labor and school-attendance laws, and resulting probably in the issuing of proportionately fewer employment certificates than would otherwise have been the case, in certain places prewar standards were actually relaxed. Reports from labor commissioners and factory inspectors indicated the difficulty experienced during the war years in adequately administering child-labor laws.

Parents and children, tempted by the high wages offered the children at a time when the excessive cost of living presented a serious problem, would connive at evasions of the law in order to have the children work in factories and munitions plants. In Philadelphia violations of the child-labor law were four times as great in 1917 as in 1916.⁸ In inspections made by the Children's Bureau of 63 ship-yards where steel ships were being built, approximately 60 per cent of the children found at work who claimed to be 16 and were without certificates were actually only 14 or 15 years of age.

The reply of the assistant secretary of the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin to an inquiry sent out in 1918 by the Children's Bureau in regard to this subject pointed out the fact that—

No serious attempts have been made either to lower the standards of the child-labor law or to secure exemptions from it; as a matter of fact, the standards of our law have been raised during the last year.

but continued—

The general effect of the war upon the enforcement of the child-labor law has been to increase the difficulty of enforcing the law. The scarcity of adult labor has made the employer more ready to take minors into his employ. Many employers now employ children who have never done so before to any extent. The high wages offered have led children to represent themselves as older than they are so that they might avoid the restrictions on the hours of labor to children under 16. Our law, as amended in 1917, requires children between 16 and 17 to be employed only upon a labor permit. For this reason many children claim to be over 17.

When these facts are taken into consideration it is clear that in many cases the increase in the number of children between 14 and 16 receiving certificates represents the minimum of increase in the actual number of children going to work during the years in which industry was profoundly affected by the war.

Post-Armistice Conditions.

THE industrial reorganization following the armistice resulted in a decrease in the numbers of young persons entering gainful employment. With the shutting down of war industries, the return of soldiers, and, possibly, the uncertainty of the business outlook, there were fewer places for children to fill, though the still mounting cost of living during 1919 furnished a strong incentive for leaving school to go to work. During 1919, 25 out of 29 cities, as shown in Table 1,

⁸ Annual Report, Philadelphia Bureau of Compulsory Education, 1918, p. 28.

experienced a decrease in children receiving employment certificates, amounting to about one-half in the case of the Connecticut cities; from two-fifths to one-fourth in Wilmington, Louisville, Boston, St. Louis, and Milwaukee; from one-fourth to somewhat less than one-fifth in San Francisco, Baltimore, New Bedford, Manchester, Jersey City, Newark, and Providence; and to smaller decreases in the other cities. Cincinnati and Newark, which even during the industrial depression of 1915 recorded an increase over previous years in the number of children certificated (explained by Cincinnati officials as due in that city

to better enforcement), recorded decreases in 1919.

St. Paul and Paterson are the only cities of the 29 for which figures were available showing a considerable increase in 1919 over 1918. The department of labor and industries in Minnesota, while ascribing the increase in numbers of certificates issued in Minnesota during 1918-1920 to the high cost of living and the labor shortage, comments also on the influence of a stricter enforcement of the law. 10 New York City and Indianapolis recorded increases so slight as probably to be due simply to the normal increase in population. Table 2 shows that the increases in 1918-19 over the preceding fiscal year in New Britain, Los Angeles, and Youngstown are likewise negligible and may have been due entirely to conditions preceding the armistice, though no monthly figures are available to settle the point. Chicago, however, in the fiscal year 1918-19 had an increase of almost onethird over 1917-18. A stiffening in the general enforcement provisions of the Illinois child-labor law in 1917 probably accounts in part for this situation, though the raising of the educational requirements at the same time, by causing a decline in the numbers of children eligible for certificates, would tend to offset the increased number reached by the new administrative machinery.

Child Labor in 1920.

THE annual totals for 1920 indicate that in 18 of the 29 cities furnishing figures, as given in Table 1, the number of children receiving certificates mounted after the decline in 1919. The greatest decrease, 80 per cent, was reported for Louisville, so that despite the very large increases during the war years, the number of children certificated in 1920 was scarcely more than half the number receiving certificates in 1916. Other large decreases were recorded in New Bedford, Paterson, and Washington, D. C., amounting to 31, 30, and 25 per cent, respectively. The deviation in Washington from the general tendency is easily understood in view of the great decline in governmental business during the post-war months. New Bedford superintendent of schools explains the decrease there as due to industrial depression, especially affecting the textile industry; and the same cause was probably operative in Paterson. Part of the credit for the 6 per cent decrease in Boston may go to new legislation, for the educational requirements for certification were raised in Massachusetts in 1919.

 $^{^9}$ Annual Report, Cincinnati Public Schools, 1916, p. 199. 10 Seventeenth Biennial Report, Department of Labor and Industries of Minnesota, 1919–1920, pp. 111, 113. 38729°-21-2

While 18 out of 29 cities recorded in 1920 an increase over 1919, there are only 9 places in which the number of children receiving work permits was not less in 1920 than in 1918. When 1920 figures are compared, however, with those for 1916, the year preceding the entrance of the United States into the war, increases are still indicated for 18 cities, and decreases for only 9. Decreases practically always mean that fewer children are going to work unless there is lax enforcement of the law, which is not likely to have been the case in 1920. Whether the increases are proportioned to increases in the population of those 14 to 16 years of age, and so indicate no actual increase in the proportion of children employed, or whether they show actual increases in numbers of children going to work rather than increases only in numbers receiving certificates due to better enforcement, it is not possible to tell.

Unfortunately, it is possible to compare conditions in 1920 with 1913 in the case of only 12 cities. In six of these cities (New Haven, New Orleans, Minneapolis, St. Louis, New York City, and Rochester) there was an increase in the number of original certificates issued; in six (San Francisco, Bridgeport, Waterbury, Baltimore, Manchester,

and Buffalo) there was a decrease.

It is to be noted, also, that the latest figures indicate still further decreases. The continued increase in the cost of living and the lure of high wages are assigned by a number of certificating officers as causes for the general increase in 1920. But beginning with the late summer of 1920 there occurred a depression in industry and business, accompanied by a gradual decline in the prices of necessities. The certificate figures indicate that the numbers of children entering employment for the first time were influenced by these factors; for, while the totals for 1920 indicate an increase in a large majority of the cities studied, the latter half of the year in all except 9 cases out of 26 shows a decrease over the latter half of 1919. In three of these exceptions the increase for the latter half of 1920 was exceedingly small as compared with the increases in these cities for the entire year.

In Table 4 the numbers of certificates issued during the last six months of 1919 and 1920 are shown, with the per cent of increase or decrease in the latter half of 1920 as compared with the corresponding period in the preceding year. For purposes of comparison with this figure the per cent of increase or decrease for the entire year 1920

over 1919 is included, wherever available.

4.—CHILDREN RECEIVING REGULAR EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR THE FIRST TIME, AND PER CENT OF CHANGE, 1920 AS COMPARED WITH 1919.

	Number- Decen		Per cent of change July to	Per cent of	
City.	1919	1920	December, 1920, as compared with July to December, 1919.	change 1920, as compared	
Baltimore, Md Boston, Mass. Bridgeport, Conn Buffalo, N. Y Chicago, Ill. 3 Cincinnati, Ohio Indianapolis, Ind Jersey City, N. J Louisville, Ky Milwaukee, Wis Minneapolis, Minn Newark, N. J New Haven, Conn New Orleans, La. New York City, N. Y Paterson, N. J Philadelphia, Pa Pittsburgh, Pa Rochester, N. Y San Francisco, Calif St. Louis, Mo Springfield, Mass. Washington, D. C Waterbury, Conn Wilmington, Del Yonkers, N. Y	2 2, 160 3, 803 1, 083 1, 794 9, 841 1, 379 2, 961 1, 737 4 927 3, 273 3, 273 3, 49 1, 681 5 1, 622 24, 150 1, 187 1, 187 1, 1026 222 2, 297 439 553 274 249 280	1, 998 3, 027 936 1, 812 9, 973 1, 658 1, 488 1, 774 170 2, 704 1, 573 736 20, 011 1, 332 895 296 4, 893 1, 332 895 226 412 315 173 203	-7.5 -20.4 -13.6 +1.0 +1.4 +20.2 -49.7 +2.2 -81.7 -17.4 +6.4 +2.5 -11.5 -17.1 -46.8 -46.8 -15.0 -48.5 -25.5 +15.0 -30.5	+14.4 -5.8 -3.2 +24.2 +17.0 -7.4 +20.8 -79.7 +9.9 +24.0 -15.1 +3.3 -30.1 +8.7 +24.2 +9.4 +24.2 +9.4 +12.4 -1.6 -24.7 -1.2 -2.4	

respondence.

5 Twelfth Annual Report, Factory Inspection Department of Parish of Orleans, 1919, p. 6.

Summary.

WHEN the numbers of children receiving employment certificates in each of the groups of cities furnishing statistics for the years 1916 to 1920 are added, there is indicated in 1920 a slight increase over 1919, a decrease from 1918, the year of maximum war production, and an increase of about 12 per cent over the number of children taking out certificates in 1916. The following table gives the grand total of children certificated in all of these cities in certain significant years, and shows the per cent of increase or decrease in 1920 as compared with each of these years.

¹Compiled, except where otherwise noted, from figures furnished by certificating officers, school officials, etc., in correspondence with the U. S. Children's Bureau.

²Twenty-eighth Annual Report, State Board of Labor and Statistics, Maryland, 1919, p. 56.

³The director of the Vocational Guidance and Employment Certificate Bureau, Board of Education, Chicago, writes, Dec. 29, 1920: "During the months of October and November this year a thousand fewer certificates were issued than during the two corresponding months of last year * * * Large numbers of children have been laid off, and a great many certificates are returned to us by employers each day."

⁴Compiled from Ninth Biennial Report, Bureau of Labor, Kentucky, 1918-19, p. 40, and from correspondence.

TABLE 5.—TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN CERTAIN CITIES 1 RECEIVING REGULAR EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR THE FIRST TIME, IN SPECIFIED YEARS, AND PER CENT OF CHANGE IN 1920.

Year.	Number.	Per cent of change in 1920 as compared with specified year.
1916 1918	101, 948 124, 541	+11.7 - 8.6
1919 1920	112,073 113,879	+ 1.6

¹ Baitimore, Boston, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Cincinnati, Indianapolis, Jersey City, Louisville, Manchester, Minneapolis, Newark, New Bedford, New Haven, New Orleans, New York City, Paterson, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Rochester, San Francisco, St. Louis, St. Paul, Springfield, Mass., Toledo, Waterbury, Wilmington, and Yonkers.

The smaller group of cities for which we have certificate figures for the entire period 1913 to 1920 shows the same tendencies. In 1920 there was an increase, moreover, of about 13 per cent as compared with 1913. Table 6 gives the totals for selected years for this group of cities, with per cent of increase or decrease in 1920 as compared with the specified year.

TABLE 6.—TOTAL NUMBER OF CHILDREN IN CERTAIN CITIES RECEIVING REGULAR EMPLOYMENT CERTIFICATES FOR THE FIRST TIME, IN SPECIFIED YEARS, AND PER CENT OF CHANGE IN 1920.

Year.	Number.	Per cent of change in 1920 as compared with specified year.
1913 1915	67, 169 56, 060	+13.4 +35.9
1916 1918	72, 441 79, 587	+ 5.2
1919	73, 185	+ 4.1
1920	76, 194	

¹ Baltimore, Bridgeport, Buffalo, Manchester, Minneapolis, New Haven, New Orleans, New York City, Rochester, St. Louis, Toledo, and Waterbury.

The increase in the population of these cities between 1913 (estimated) and 1920 was 14 per cent. The number of children taking out certificates to work has kept pace with the growing population in these cities, which, by reason of their size, location, and industries, may be considered representative of the country as a whole. A number of States represented by this group of cities passed legislation during the period under discussion which would tend to decrease the number of children going to work. On the other hand, enforcement of the certificating provisions of the child-labor law became in certain places much more effective during these years, causing fewer children to go to work without legal certification, but possibly resulting in larger numbers receiving certificates. Therefore, while the number of children taking out certificates has increased in proportion to the increase in population, it can not be stated positively, any more than it can be denied, that the number of children actually going to work in 1920 increased in like proportion over the number going to work in 1913.

PRICES AND COST OF LIVING.

Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

HE following tables are based on figures which have been received by the Bureau of Labor Statistics from retail dealers

through monthly reports of actual selling prices.1

Table 1 shows for the United States retail prices of food on February 15, 1920, and on January 15 and February 15, 1921, as well as the percentage changes in the month and in the year. For example, the price of strictly fresh eggs on February 15, 1920, was 68.5 cents; on January 15, 1921, 79.1 cents; and on February 15, 1921, 47.9 cents. These figures show a decrease of 30 per cent in the year and 39 per cent in the month.

The cost of the various articles of food,2 combined, showed a decrease of 21 per cent in February, 1921, as compared with February, 1920, and a decrease of 9 per cent in February, 1921, as compared

with January, 1921.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE FEB. 15, 1921, COMPARED WITH FEB. 15, 1920, AND JAN. 15, 1921.

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

Article.	Unit.	Averag	ge retail pri	ce on—	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-) Feb. 15, 1921, compared with—		
		Feb. 15, 1920.	Jan. 15, 1921.	Feb. 15, 1921.	Feb. 15, 1920.	Jan. 15, 1921.	
Sirloin steak Round steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef. Pork chops Bacon Ham Lamb Hens. Salmon, canned Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh Eggs, storage	dododododododo	50. 3 50. 7 39. 0 44. 7 37. 6 16. 7 72. 6 43. 4 36. 1 43. 3 32. 3 38. 1 68. 5 59. 4	Cents. 40.5 36.3 31.0 23.6 16.9 46.2 48.4 48.7 42.7 37.8 16.3 14.8 61.0 31.3 33.6 38.6 38.6 22.3 27.2 79.1 68.7	Cents. 38.3 34.2 29.3 20.3 32.2 0.1 15.6 32.7 44.7 48.2 42.9 37.6 15.4 14.7 56.5 35.4 32.3 38.4 20.7 25.9 47.9 44.4	- 6 - 8 - 7 - 12 - 15 - 13 - 11 - 5 - 12 - 4 0 0 - 8 9 - 22 - 18 - 11 - 11 - 36 - 32 - 30 - 25	- 5 - 6 - 5 - 7 - 8 - 3 - 7, 4 - 7 - 1 - 6 - 1 - 7 - 5 - 4 - 7 - 5 - 4 - 7 - 5 - 3 - 7, 4 - 7 - 1 - 7 - 5 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7 - 7	

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 22 articles, weighted according to the consumption of the average family, have been used from January, 1913, to December, 1920: 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. The remainder of the 44 articles, with the exception of storage eggs, shown in Tables 1 and 2 have been included in the January and February, 1921, weighted aggregates.

TABLE 1.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE FEB. 15, 1922, COMPARED WITH FEB. 15, 1921, AND JAN. 15, 1921—Concluded.

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

Artiele.	Unit.	Average	e retail pri	ce on—	Per cent of increas (×) or decreas (−) Feb. 15, 1921 compared with-		
	4	Feb. 15, 1920.	Jan. 15, 1921.	Feb. 15, 1921.	Feb. 15, 1920.	Jan. 15, 1921.	
Bread. Flour Flour Flour Rolled oats Corn flakes Corn flakes Macaroni Rice Beans, navy Potatoes Onions. Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned Peas, canned Tomatoes, canned Tomatoes, canned Tea. Coffee Prunes. Raisins. Bananas. Oranges. All articles combined 1	dodododododododo.	29. 3 20. 0 18. 3 12. 2 6. 0 9. 3 9. 3 16. 9 18. 6 19. 1 15. 2 18. 8 74. 4 49. 1 29. 0 25. 6 41. 0 53. 4	Cents. 10. 8 6. 7 5. 2 10. 7 14. 1 30. 1 21. 6 11. 9 3. 0 4. 1 3. 7 15. 8 17. 4 18. 5 12. 4 9. 7 72. 1 38. 9 32. 1 41. 9 46. 9	Cents. 10. 6 6. 5 5. 0 10. 4 14. 0 30. 0 21. 3 10. 5 8. 6 2. 6 3. 9 3. 6 15. 3 17. 1 18. 2 12. 2 12. 2 12. 2 12. 2 12. 2 13. 3 17. 5 22. 5 31. 5 21. 5 31.	- 5 -20 -23 + 3 + 2 + 7 -43 -57 -58 -61 - 9 - 8 -20 -23 + 0,1 -24 -22 +25 0 -15	- 2 - 3 - 3 - 1 - 0 - 1 - 1 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 1 3 - 1 3 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 3 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 3 - 2 - 2 - 2 - 3 - 1 - 2 - 3 - 3 - 9	

¹ See note 2, page 15.

Table 2 shows for the United States average retail prices of specified food articles on February 15 of each year, 1913 and 1914, and for each year from 1917 to 1921, together with the percentage changes in February of each of these specified years compared with February, 1913. For example, the price of strictly fresh eggs in February, 1913, was 31.5 cents; in February, 1914, 36.5 cents; in February, 1917, 50.7 cents; in February, 1918, 62.7 cents; in February, 1919, 50.6 cents; in February, 1920, 68.5 cents, and in February, 1921, 47.9 cents. As compared with the average price in February, 1913, these figures show the following increases: Sixteen per cent in 1914, 61 per cent in 1917, 99 per cent in 1918, 61 per cent in 1919, 117 per cent in 1920, and 52 per cent in 1921.

The cost of the various articles of food, combined, showed an increase of 63 per cent in February, 1921, as compared with February,

1913.

TABLE 2.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED FOOD ARTICLES AND PER CENT OF INCREASE OR DECREASE FEBRUARY 15 OF CERTAIN SPECIFIED YEARS COMPARED WITH FEBRUARY 15, 1913.

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

Article.	Unit.	1	Avera	ge ret	ail pr	ices F	eb. 15	-	cr	ease (of ine —) Fe year , 1913.	eb. 15 comp	of eac	h spe-
		1913	1914	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921	1914	1917	1918	1919	1920	1921
Sirloin steak. Round steak. Round steak. Round steak. Rib rost. Chuck roast. Plate beef. Pork chops. Bacon. Bacon. Lamb. Heam. Lamb.	.dodododododododo	18, 8 14, 9 11, 3 18, 9 25, 5 25, 4 18, 2 20, 7 8, 9 41, 2 22, 2 2 15, 4 4 1, 2 23, 5 5, 6 3, 3 2, 9 4 1, 5 5 5, 6 6 1, 5 6 1, 5 1, 5 1, 5 1, 5 1, 5 1, 5 1, 5 1, 5	22.9 20.0 16.4 17.1 12.4 21.0 26.5 21.6 29.6 29.6 29.6 29.6 29.6 29.6 29.6 29	26.0 22.6 14.0 22.2 61.8 51.4 0.0 22.2 61.8 51.4 0.0 9.1 14.1 14.1 14.1	31. 4 26. 3 3. 6 48. 4 43. 8 4 443. 8 4 29. 1 11. 3 4 9. 1 11. 8 1 1. 3 2 2 4 9 1 10. 6 6 6 8 30. 4 4 9 15. 0	41. 2 38. 8 32. 6 6 27. 9 37. 9 37. 9 37. 9 35. 16. 4 4 33. 1. 7 57. 2 3. 39. 2 9 37. 9 40. 9 13. 33. 8 9. 8 9. 8 9. 8 14. 1 1 1 2 3 4 4. 3 1 1 3 7 3 4. 3 6 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	37. 25. 1 18. 4 37. 7 50. 3 37. 7 50. 3 37. 7 50. 3 37. 6 6 6 5 6 16. 7 72. 6 6 8. 5 59. 4 11. 14. 1 1 2 20. 0 1 114. 1 1 2 20. 0 1 1 15. 2 1 8. 1 5 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	34. 22 29. 32. 77. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 7. 7. 44. 44	+ 11	$\begin{array}{c} +\ 26\\ +\ 20\\ +\ 24\\ +\ 24\\ +\ 24\\ +\ 24\\ +\ 29\\ +\ 40\\ +\ 40\\ +\ 40\\ +\ 42\\ -\ 40\\ +\ 42\\ -\ 40\\ +\ 42\\ -\ 40\\ +\ 42\\ -\ 40\\ +\ 42\\ -\ 40\\ +\ 42\\ -\ 40\\ -\$	+ 40 + 52 + 52 + 57 + 78 + 70 + 72 + 75 + 75 + 41 + 57 + 113 + 12 + 12 + 93 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 12 + 12	+ 88 + 73 + 94 + 101 + 117 + 117 + 117 + 118 + 128 + 1	+ 811 + 688 + 688 + 699 + 979 + 979 + 1100 + 1116 + 116 + 116 + 117 + 116 + 117 + 117 + 113 + 124 + 113 + 1300	+ 626 + 626 + 488 + 383 + 75 + 900 + 737 +

¹ See note 2, p. 15.

Table 3 shows the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 articles of food 3 as well as the changes in the amounts of these articles that could be purchased for \$1, each year, 1913 to 1920, and in February, 1921.

TABLE 3.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF FOOD AND AMOUNT PURCHASABLE FOR \$1, BY YEARS, 1913 TO 1920, AND FOR FEBRUARY, 1921.

	Sirloin	steak.	Round	steak.	Rib 1	roast.	Chuck	roast.	Plate	beef.	Pork	chops.
Year.	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.
1913	.273 .315 .389 .417	Lbs. 3.9 3.9 3.9 3.7 3.2 2.6 2.4 2.3 2.6	Per lb. \$0. 223 . 236 . 230 . 245 . 290 . 369 . 389 . 395 . 342	Lbs. 4.5 4.2 4.3 4.1 3.4 2.7 2.6 2.5 2.9	Per lb. \$0. 198 . 204 . 201 . 212 . 249 . 307 . 325 . 332 . 293	Lbs. 5.1 4.9 5.0 4.7 4.0 3.3 3.1 3.0 3.4	Per lb. \$0.160 .167 .161 .171 .209 .266 .270 .262 .220	Lbs. 6.3 6.0 6.2 5.8 4.8 3.8 3.7 3.8 4.5	Per lb. \$0.121 .126 .121 .128 .157 .206 .202 .183 .156	Lbs. 8.3 7.9 8.3 7.8 6.4 4.9 5.0 5.5 6.4	Per lb. \$0, 210 . 220 . 203 . 227 . 319 . 390 . 423 . 423 . 327	Lbs. 4. 8 4. 8 4. 8 4. 9 4. 4 4. 4 3. 1 2. 6 2. 4 3. 1
	Bac	eon,	На	m.	La	rd.	Не	ens.	Eg	gs.	Bu	tter.
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921; February.	. 275 . 269 . 287 . 410 . 529 . 554	Lbs. 3. 7 3. 6 3. 7 3. 5 2. 4 1. 9 1. 8 1. 9 2. 2	Per lb. \$0, 269 .273 .261 .294 .382 .479 .534 .555 .482	Lbs. 3.7 3.7 3.8 3.4 2.6 2.1 1.9 1.8 2.1	Per lb. \$0.158 .156 .148 .175 .276 .333 .369 .295 .207	Lbs. 6.3 6.4 6.8 5.7 3.6 3.0 2.7 3.4 4.8	Per lb. \$0, 213 .218 .208 .236 .286 .377 .411 .447 .429	Lbs. 4.7 4.6 4.8 4.2 3.5 2.7 2.4 2.2 2.3	Per dz. \$0, 345 .353 .341 .375 .481 .569 .628 .681 .479	Doz. 2, 9 2, 8 2, 9 2, 7 2, 1 1, 8 1, 6 1, 5 2, 1	Per lb. \$0, 383 .362 .358 .394 .487 .577 .678 .701 .565	Lbs. 2.6 2.8 2.8 2.5 2.1 1.7 1.5 1.4 1.8
	Che	eese.	Mi	lk.	Bre	ead.	Flo	our.	Corn	meal.	R	ice.
1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919 1920 1921: February	. 232 . 258 . 332 . 359 . 426	Lbs. 4.5 4.4 4.3 3.9 3.0 2.8 2.3 2.4 2.7	Per qt. \$0,089 .089 .088 .091 .112 .139 .155 .167 .154	$\begin{array}{c}Qts.\\11.2\\11.2\\11.4\\11.0\\9.0\\7.2\\6.5\\6.0\\6.5\end{array}$	Per lb. \$0.056 .063 .070 .073 .092 .098 .100 .115 .106	Lbs. 17. 9 15. 9 14. 3 13. 7 10. 9 10. 2 10. 0 8. 7 9. 4	Per lb. \$0. 033 . 034 . 042 . 044 . 070 . 067 . 072 . 081 . 065	Lbs. 30. 3 29. 4 23. 8 22. 7 14. 3 14. 9 13. 9 12. 3 15. 4	Per lb. \$0.030 .032 .033 .034 .058 .068 .064 .065 .050	Lbs. 33. 3 31. 3 30. 3 29. 4 17. 2 14. 7 15. 6 15. 4 20. 0	Per lb. \$0. 087 . 088 . 091 . 104 . 129 . 151 . 174 . 105	Lbs. 11. 8 11. 8 11. 10 11. 0
	Pota	atoes.	Su	gar.	Col	ffee.	Т	ea.				
1913	.018 .015 .027 .043 .032 .038 .063	Lbs. 58.8 55.6 66.7 37.9 23.3 31.3 26.3 15.9 38.5		Lbs. 18. 2 16. 9 15. 2 12. 5 10. 8 10. 3 8. 8 5. 2 11. 2	Per lb. \$0, 298 . 297 . 300 . 299 . 302 . 305 . 433 . 470 . 375	Lbs. 3. 4 3. 3 3. 3 3. 3 3. 3 2. 3 2. 1 2. 7	Per lb \$0. 544 . 546 . 545 . 546 . 582 . 648 . 701 . 733 . 715	Lbs. 1.8 1.8 1.8 1.7 1.5 1.4 1.4				

³ Although monthly prices have been secured on 43 food articles since January, 1919, prices on only 22 of these articles have been secured each month since 1913.

Index Numbers of Retail Prices of Food in the United States.

N Table 4 index numbers are given which show the changes in the retail prices of each of 22 food articles, by years, from 1907 to 1920, and by months for 1920 and 1921. These index numbers, or relative prices, are based on the year 1913 as 100, and 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. These figures must be used with caution. For example, the relative price of rib roast for the year 1920 was 168, which means that the average money price for the year 1920 was 68 per cent higher than the average money price for the year 1913. The relative price of bacon for the year 1919 was 205 and for the year 1920, 194, which figures show a drop of 11 points but a decrease of only 5 per cent in the year.

In the last column of Table 4 are given index numbers showing the changes in the retail cost of all articles of food, combined. From January, 1913, to December, 1920, 22 articles have been included in the index and beginning with January, 1921, 43 articles will be used.5 For an explanation of the method used in making the link between the cost of the market basket of 22 articles, weighted according to the average family consumption in 1901, and the cost of the market basket based on 43 articles and weighted according to the consumption in 1918, see Monthly Labor Review for March, 1921,

The curve shown in the chart on page 21 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 retail cost of the food articles included in the index has decreased since July, 1920, until the curve is brought down in February, 1921, to approximately where it was in May, 1918. The chart has been drawn on the logarithmic scale, because the percentages of increase or decrease are more accurately shown than on the arithmetic scale.

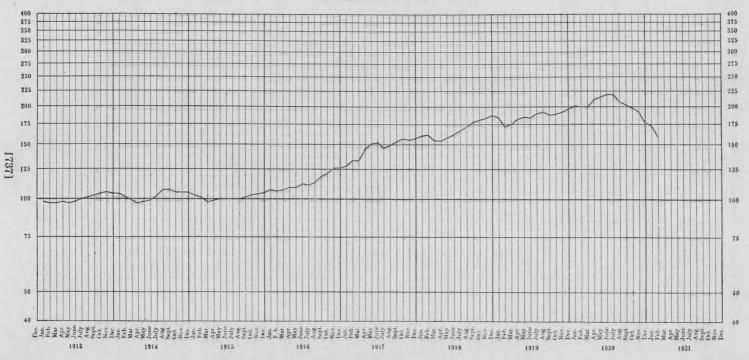
⁴ See note 2, p. 15.
⁶ For index numbers of each month, January, 1913, to December, 1920, see Monthly Labor Review for February, 1921, pp. 19-21.
⁶ For a discussion of the logarithmic chart, see article on "Comparison of arithmetic and ratio charts," by Lucian W. Chaney, Monthly Labor Review for March, 1919, pp. 20-34. Also, "The 'ratio' chart," by Prof. Irving Fisher, reprinted from Quarterly Publications of the American Statistical Association, June, 1917, 24 pp.

TABLE 4.—INDEX NUMBERS SHOWING CHANGES IN THE RETAIL PRICES OF THE PRINCIPAL ARTICLES OF FOOD IN THE UNITED STATES, BY YEARS, 1907 TO 1920, AND BY MONTHS FOR 1920 AND 1921.

[Average for year 1913=100.]

Year and month.		Round steak.	Rib roast.	Chuck roast.		Pork chops.	Ba- con,	Ham.	Lard.	Hens.	Eggs.	But- ter.	Cheese.	Milk.	Bread.	Flour.	Corn meal.	Rice.	Pota- toes,	Su- gar.	Cof- fee.	Tea.	All articles com- bined.
1907	71 73 77 80 81 91 100 102 101 108 124 153 164 172 159 160 161 170 171 182 192 186 185 177 171 156	68 71 74 78 79 89 99 100 103 1130 165 174 177 166 167 169 179 191 1202 196 193 188 178	76 78 81 85 94 100 103 101 107 126 155 164 169 169 169 176 181 175 168 175 168 175 168 175 168 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175 175	100 104 101 107 131 166 169 168 157 157 166 166 174 179 172 170 162 158 145	100 104 100 106 130 170 167 151 152 150 157 155 157 155 154 152 146 136	74 76 83 92 92 91 100 96 105 96 105 152 186 201 178 180 206 202 194 208 219 238 238 238 210 157	74 777 83 95 91 100 102 106 152 205 194 186 186 186 191 195 203 203 202 204 176	76 78 82 91 100 102 97 109 142 178 206 187 188 190 199 206 215 222 223 224 222 186	81 80 90 104 88 88 94 100 99 93 111 175 211 187 215 204 192 191 189 185 184 177 177 183 162	81 83 89 94 91 100 102 97 111 134 177 190 215 224 221 216 211 212 214 201 189	84 86 93 98 99 100 102 99 139 165 182 197 240 199 161 153 153 155 166 184 206 234 268	85 86 90 94 88 88 98 100 94 93 127 151 177 183 194 199 187 175 175 175 175 179 180 181 162	100 194 105 117 150 162 193 189 196 194 194 194 194 189 186 183 184 184 180	87 90 91 95 96 97 100 99 102 125 156 174 188 187 183 182 183 194 194 194	100 112 130 164 175 195 198 200 200 201 211 213 213 213 211 207 193	95 102 109 108 103 115 100 104 125 211 203 218 245 245 245 245 245 245 245 245 245 252 252	88 92 94 95 94 102 100 205 198 113 192 227 217 220 217 2217 223 230 233 230 237 217 217 217 217 217 217 217 217 217 21	100 101 104 105 119 148 174 200 208 210 211 214 215 215 214 210 202 183 163 152	111	105 108 107 109 111 115 100 108 120 146 169 176 205 353 324 342 340 367 462 485 482 416 333 235 191	100 100 101 100 101 102 145 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 165 16	100 100 100 100 107 110 129 135 132 131 135 136 136 137 137 137 137	8 8 8 8 9 9 9 9 100 110 111 144 166 188 200 200 21 211 212 21 210 200 199 177
January February	159 151	163 153	157 148	148 138	140 129	171 156	171 166	180 179	141 131	200 201	229 139	159 148	175 171	183 173	193 189	203 197	173 167	137 121	176 153	176 162	129 126	133 131	17

TREND IN RETAIL COST OF ALL ARTICLES, COMBINED, FOR THE UNITED STATES, BY MONTHS, JANUARY, 1913, TO FEBRUARY, 1921. [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 February 15, 1913, for February 15, 1920, and for January 15 and February 15, 1921. For 12 other cities, prices are shown for the

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.

		I	Atlant	a, Ga		Ва	ltimo	ore, M	d.	Birn	ningh	nam,	Ala.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	do	Cts. 22. 6 20. 5 17. 0 13. 0 9. 8	36.3 30.5 24.7	28.2	33.1 26.4 21.0	Cts. 20.7 19.0 17.3 14.7 11.6	37. 1 32. 0 25. 2	39. 6 36. 4 31. 3 24. 2	34. 5 30. 2 22. 9	24. 9 20. 1	37.6 31.1 25.5	25. 8	36. 29. 24.
Pork chops	do	19. 5 30. 0 28. 5 20. 0 20. 0		48, 1 48, 3 36, 9	46. 2 48. 6 34. 4	17. 3 21. 3 30. 0 18. 0 19. 8	42. 6 53. 5 43. 0	38. 5 52. 0 36. 4	37. 7 50. 8 33. 1	30.0	56. 7 52. 1 41. 5	51. 4 49. 4 41. 7	49. 50. 40.
Salmon (canned) Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart 15-16 oz. can Pounddo.	10.0	31. 8 25. 0 18. 4 76. 7 46. 7	21. 7 15. 3 64. 9	15. 4	8.8	15. 5	15. 0 14. 6 67. 8	15. 0 14. 5 62. 3	10. 3	17.0	25. 0 15. 9 65. 6	25. 15. 63.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh	do	25.0	38. 2	37. 0 23. 1 24. 5	21.6	23. 3 13. 5 27. 1	31.1	39. 8 20. 1 24. 7	39. 3 18. 8 23. 0	23. 0 15. 4 28. 8	31. 4	39. 0 22. 3 29. 3	38. 3 20. 3 28.
Eggs, storageBread. Flour Corn meal Rolled oats.	do	25. 0 6. 0 3. 6 2. 4	7.8	12.3	12. 2 7. 0 3. 9	23. 0 5. 4 3. 2 2. 4	10. 2 8. 3 5. 5	10.8 6.5 4.3	10.8	25. 0 5. 0 3. 8 2. 1	10. 2	7.6	3 11 7 3
Corn flakes Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice Beans, navy	28-oz. pkg		29. 1	31, 8	$\begin{vmatrix} 31.2 \\ 22.3 \end{vmatrix}$	9.0	19.0	21.9	28. 7 21. 5 11. 4	8. 2	29. 5 20. 6 18. 1	14. 9 32. 4 24. 6 11. 4 10. 7	32 3 24 4 10
Potatoes	do		9.8	5. 4 5. 4 14. 7	5. 0 4. 9 7 14. 9	1.7	8. 9 9. 6 15. 5	3. 8 3. 1 14. 2	3. 8 3. 1 14. 2		10. (9. 3 18. 3	5. 6 5. 5 5. 17. 8	5 2 5 8 16
Peas, canned	do	6. 6	20. 6 14. 7 20. 8 0 89. 6 51. 3	8 10.0	5 10.8 9.2 9 90.0	56.0	14. 8 18. 8 71. 4	9.8	10. 2 8. 3 68. 6	5. 3 61. 3 28. 8	14. 3 20. 4 8 87. 1		5 10 9 9 7 90
Prunes. Raisins. Bananas Oranges.	do		25	32.	32.9	3	25. 3 33. 9	30.8			42.		2 32 6 43

¹The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities

same dates with the exception of February, 1913, as these cities were not scheduled by the bureau until after 1913.

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		Bridg	eport,	Conn.	В	uffalo	, N.	Y.	But	tte, M	ont.	Ch	arlest	on, S	. C.
Feb.	15—	Jan. 15,	Feb. 15,	Feb. 15,	Jan.	Feb. 15,	Feb.	15—	Jan. 15,	Feb. 15.	Feb. 15,	Jan.		Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.
1913	1920	1921.	1921.	1920.	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.		1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 34, 5 32, 4 23, 4 17, 0	55. 5 39. 9	Cts. 1 62. 2 54. 8 39. 1 28. 1 21. 2	Cts. 1 56. 4 49. 6 34. 8 23. 9 16. 9		Cts. 46. 5 42. 9 34. 2 26. 6 12. 9	Cts. 42, 8 38, 9 32, 6 25, 0 11, 8	18.3 17.0 14.7	33. 3	30. 0	30.6 27.3 21.4	30. 0 28. 4 22. 1	26, 2 23, 4	28. 2 24. 4 18. 7	20. 0 19. 3 15. 0	Cts. 38. 8 39. 2 32. 1 26. 3 20. 7	40. 5 32. 2 26. 3	38. 9 32. 3 25. 7
20. 6 24. 6 28. 3 21. 8 22. 8	38, 2 47, 5 55, 7 43, 8 47, 4	39. 3 42. 9 53. 9 39. 9 45. 9	35. 3 41. 7 52. 4 36. 0 47. 6	35. 8 55. 9 59. 7 41. 9 46. 7	37. 4 50. 0 54. 9 36. 4 45. 5	32. 1 48. 2 54. 9 32. 6 46. 1	19. 3 20. 3 24. 0 17. 5 20. 0	41. 8 50. 5 34. 2	46. 7 29. 9	35. 7 46. 5 27. 1	33.1	55. 0 56. 3 30. 2	53. 9 30. 6	23. 0 26. 7 21. 3	39. 5 54. 0 51. 8 43. 9 48. 3	46. 0 49. 4 45. 0	47. 5
8. 9	36. 1 17. 0 16. 6 72. 6 44. 3	37. 7 17. 3 15. 6 61. 6 39. 6	37. 8 16. 5 15. 4 56. 6 38. 9	37. 5 17. 0 16. 4 70. 8 43. 3	40. 4 17. 0 14. 9 59. 9 37. 1	40. 5 16. 0 14. 8 · 55. 0 35. 3	41. 2	35. 1 16. 0 15. 0 72. 1 42. 4	36, 3 16, 0 14, 2 62, 5 36, 2	15.0	15. 6 16. 8	15. 8 15. 6 58. 8	15. 8 15. 0	11.7	16.0	23. 3 15. 0 . 61. 2	
22. 9 15, 3 37. 5	35. 9 42. 9 31. 8 36. 8 87. 7	34. 7 39. 3 22. 8 26. 2 96. 1	33. 5 39. 0 20. 3 25. 6 67. 3	35. 4 43. 1 31. 0 36. 3 91. 9	34. 4 38. 4 20. 8 26. 5 94. 8	32. 2 38. 2 19. 2 25. 3 64. 4		34. 4 41. 4 29. 5 35. 1 72. 3	32. 3 37. 9 20. 4 26. 5 80. 4	37. 2 18. 5 23. 9	43. 9 37. 6	40, 3	37. 9 40. 2 27. 7 33. 1 48. 6		46. 0 43. 3 33. 9 38. 9 69. 6	36. 6 24. 1 26. 5	22. 6 25. 7
25. 2 5. 9 3. 7 3. 5	63, 1 11, 2 8, 7 7, 2 8, 3	72. 2 10. 5 7. 1 6. 9 9. 7	55. 1 10. 5 7. 0 6. 2 9. 6	65. 9 12. 1 8. 3 8. 5 10. 0	72. 7 11. 3 6. 5 8. 7 10. 7	65. 0 11. 0 6. 4 8. 7 10. 3	22. 2 5. 6 2. 9 2. 5	57. 3 11. 0 7. 6 6. 1 8. 1	68. 4 11. 1 5. 8 4. 9 9. 2	43. 0 10. 9 5. 5 4. 2 8. 0	51. 7 11. 5 8. 7 7. 8 9. 5	63. 3 12. 0 6. 8 6. 4 9. 4	9, 9 6, 8 6, 0 9, 2	23, 8 6, 2 3, 7 2, 3	58.8 10.6 8.3 5.0 10.8	73. 5 11. 6 7. 7 3. 8 12. 4	11. 6 7. 5 3. 4 11. 7
9. 2	14. 0 29. 4 23. 2 18. 5 11. 2	14. 1 30. 0 25. 7 13. 9 8. 7	13. 9 29. 7 25. 2 12. 4 8. 4	13. 6 27. 9 24. 2 17. 9 11. 7	13. 9 28. 8 24. 7 12. 2 9. 9		9, 3	13. 0 27. 1 21. 1 17. 8 11. 4	13. 2 28. 4 23. 7 11. 9 8. 9	12.6 28.0 23.1 10.0 8.4	32. 2 21. 7 18. 3	33. 6 22. 5	14.7 33.6 22.5 11.2 9.3	5. 5	14. 8 29. 9 20. 9 16. 3 14. 9	14. 8 30. 3 23. 6 8. 4 12. 2	30.4
1.7	6. 0 9. 6 10, 1 17. 2 21. 0	2. 8 4. 0 4. 3 17. 5 20. 1	2. 4 4. 0 4. 2 16. 6 19. 9	5. 6 9. 5 10. 0 15. 7 20. 1	2. 8 3. 8 3. 4 14. 0 20. 6	2. 5 3. 9 3. 4 13. 7 20. 2	1, 4	5. 5 8. 6 9. 1 14. 0 18. 4	2. 4 4. 0 1. 6 13. 5 16. 4	1.8 3.6 1.9 12.7 15.7	5. 6 8. 2 9. 6 21. 5 18. 6	2. 0 4. 1 4. 2 22. 1 18. 5	1. 5 4. 1 5. 2 21. 2 18. 0	2. 0	6. 5 10. 9 9. 7 14. 9 20. 5	3. 5 4. 9 4. 2 13. 6 17. 4	2. 8 4. 8 4. 1 13. 2 16. 9
5. 4 58. 6 33. 0	20, 9 16, 3 18, 2 68, 5 52, 7	21. 3 13. 1 9. 3 67. 6 43. 0	21. 1 13. 7 8. 6 67. 4 41. 7	19. 9 16. 1 19. 2 63. 7 47. 2	20. 6 12. 1 9. 4 59. 3 37. 2	20. 4 12. 2 8. 4 58. 0 35. 6	5. 3 45. 0 29. 3	17. 7 15. 5 18. 1 66. 6 46. 6	16. 7 12. 7 9. 6 65. 3 35. 8	16. 2 11. 5 8. 7 64. 4 34. 4	18. 6 16. 7 17. 0 77. 5 59. 5	19. 4 14. 3 11. 7 78. 1 54. 0	13. 4 10. 6 77. 7	50.0	22. 3 15. 0 16. 0 80. 0 48. 5	20. 7 11. 0 9. 4 78. 8 37. 1	19. 6 10. 5 8. 1 77. 3 35. 2
	28. 3 25. 4 50. 7 59. 7	23. 1 32. 5 50. 8 50. 2	20. 9 32. 2 52. 5 47. 6	28. 1 25. 9 41. 0 57. 8	21. 8 31. 7 43. 9 48. 7	20. 4 31. 4 41. 9 47. 9		29. 6 24. 8 43. 1 56. 3	25. 1 31. 5 49. 7 52. 8	22. 1 31. 3 48. 2 53. 0	27. 1 26. 8 2 15.1 56. 2	24. 2 33. 5 2 18.2 46. 6	23. 4 32. 5 2 17.6 42. 3		29. 6 24. 3 42. 5 45. 0	23. 5 34. 0 45. 0 41. 6	23. 5 33. 8 45. 7 39. 0

included in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak.

² Per pound.

TABLE 5 .- AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SELECTED ARTICLES OF

			Chica	go, Ill		Cin	cinna	ti, Ol	hio.	Cle	velan	d, Oh	io.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	15—	Jan.		Feb.		Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	1921.
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuck roast Plate beef	do	18.1	31.8	40. 2 32. 7	29.3	Cts. 21, 3 19, 1 18, 6 13, 9 11, 6	-21.0	Cts. 34.6 32.3 29.8 21.3 18.3	20.0	Cts. 22. 3 18. 8 18. 0 14. 7 10. 6	35. 1 29. 7 25. 2	33. 7 28. 8 25. 2	31. 6 27. 3 22.
Pork chops	do	16. 3 29. 0 29. 5 19. 1 19. 4	53. 9 51. 9 39. 3	50. 7 51. 2 36. 1	50. 4 51. 0 32. 2	26. 0 16. 6	42. 5 50. 0 35. 7	39.7	38, 4 48, 6 34, 1	24. 3 32. 0	50. 3 57. 0 39. 6	46. 0 52. 9 35. 8	45. 52. 32.
Salmon (canned)	Quart 15-16-oz.can Pound do	8.0	37. 2 15. 0 15. 1 66. 4 41. 2	37. 9 14. 0 13. 8 56. 3 31. 3	37. 8 14. 0 13. 9 52. 3 29. 5	8.0	36, 1 15, 0 14, 4 71, 9 41, 3	36, 1 15, 0 14, 2 59, 3 34, 7	35. 8 14. 0 14. 0 56. 8 33. 1	8.8	15.7	15. 0	38. 14. 14. 57. 34.
Nut margarine Cheese Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh	do	25. 0 14. 7 27. 3	33. 7 44. 3 30. 1 35. 9 62. 6	40 3	27. 8 39. 7 19. 8 25. 9 45. 0	21. 6 13. 7 27. 6	35. 0 44. 9 27. 1 36. 2 59. 0	40 0	31. 4 39. 7 16. 9 24. 7 41. 8	23. 0 15. 8	35. 1 43. 6 31. 9 37. 8 71. 1	33. 1 38. 5 23. 8 28. 3 84. 4	37.
Eggs, storage. Bread. Flour Corn meal. Rolled oats.	do	22. 6 6. 1 2. 8 2. 9	53. 9 11. 6 7. 8 6. 7 9. 1	69.7 11.3 5.8 6.7 9.9	6.1	3.4	10. 1 8. 1 5. 4	10. 0 6. 6 4. 0	3.8	5.5	8.1	10. 4 6. 6 5. 4	10. 6. 5.
Corn flakes. Cream of Wheat Macaroni. Rice Beans, navy	8-0z. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pound		13. 1 27. 8	13. 5 29. 1 20. 0	28.6 19.3 9.8	8.8	29.4	29.6 19.1 11.3	29.7 19.5 10.3	8. 5	14. 2 28. 7 18. 6 19. 0 11. 4	30. 4 22. 7 12. 8	30. 7 22. 3 11.
Potatoes. Onions. Cabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned.	dodododo	1. 2	5. 8 8. 6 9. 7 16. 5 16. 9	3.8 3.4 15.9	2. 1 3. 3 3. 5 14. 8 15. 7	1.4	5. 9 8. 3 10. 5 16. 0 17. 8	4. 1 3. 6 14. 1	3.6	1.4	9.3	3.8	3. 2 3. 7 14.
Peas, canned. Tomatoes, canned. Sugar, granulated Tea Coffee	do	5. 0 53. 3 30. 0	17. 1 15. 0 19. 6 68. 3 45. 3	16. 4 12. 5 9. 2 6 66. 3 36. 1	15. 8 11. 9 8. 4 65. 0 33. 6	5. 2 60. 0 25. 6	17. 1 15. 4 17. 3 74. 9 43. 8	11. 8 9. 4 74. 0	8. 8 8. 8 72. 4	5. 5 50. 0 26. 5	15. 7 18. 4 73. 0	13. 5 10. 0 75. 2	5 13. 0 8. 2 73.
Prunes. Raisins. Bananas. Oranges.	do		20 5	25.9	23. 0 31. 6 40. 0 45. 2		29. 7 26. 7 38. 9 45. 8	32.8			50. 3	26. 1 31. 0 53. 3 51, 7	30.

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most

FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Colum	nbus,	Ohio.]	Dallas	s, Tex		I	enve	r, Col	0.	D	etroit	, Mic	h.	Fa	ll Riv	er, Ma	ass.
	Jan.		Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15-		Feb.	Feb.	. 15—	Jan.	Feb
15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15
Cts. 36, 9 34, 2 29, 2 25, 3 18, 7	32, 2 29, 2 22, 7	28. 6 23. 0	Cts. 19. 6 18. 3 17. 6 15. 4 11. 8	37. 3 32. 0 27. 8	36, 9 31, 4 26, 0	35, 2 31, 2 25, 8	Cts. 22. 5 18. 4 15. 9 14. 5 9. 1	30. 9 26. 2 21. 1	31. 8 27. 6 24. 4 18. 9	Cts. 31. 0 27. 1 23. 6 18. 3 12. 0	18. 2 18. 2 14. 5	33. 0 30, 8 24. 3	32. 7 29. 6 22. 1	30, 3	24. 0 22. 6 17. 0	47. 0 34. 6	Cts. 1 58. 5 45. 3 31. 7 23. 8 17. 6	41 27 20
33. 1 45. 6 49. 5 35. 0 41. 0	47. 0 35. 0	41. 2 47. 5 36. 2	36. 0 28. 8	53. 7 55. 0 43. 0	52, 1 52, 3 43, 3	51. 7 43. 0	27.0	52. 4 54. 2 31. 3	47. 5 50. 7 32. 5	30, 5 46, 3 52, 0 30, 3 39, 3	22. 4 24. 0 16. 7	54. 6 43. 1	42.6 52.0 35.2	43. 0 52. 8 31. 8	24, 8 28, 7 19, 0	53. 1 36. 8	35. 8 43. 0 49. 4 38. 7 49. 1	43 51 35
	60.8	14. 0 14. 9 56. 6	39.0	17.6	18.7 15.7 61.6	15. 4 57. 5	8.4	13. 0 15. 1	55. 8	12. 8 13. 4 49. 5	8.8	16. 0 16. 1	39. 0 14. 0 14. 7 60. 1 37. 2	13. 0 14. 5	9, 0	17.1	39. 0 15. 0 16. 0 59. 8 38. 3	16 16 54
35. 4 43. 0 29. 8 36. 6 34. 7	32. 1 37. 0 18. 5 26. 5 75. 1			36. 8 44. 5 35. 6 37. 7 53. 2	38. 2	34. 6 38. 5 23. 6 24. 4 35. 8	26. 1 16. 3 29. 0	36. 3 45. 2 34. 9 38. 6 57. 4	41.3 24.3 26.9	41. 1 22. 7	21. 3 15. 9	37. 1	32. 7 37. 8 21. 6 25. 7 87. 2	23. 9	23. 6 14. 8	37. 2 42. 9 30. 7 36. 4 98. 6	35. 7 40. 2 20. 3 28. 3 100. 7	18
56. 3 10. 3 7. 6 6. 2 11. 2	61. 0 10. 6 6. 7 4. 4 11. 8	10.7 6.6 4.1	5. 6 3. 3 2. 6	50. 0 12. 1 8. 2 6. 6 11. 5	70. 0 10. 2 6. 6 4. 9 12. 7	10. 2 6. 7 4. 8 12. 1	5. 3 2. 7 2. 5	50. 0 11. 7 7. 0 6. 1 9. 8	69. 1 10. 7 5. 2 4. 1 10. 2	40. 0 10. 8 5. 1 4. 0 9. 9	24. 8 5. 6 3. 2 2. 7	11. 0 8. 0 7. 3	70. 4 11. 0 6. 3 5. 7 11. 4	35. 0 11. 0 6. 1 5. 3 10. 8		66. 0 12. 0 8. 5 9. 0 10. 4	73. 4 10. 9 6. 7 8. 5 11. 5	6
4. 3 29. 0 20. 1 8. 8 1. 0	14. 1 29. 9 21. 0 12. 0 7. 4	13. 8 30. 1 21. 0 11. 2 7. 0	9. 3	13. 9 31. 8 20. 0 19. 0 13. 1	31. 1 22. 0		8. 6	14. 9 29. 7 19. 1 18. 5 13. 3	14. 7 30. 1 20. 9 11. 1 10. 3	29. 9 20. 4 9. 9	8, 4	29. 0 19. 9	14, 0 30, 1 20, 2 11, 9 7, 2	29. 8 20. 0 10. 5	10. 0	14. 4 27. 4 25. 0 18. 4 12. 0	14. 8 29. 0 25. 9 13. 4 8. 8	14 29 25 12 8
5. 9 9. 5 9. 9 6. 3 5. 4	2. 8 4. 5 3. 8 14. 8 14. 7	2. 1 4. 3 3. 8 15. 1 13. 4	2, 0	6. 9 9. 5 9. 1 19. 0 19. 7	4. 2 5. 6 5. 8 18. 5 19. 9	3. 8 5. 4 5. 1 18. 0 20. 3	1.1	5. 9 8. 3 8. 9 17. 8 18. 2	2. 4 3. 7 2. 5 17. 4 17. 7		1.3	5. 5 9. 2 10. 1 16. 2 19. 0	2. 1 3. 5 3. 5 14. 1 17. 5	1. 6 3. 0 3. 2 13. 6 17. 6		6. 1 10. 0 12. 1 16. 6 19. 7	2. 8 4. 5 3. 6 15. 1 17. 8	2 4 3 15 18
6. 2 4. 7 8. 8 4. 0 8. 9	15. 8 12. 3 9. 5 86. 6 38. 6	15. 3 11. 5 8. 8 85. 9 37. 1	5. 9 66. 7 36. 7	22. 2 15. 0 19. 2 87. 3 55. 1	21. 9 13. 1 10. 3 89. 2 43. 4		5. 4 52. 8 29. 4	19. 8 15. 3 15. 1 71. 1 49. 8	18. 3 13. 8 10. 0 73. 7 38. 3	17. 9 13. 4 9. 3 71. 6 37. 3	5, 1 43, 3	18, 4 14, 7 17, 3 65, 5 50, 1	18. 5 11. 8 9. 8 65. 0 37. 1		5, 3 44, 2 33, 0	19. 9 15. 1 19. 9 58. 1 50. 2	19. 4 12. 9 9. 8 56. 7 42. 0	19 12 8 56 41
	27. 4 32. 2 40. 9 50. 0	24. 6 32. 0 42. 7 47. 2		29. 1 24. 2 41. 7 55. 4	26. 3 32. 9 42. 1 49. 3	26. 3 33. 7 38. 6 51. 5		31. 0 25. 6 44. 5 54. 0	23. 9 33. 2 15. 3 45. 5	23. 5 32. 2 14. 8 44. 6		29. 9 25. 2 35. 7 54. 1	24. 6 30. 6 36. 6 49. 0	23. 0 28. 7 35. 8 48. 6		26. 7 25. 2 37. 5 48. 8	21. 9 30. 7 43. 3 43. 8	20. 31. 40. 44.

of the cities included in this report, but in this city it is called "rump" steak.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF

		Hous	ston,	Tex.	Ind	ianap	olis, I	nd.	Jac	ksonv	ille, 1	Fla.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.		Feb.	15—	Jan.	
		15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak	do do	31.3	35. 0 30. 2 25. 4	34. 3 29. 6 25. 4	16. 5 14. 6	34. 9 26. 9	34. 1 27. 4 23. 2	34. 9 33. 4 26. 7 22. 4	20.3 22.5 14.3	40. 2 37. 0 30. 7	35. 4 29. 3 22. 4	32. 28. 22.
Pork chopsBaconHam LambHensHam	do	63. 0 50. 0 40. 0	56. 9 54. 6	54. 4		47. 7 53. 2	45. 1 51. 1	43.6	25.6 26.3 19.5	51.5	46. 3 48. 8 36. 9	44. 48. 35.
Salmon (canned) Milk, fresh Milk, ovaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Pound	36. 0 21. 4 15. 8 69. 7 43. 4	20. 5 15. 0 59. 1	20. 0 15. 0 53. 1	8.0	16.2	14. 0 14. 9 60. 6	14. 0 14. 8 55. 5	12.5	17.0	25. 0 14. 9 63. 5	22. 14. 61.
Nut margarine Cheese. Lard Crisco Eggs, strictly fresh.	do	42.8	36. 4 24. 7 26. 0	36. 3 23. 0 25. 2	21. 0 15. 0	46.1	19.6 26.1	40.0 17.9 24.7	22. 5 15. 3	33. 5	36. 8 23. 9 28. 2	36. 22. 26.
Eggs, storage Bread Flour Corn meal Rolled oats	Pounddo	47. 5 10. 3 8. 2 6. 1 11. 3	60. 8 9. 1 7. 2 4. 4 11. 9	9.1 7.1 4.4	3.2	10.7	10. 1 6. 7 3. 8	3.5	3.7	8.6 5.4	7.2	11 7 3
Corn flakes Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice. Beans, navy.	do	1 15. 8	22. 1	29. 9 21. 6 8. 2	9. 2	28. 7 20. 7 19. 7	32. 2 21. 4 12. 9	20.9	6.6	29. 3 21. 5 17. 1	30. 3 23. 0 9. 6	30 0 22 3 8
Potatoes. Onions Cabbage. Beans, baked Corn, canned.	do No. 2 can do	9. 5 9. 5 17. 4 17. 3	5. 0 4. 7 16. 1	4.6 4.3 15.4	1.3	9. 8 8. 9 17. 4	4.0	3. 5 3. 6 15. 0		10. 0 6. 9 17. 7	5. 3	5 1 4 9 13
Peas, canned Fomatoes Sugar, granulated Fea Coffee	do Pound	18.7 14.6 19.4	9. 2	11. 5 8. 3 70. 1	5. 9 60. 0 31. 3	15. 6 20. 2 88. 3	12. 7 9. 6 82. 9	9.2		15. 0 19. 6 89. 1	10. 8 10. 6 89.	5 10 9 9 5 89
Prunes Raisins. Bananas. Oranges.	do do Dozendo	26. 6 23. 8 37. 7 51. 2	33.5	33.7		29.8	35.0	34.8	3	37.8	33.	8 33

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included

FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES-Continued.

Ka	nsas	City,	Mo.	Lit	tle I	Rock,	Ark.	Los	Ang	eles, C	Calif.	L	ouisv.	ille, F	Cy.	Mai	nches	ter, N	т. н.
Feb.	.15—	Jan. 15,	Feb. 15,	10000	.15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	. 15—		Feb.	Feb.	. 15—		Feb.	Feb.	. 15—		Feb.
1913	1920		1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921
21. 9 20. 0 16. 7 13. 8	Cts. 35. 7 31. 7 26. 3 20. 1 15. 8	19.6	35, 3 28, 7 25, 8	23. 8 19. 4 18. 4 15. 0	Cts. 37. 4 34. 9 31. 5 24. 6 20. 1	36, 3 34, 4 30, 1 23, 3	33, 4 28, 5 22, 4	20. 4 18. 6 16. 0	35. 1 31. 3 29. 8 23. 5	36. 3 32. 0 31. 6	31. 8 30. 8 22. 3	20. 1 18. 0 17. 1 13. 3	34. 3 32. 8 27. 6 24. 1	30, 1 26, 0 21, 7	31. 4 29. 9 24. 9	134. 0 27. 6 18. 4	48. 5	154. 8 47. 2 30. 4	151. 44. 26. 22.
28. 4 27. 5 16. 3	33. 3 50. 4 51. 9 29. 7 39. 0	48. 8 49. 2 31. 8	31.3	34. 0 28. 8 18. 8	55. 6 51. 3 43. 1	52. 8 52. 0 40. 6	51.3	35. 0 19. 2	60, 2	48. 3 57. 5 63. 8 36. 3 50. 0	61.6	26. 1 17. 6	34. 3 47. 7 48. 9 37. 7 42. 2	40. 3 46. 2 36. 7	37. 6 46. 2 35. 0	18. 2 22. 2 27. 2 17. 8 23. 0	48. 3	44.2 36.6	
8.7	16. 5 69. 3	35. 3 15. 3 15. 0 59. 6 34. 0	14.9	10.0	36. 7 20. 0 17. 3 72. 0 44. 3	15. 9	16. 0 16. 0 59. 9	10.0	13.6	17. 3 12. 6 56. 0	16. 0 12. 6	43. 2	31. 6 16. 0 16. 8 71. 2 44. 4	15. 0 15. 0 60. 7	11. 0 14. 7 55. 3	8.0	18.2	15. 0 16. 6 64. 8	15. 16. 62.
6. 1		32. 1 38. 6 22. 5 30. 0 73. 0	20.8	15. 0	35. 2 40. 1	35. 0 37. 9 24. 5 27. 4 71. 2	22. 6 25. 7	19. 5 17. 9 26. 0	34. 9 37. 7	42. 3 25. 8 23. 5	24. 7	15. 2	35. 6 42. 4 29. 3 34. 5 60. 5	36. 3 18. 3	36. 2 16. 8 27. 1	21. 3 16. 0			32. 37. 20. 26. 63.
5. 9 1 3. 0 2. 6	12. 2 7. 7 7. 1	64. 4 11. 9 6. 2 5. 9 12. 3	30. 0 11. 5 6. 2 5. 5 11. 2	6. 0 3. 6 2. 4	8. 0 5. 8	68. 3 10. 7 7. 4 3. 6 12. 4		6. 2 3. 6 3. 4	45. 0 9. 6 7. 9 7. 2 9. 6	62. 5 9. 7 6. 7 6. 2 10. 7	9. 7 6. 7 5. 9 10. 6	20. 1 5. 7 3. 6 2. 2	52. 5 10. 1 7. 9 5. 1 10. 6	57. 0 10. 1 6. 8 3. 1 11. 2	10. 1 6. 8 2. 9	5. 9 3. 4 3. 6	64. 4 10. 5 8. 6 7. 6 10. 6	74. 1 9. 9 6. 9 6. 7 10. 3	9. 6. 6. 10.
2	29. 5 19. 5 19. 1	14. 8 30. 9 24. 2 11. 5 9. 1	14. 7 30. 2 23. 5 10. 0 8. 7		28. 2 18. 6 17. 5	14. 8 31. 0 23. 1 10. 1 9. 7	30, 9	7. 7	29. 4	13. 5 29. 1 18. 4 12. 0 8. 0	13. 5 29. 1 18. 4 11. 1 8. 2		13. 7 27. 6 20. 0 19. 2 11. 5	14. 2 30. 5 20. 3 11. 5 7. 0	20.4	8.5	14. 9 29. 2 25. 1 18. 4 12. 1	14. 9 30. 0 26. 5 11. 8 8. 6	14. 30. 26. 10. 8.
1	9. 9 0. 2 7. 3	3. 1 5. 2 4. 0 16. 0 14. 4	4.8	1.7	10. 1 9. 5 16. 3	3, 4 5, 2 4, 6 15, 5 15, 8	2. 9 5. 1 5. 0 15. 5 16. 2	1.0	6. 1 8. 4 5. 6 18. 5 18. 1	3. 0 3. 6 2. 9 17. 5 18. 9	2.6	1, 5	5. 3 9. 5 9. 5 16. 2 17. 4	2. 1 3. 3 3. 5 14. 7 16. 5		1. 4	5. 4 9. 8 8. 2 17. 4 21. 4	2. 5 3. 9 2. 9 17. 5 20. 1	2. 3. 2. 17. 19.
5.61 4.08	5. 3 9. 8 80. 7	11. 9 9. 7 83. 4	11. 6 9. 1 83. 2	5. 5	14. 9 20. 3 89. 8	10.6	18.6 12.2 9.9 93.0 38.7	5. 4	15. 1 17. 0 71. 0	72.6	8. 6 71. 7	5, 2	17. 5 14. 3 19. 2 84. 5 49. 4	12.6 9.8 84.5	17. 6 11. 4 8. 6 83. 4 37. 0	5. 4 45. 0 32. 0	19. 9 63. 6	9.6 59.9	21. 20. 8. 69. 39.
2	9. 0	33. 8 49. 6			24. 9	33. 4 41. 4	27. 1 . 33. 2 . 43. 3 . 50. 7 .	4	12.3	30. 9	30.8		28. 5 25. 5 38. 8 41. 9	31. 4 38. 0	36.0		27. 4	11.9	32,

in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak. 2 No. 2 can. 3 No. 3 can. 4 Per pound.

TABLE 5.-AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES OF

		Me	mphi	is, Te	nn.	Mil	wauk	cee, W	is.	Min	neapo	olis, M	linn.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	15—	Jan.		Feb.	15—	Jan.		Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak Round steak Rib roast Chuek roast Plate beef.	do	16.8	37.8 34.4 31.6	33.7 30.9 27.2	31.5 28.9 25.5	20.5 18.5 17.3	36.5 33.6 29.9	38.0 34.3 29.6	36. 4 32. 9 28. 4	Cts. 20.0 18.0 17.7 14.5 8.7	29.7	32.1	26. 23. 19.
Pork chopsBaconHam,Lamb.	do	29.1	54.8	44.9	44.6 45.3 35.0	26.3 26.8 19.5	51.8 50.6 39.8	47.6 48.3 37.9	46.6 47.1 35.8	16.8 25.0 27.5 15.0 19.0	54.2 52.5 34.3	31. 2 46. 8 46. 9 33. 2 36. 0	46. 47. 28.
Salmon (canned) Milk; fresh Milk; evaporated Butter Oleomargarine.	Quart 15-16 oz. can Pounddo	10.0	35.6 19.0 16.4 73.4 40.6	39.5 18.0 15.9 58.5 37.5	38.5 17.5 15.9 54.4 34.6	7.0	38, 4 13, 0 16, 6 67, 5 42, 4	41.5 10.0 14.9 56.6 33.5	40.7 10.0 15.0 51.9 31.2	7.0	44.2 13.0 17.7 65.6 41.7	45.9 13.0 15.4 56.3 39.2	44. 12. 15. 49. 35.
Nut margarineCheese. Lard. Crisco. Eggs, strictly fresh	do .	20. 0 15. 2 29. 3	39.7 43.4 30.9 38.2 60.6	34.3 35.6 19.8 26.8 75.2	32.2 36.6 18.8 24.7 38.1	22.7 15.1 29.0	34.1 40.6 31.0 37.5	31.0 34.1 23.0 27.5	29.5 34.7 21.3 26.3	20, 8 15, 2	33.5 41.1 30.9 37.5	31.1 36.1 20.5 28.1	28. 36. 19. 27.
Eggs, storageBread. Flour Corn mealRolled oats.	Pound do do do do	20. 0 6. 0 3. 6 2. 1	50.0 11.3 8.2 5.2 11.3	65.0 12.1 7.4 3.3 11.9	35.0 11.3 7.3 3.0 11.5	22.0 5.6 3.1 3.3	8.1	6.2	6.1	21.7 5.7 2.9 2.4	10.5	4.9	10. 5. 4.
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pounddodo	7.5	14. 2 28. 8 19. 5 17. 4 12. 6	14. 2 -29. 6 19. 8 9. 0 8. 6	14.1 29.3 18.8 8.1 8.0		14. 2 29. 5 18. 8 18. 7 11. 0	13.8 29.7 20.5 12.6 8.2	13.7 29.8 20.4 11.1 7.8	8.6	30.8	14.5 31.1 18.1 2.6 11.7	30. 17. 1.
Potatoes. Onions. Cabbage. Beans, baked. Corn, canned.	No. 2 can		9. 1 17. 4 18. 4	3. 5 16. 5 16. 8	3.5 3.5 16.5 16.5	1.2	8.7 10.3 15.7 17.1	3.7 2.9 14.2 16.7	3.6 2.7 13.9 15.6	1.0	9.5 8.2 18.5	4.8	4. 4. 16.
Peas, canned	dodoPounddododododododo.	5. 5 63. 8 27. 5	19.6 14.9 19.7 92.9 51.6	17. 8 11. 4 9. 7 92. 0 37. 8	18.1 11.3 9.1 92.0 36.5	5. 4 50. 0 27. 5	17. 0 15. 0 19. 9 70. 9 47. 4	16.2 13.9 9.4 71.7 36.0	15. 4 13. 8 8. 4 71. 7 34. 1	5. 6 45. 0 30. 8	16.5 21.2 65.0	67.8	14. 9. 66.
Prunes	do		29 6	26:0	22 0		200 7	96 9	99 9		31.6 25.3 3 13.0 62.3	23. 8 31. 2 3 15.1 50. 7	22. 31.; 3 14. 52.

¹ Whole.

FOOD FOR 51 CITIES ON CERTAIN SPECIFIED DATES—Continued.

Mo	bile, 1	Ala.	N	lewar	k, N.	J.	New	v Hav	en, C	onn.	Ne	w Orl	eans,	La.	Ne	w Yor	k, N.	Y.
Feb.		Feb.	Feb.	. 15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	. 15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	. 15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb
15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15,	15, 1921
Cts. 34. 7 34. 4 30. 1 24. 9 19. 7	33.6 29.7 25.0	Cts. 33. 6 33. 3 28. 6 23. 6 18. 0	24.8 19.6 16.8	45. 5 35. 9 27. 9	44. 2 44. 1 36. 5 25. 6	40. 9 40. 5 32. 4 22. 8	30. 0 26. 2 23. 0 17. 6	Cts. 51.6 45.9 38.0 31.2	52. 3 45. 7	34 2	19.5	31. 0 29. 6	34.3 31.4 30.1	30.1	24. 7 23. 1 21. 1	38. 4	Cts. 43. 9 43. 6 38. 3 26. 2 21. 9	39. 35.
42. 8 53. 3 53. 4 36. 4 45. 3	48. 1 49. 1 38. 0	36. 6 48. 6 48. 8 36. 5 43. 1	1 18.6	1 36.5	36. 9 41. 6 1 31.4 38. 2 43. 6	38.4	26. 2 30. 0	52. 7 55. 2	36. 1 48. 5 53. 8	29. 0 47. 3 53. 2	20.1	52. 1 50. 6	49.5	48. 0 48. 8 38. 8	19. 8 23. 1 27. 8 16. 5 20. 4	47.3 56.5	39. 4 44. 2 53. 1 33. 9 43. 1	42. 52. 30.
40. 4 23. 5 17. 5 75. 8 44. 0	21. 0 15. 7 62. 9	21. 0 15. 4 61. 6	9.0	17.3	38.8 18.0 13.9 64.1 36.3	17. 0 14. 0 56. 1	38.7	16. 0	14. 4 58. 8	16. 0	10.0	18.5	42. 3 17. 5 14. 9 63. 4 36. 6	17. 5 14. 8 59. 0	9.0	41. 2 16. 7 15. 2 75. 6 44. 3	40. 3 17. 0 14. 1 63. 4 37. 8	16. 14. 54.
41. 4 44. 0 33. 9 38. 4 62. 8	21. 5 26. 8		15.7	32. 7 36. 0	22.3	20. 2 24. 3	22. 0 14. 7 38. 0	31. 8	21. 0 26. 5	37. 5 19. 4 25. 4	22. 0 14. 7	36. 1 43. 0 31. 2 38. 8 56. 8	37. 9 21. 1 28. 6	19.6	20. 0 15. 7 38. 0	35. 2 43. 4 32. 9 36. 9 77. 8	32. 2 39. 0 22. 7 25. 8 89. 7	20.
57. 7 10. 2 8. 4 6. 1 11. 6	6.9	10. 1 7. 0 3. 6 11. 5	25. 3 5. 6 3. 5 3. 6	64. 0 10. 7 8. 0 7. 9 9. 1	10.4		6.0	63. 8 12. 0 8. 3 7. 8 10. 1	6.4	5.6 11.1 6.3 6.7 10.4	23. 0 3. 8 2. 6	51. 5 10. 0 8. 4 5. 3 9. 9	9.7 7.7 3.8	30. 0 9. 7 7. 6 3. 6 10. 7	6. 0 3. 2 3. 4	62.5 11.1 8.8 7.9 8.7	69. 5 11. 0 6. 7 7. 2 9. 2	48. 10. 6. 7. 8.
14. 6 29. 4 21. 1 17. 6 14. 4	14. 4 29. 9 20. 8 9. 4 9. 8	21.0	9.0	23. 6	12. 9 28. 0 24. 5 11. 6 9. 1	12.7 27.7 22.5 9.9 8.5	9.3	14. 2 28. 2 23. 0 18. 1 12. 0	28. 4	28. 9	7.4	14.0 29.4 11.9 16.1 11.2	29. 9	10.2	8. 0	12.3 28.4 22.4 17.7 12.5	12.6 28.7 23.1 11.4 9.9	12. 8 28. 6 22. 4 10. 3 9. 4
6. 6 9. 3 6. 9 16. 8 19. 9	3.6 4.1 4.1 14.9 16.5	3.5	2.5	6.3 9.6 8.5 14.4 19.6	3. 5 5. 2 3. 6 12. 3 17. 4	3. 1 4. 7	1.7	5.7 9.7 10.2 16.8	3.0 4.3 3.8 16.5 21.1	4.0	1.9	7. 0 9. 4 5. 8 16. 9 17. 0	4. 0 4. 0 5. 0 15. 7 15. 8	3.9	2.5	7. 0 9. 6 10. 1 15. 5 18. 1	3.8 4.2 3.3 13.8 16.9	3. 4 4. 1 3. 3 13. 5 16. 6
15. 0 19. 5 80. 0	18. 4 11. 3 9. 9 78. 5 35. 6	9.4	5. 3 53. 8 29. 3	14. 2 17. 9 55. 3	9.3 49.0	10.6 8.4 49.1	5. 2 55. 0 33. 8	18. 5 62. 5	22.9 22.2 9.5 59.0 41.3	8.6	5. 3 62. 1 26. 4	18. 5 14. 9 17. 5 70. 3 42. 2	17. 7 13. 1 9. 5 72. 8 32. 2	17. 4 12. 8 8. 6 72. 0 31. 0	4. 9 43. 3 27. 5	18.5 14.9 17.9 57.7 47.3	17. 3 10. 8 9. 0 52. 4 32. 7	17. 0 10. 5 8. 2 54. 0 32. 6
		24. 1 32. 7 29. 1 42. 7		26, 8 24, 4 42, 9 59, 2	30. 9	30. 5		29. 2 26. 7 37. 8 54. 7	21. 0 31. 6 39. 8 51. 8	18. 6 31. 3 38. 8 44. 6		29. 8 25. 1 21. 7 58. 2	24. 4 32. 9 25. 8 43. 0	22. 7 32. 7 23. 3 46. 5		28. 9 26. 2 42. 9 66. 0	22. 0 31. 1 44. 1 53. 4	21. 0 31. 0 44. 3 55. 1

² No. 3 can.

³ Per pound.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

1.		No	folk, V	Va.	0	maha,	Nebr.		Pe	oria, I	11.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.	Feb.	Jan.	Feb.
		15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak	do do	Cts. 45. 0 39. 2 35. 3 27. 7 20. 0	Cts. 45. 2 38. 8 36. 3 26. 1 18. 2	35. 4 26. 5		Cts. 36. 4 32. 5 26. 6 21. 4 15. 2	Cts. 36. 6 31. 6 26. 6 20. 0 13. 6	Cts. 35.0 29.8 24.8 18.4 11.9	Cts. 33.8 32.4 25.4 22.6 16.5	Cts. 33. 4 31. 8 25. 6 21. 7 14. 6	Cts. 32, 4 31, 1 25, 2 21, 3 14, 8
Pork chopsBaconHam.Lamb.Hens.	do	37. 1 50. 3 48. 0 40. 7 49. 2	42.1	44. 5 43. 3 37. 1	25. 5 27. 0 16. 5	34.9	31. 3 49. 4 51. 5 32. 8 35. 0	26. 9 47. 9 50. 6 31. 2 36. 9	33.4	46. 3 48. 0 33. 8	29. 5 46. 7 49. 0 33. 8 37. 6
Salmon (canned) Milk, fresh Milk, evaporated Butter Oleomargarine	Quart15-16-oz. can. Pounddo	34. 5 21. 3 15. 5 75. 6 48. 9	15. 0 68. 7	19.3 14.8 61.9	8. 2	16.6	15. 1 15. 4 57. 7	52.1	67.8	14.6	14. 6 50. 8
Nut margarine	do	34. 9	37. 6 22. 5 25. 9	37. 8 21. 3 24. 9	22. 9 16. 4	33. 0 38. 0	25. 6 28. 9	37. 7 22. 6 27. 2	44. 2 32. 6 39. 1	38. 2 22. 2 28. 9	20.
Eggs, storage. Bread. Flour Corn meal. Rolled oats	do	5. 9	10. 4 6. 9 4. 6	9.8 6.7 4.5	2.9 2.4	7.6	11. 5 5. 7 5. 0	11. 5 5. 7 5. 0	8.7 6.4	11.0 6.3 4.7	10.
Corn flakes Cream of Wheat Macaroni Rice Beans, navy	do	19.9	28. 3 20. 5 14. 5	28. 4 20. 2 13. 1	8. 5	15. 0 30. 3 20. 0 18. 7 12. 3	31.6 21.5 12.5	31.6 21.1 11.4	30.6 18.9 18.9	31.1 19.5 12.5	31. 19. 10.
Potatoes. Onions. Cabbage. Beans, baked. Corn, canned.	do No. 2 can	9. 6 9. 9 14. 2	4.7 4.4 12.4	5. 2 4. 3 11. 8			3.8 3.6 17.6	3. 7 3. 7 17. 9	9.9 10.3 18.0	4.3 4.0 16.2	4. 3. 15.
Peas, canned. Tomatoes, canned. Sugar, granulated Tea. Coffee.	Pound	14. 9	9. 5 9. 8 9. 8	12. 1 8. 6 85. 8	5.7	16. 4 18. 9 77. 2	12.8 9.7 77.7	13. 2 9. 0 76. 4	15.3 18.4 73.4	13.5 9.9 70.7	12. 9. 68.
Prunes. Raisins Bananas Oranges.	Dozen	23. 2	32.0	32.4	9	25. 3 3 12.	33.4	34.3	25. 5 3 10. 7	33.4	32.

¹ The steak for which prices are here quoted is known as "porterhouse" in most of the cities included

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

Ph	iladel	phia,	Pa.	P	ittsbu	irgh, l	Pa.	Por	tland	, Me.	P	ortlar	nd, Or	eg.	Pr	ovide	nce, R	. I.
Feb.	15—	Jan. 15,	Feb. 15,	Feb.	. 15—	Jan.	Feb.			Feb.	Feb	. 15—		Feb.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Fel
1913	1920	1921.		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15,
Cts. 28, 3 23, 4 21, 4 16, 5 11, 3	43. 8 38. 3 27. 3	44. 0 37. 4 26. 1	145. 8 38. 9 34. 1 22. 0	21. 4 20. 6 15. 6	39. 1 33. 0 26. 3	39. 1 35. 3 26. 6	36. 3 33. 1 24. 1	31. 6 24. 8	45. 4	29. 4 19. 8	18. 7 15. 8	33. 0 31. 6 29. 4 23. 2	29. 3 27. 7 20. 2	28. 9 27. 1 19. 9	28. 2	42.1	Cts. 1 67. 7 52. 8 39. 7 30. 4 21. 2	49. 35. 28.
19. 1 23. 4 29. 0 18. 6 21. 3	56. 2 43. 9	42. 1 52. 8 40. 7	41. 3 53. 4 37. 0	27. 2 29. 0 21. 5	53. 3 57. 0	49. 8 54. 0 40. 6	47. 6 55. 2 37. 1	48. 9 52. 3 40. 8	43.9	42. 1 47. 7 31. 2	19. 2 27. 5 28. 8 17. 0 22. 0	53. 4 52. 9 38. 2	48. 8 47. 9 33. 9	49. 0 49. 2	18, 4 21, 8 28, 5 20, 0 22, 8	50. 0 58. 3 46. 9	39. 5 42. 1 54. 0 40. 9 50. 4	34. 41. 55. 36.
8. 0 47. 1	34. 9 14. 0 15. 8 81. 2 45. 8	13. 0	13. 0 14. 8 61. 7		39. 5 16. 0 16. 1 73. 9 41. 8	15. 0 14. 7 62. 7	15. 0 14. 7 56. 0	15. 0 17. 5 75. 3	16. 5 14. 8	14.9	9. 7	15.3	15. 0 14. 1 54. 7	14.0	41.0	17.1	42. 1 17. 1 15. 9 61. 8 38. 7	16. 15. 55.
25. 0 14. 4 30. 1		37. 3 40. 6 20. 9 26. 0 84. 4	41. 0 19. 2 23. 8	24. 5 15. 1 29. 2	35. 3 44. 0 31. 4 36. 4 71. 1	40. 3 22. 2	39. 0 18. 8	44. 6 31. 7 36. 5	39. 9 20. 7 28. 6	33. 4 39. 1 19. 5 26. 2 63. 1	21. 3 17. 9		40. 6 28. 0 28. 6	34. 5 41. 4 26. 6 27. 3 37. 4	22. 7 15. 0	37. 2	32. 7 39. 5 20. 9 28. 1 99. 0	39. 19. 26.
24. 0 4. 8 3. 2 2. 8	61. 9 9. 8 8. 0 6. 2 8. 8	73. 0 9. 6 6. 5 4. 9 9. 8	9. 6 6. 3 4. 7 9. 4	25. 0 5. 4 3. 1 2. 7	60. 8 11. 1 8. 0 7. 3 10. 3	69. 6 10. 4 6. 5 6. 2 11. 2	49. 0 10. 4 6. 4 5. 7 11. 2	65. 9 12. 0 8. 3 6. 9 8. 4	73. 5 11. 0 6. 6 5. 4 7. 8	55. 0 11. 0 6. 5 5. 1 8. 2	25. 0 5. 6 2. 9 3. 5	10. 5 7. 0 7. 4 10. 2	50. 0 10. 3 6. 0 5. 9 11. 1	25. 0 9. 7 5. 9 5. 4 10. 3	25. 4 6. 0 3. 4 2. 9	64. 7 11. 8 8. 8 6. 3 10. 4	73. 8 11. 5 6. 8 5. 3 11. 3	11. 6. 5.
9.8	12. 5 28. 4 20. 9 18. 9 11. 6	12. 7 28. 6 22. 2 14. 0 9. 2	22, 1	9. 2	13. 9 29. 4 19. 1 19. 1 11. 7	13. 7 30. 2 23. 6 13. 7 8. 2	12. 2	14. 3 29. 6 23. 3 17. 6 11. 7	14. 3 29. 4 24. 1 13. 7 8. 6	14. 4 29. 3 23. 9 12. 0 8. 4	8, 6	15. 0 33. 2 17. 8 19. 7 11. 0	14. 2 32. 4 17. 6 13. 0 7. 6	14. 2 32. 1 17. 2 11. 8 7. 6	9.3	14. 1 28. 9 22. 5 18. 5 11. 5	14. 2 29. 9 24. 2 12. 8 8. 9	14. 30. 23. 11. 8.
2. 1	6. 3 9. 4 9. 8 14. 9 17. 5	3. 1 3. 4 3. 1 14. 3 16. 3	3.0	1. 6	5. 7 9. 2 9. 0 16. 1 17. 8	2. 9 4. 4 3. 8 15. 7 16. 9	2. 3 3. 7 3. 7 14. 8 16. 0	5. 3 9. 7 7. 1 19. 3 19. 4	2. 5 3. 6 2. 1 18. 5 18. 7	2. 0 3. 3 2. 1 18. 5 17. 7	7	5. 2 7. 4 7. 5 21. 4 22. 1	2. 4 3. 3 2. 7 20. 2 20. 3	1. 9 2. 9 2. 9 19. 8 19. 9	1.7	5. 7 9. 9 10. 3 16. 6 19. 9	2. 7 4. 1 3. 9 15. 5 19. 6	2. 3. 3. 15. 19.
4. 0	18. 5 15. 2 18. 2 62. 6 44. 4	17. 1 11. 4 9.0 62. 9 31. 4	11. 0 8. 1 62. 0	58. 0	79.3	12. 2 10. 4 78. 1	9.2	20. 2 17. 0 19. 2 63. 2 50. 2	20. 3 13. 0 9. 8 58. 4 41. 4	19. 7 13. 0 8. 6 57. 1 40. 1	6.2 55.0	214. 4	19. 8 214. 4 10. 1 66. 7 39. 7	214.7	5. 1 48. 3 30. 0	20. 9 17. 0 20. 6 60. 8 53. 2	20. 8 14. 1 10. 0 61. 2 40. 8	20. 13. 9. 59. 39.
	28. 1 23. 9 40. 8 52. 7	21. 1 29. 3 39. 0 46. 5	20. 9 29. 2 38. 8 44. 2		48. 8	33. 6 46. 7	32. 3 46. 0	26. 0 310. 9	31. 5	18. 8 . 30. 8 . 314. 0 . 45. 1 .		26. 9 814. 8	317.6	12. 0 31. 1 316. 9 45. 6		28. 3 26. 7 40. 0 59. 4	23. 6 30. 7 45. 0 49. 3	23. 30. 43. 52.

in this report, but in this city it is called "sirloin" steak. 2 No. 2 can. 3 Per pound.

MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

TABLE 5.—AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF SPECIFIED ARTICLES

	90	Ri	chmo	nd, V	a.		N.Y.		St	. Lou	is, M	0.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.		Jan.	Feb. 15,	Feb.	15—	Jan. 15,	Feb.
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.		1913	1920	1921.	15, 1921.
Sirloin steak	do	19.6 18.9 14.3	39. 4 33. 4 28. 6	41. 5 37. 4 32. 7 26. 3	36. 3 31. 3 25. 2	39. 4	40. 2 35. 8 30. 9	37. 2 33. 3 28. 0 23. 5	·22. 8 20. 4 17. 6 14. 2	30. 2 23. 3	30. 1	32. 9 29. 7 20. 0
Pork chopsBacon Ham. Lamb. Hens.	do	23. 3 18. 7	45. 5	41. 4 44. 8 43. 3	39. 8 44. 3 40. 5		38. 8 48. 9 38. 7	36. 2 46. 7 32. 8	23. 0 26. 7	46. 1 51. 6 37. 7	38. 1 47. 4 32. 0	38. 3 47. 0 32. 4
Salmon (canned)	Quart	10.0	27. 8 16. 5 17. 5 80. 0 44. 5	16.0	16.0	15.0	14. 5 15. 1 61. 5	13. 5 15. 1 5 55. 5	8.0	15. 2 73. 4	16. 6 13. 8 62. 3	15.0 13.9 2 55.9
Nut margarine	do	22. 3	38. 0 44. 7	36.6 38.8 22.8 7 25.6	34.5 38.5 21.	35.3 9 41.7 1 32.6 5 36.1	37. 8 21. 9 1 25. 6	19.9		25. 6 35. 9	34.6 15.7 25.8	35.7 7 14.8 8 25.
Eggs, storage	do Pounddodododo.	20. 0 5. 4 3. 3 2, 0	62.0 12.3 8.6 6.1	69.0 3 11.1 6 6.1 1 4.0 1 11.1	1 11. 7 6. 3 4.	7 8. 4	1 11, 0 5 6. 4 1 5. 9	5.7	5. 5	11. 7 7. 4 5. 4	11.	11. 1 0 5. 1 7 3.
Corn flakes	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg		14.6	30. 91	31. 31. 32. 12. 5 9.	2 14. (2 29. (0 20. (3 18. (2 12. (4). (4 12. (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4 12. (4). (4). (4 12. (4). (4). (4 12. (4). (4). (4). (4). (4). (4). (4). (4)	90 '		8.6			3 30. 8 21. 3 9.
Potatoes. Onions Cabbage Beans, baked. Corn, canned	No. 2 cando		10.	5 3. 8 4. 3 4. 5 12. 4 16.	7 4. 1 4. 4 12.	7 9.1 1 8.1 2 14.	2 3.	2 1.6 1 2.6 4 2.1 9 13.6	1. 8	9. 1 9. 1 16. (3. 3. 2. 13.	8 3. 9 3. 4 12.
Peas, canned	dodo Pounddo	5. 56.	21. 15. 19. 0 84.	6 20. 3 12. 2 9. 5 87.	0 11. 8 8. 4 88.	9 15. 9 19. 8 65	5 64.	6 12. 2 8. 0 62.	7 1 5 5 5 5 5 9 24	14. 7 20. 3 74.	7 11. 5 9. 7 72.	2 8. 3 70.
Prumes Raisins Bananas Oranges	do do Dozendo		29. 24. 45. 46.	1 25. 5 32. 0 46. 4 41.	5 32. 7 46.	5 26.	8 30. 4 46.	9 30. 1 1 46.	4 5 5	26.3	31. 34. 46.	5 32. 7 37.

¹ No. 21 can.

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

St. I	Paul, M	finn.	Salt	Lake	City, T	Jtah.	San	Franc	eisco,	Calif.	Sava	annah	, Ga.	S	crant	on, P	a.
Feb. 15.	Jan.	Feb. 15,	Feb	. 15—	Jan. 15,	Feb.	Fab	. 15—	Jan. 15,	Feb.			Feb. 15,	Feb.	15—	Jan.	Feb.
1920.	1921.	1921.	1913	1920	1921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	1920.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 1921.	1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.
Cts. 37. 4 32. 4 31. 8 25. 0 16. 7	Cts. 36. 1 30. 5 30. 1 23. 2 13. 7	28. 9	19.5 19.2 15.0	31. 0 26. 9 22. 4	28. 4 25. 3	28. 3 25. 2 20. 6	20.3 19.0 20.7 14.6	31. 4 31. 3 22. 7	31.6	30. 7 30. 5 21. 0	33. 8 30. 8 22. 5	33. 1 28. 6 22. 2	29.5	Cts. 21.8 18.0 18.8 14.6 10.0	30 1	40. 2 35. 4 27. 6	35. 7 33. 9 24. 9
34. 1 48. 1 50. 9 35. 3 38. 7	30. 6 44. 3 48. 0 31. 2 35. 7	27. 1 44. 4 48. 0 29. 3 36. 2	29.0 17.9	51. 8 52. 3 32. 1	36. 5 46. 5 46. 9 32. 7 39. 4	35. 2 46. 2 45. 4 31. 7 40. 0	32.8 30.0 17.2	60.0 56.3 34.3	58.3 57.0	58.7 56.8 35.9	49.1 47.3	45. 1 44. 5 43. 8	32. 5 40. 2 43. 0 41. 3	18.5 24.6 25.8 20.0	39. 0 53. 2 53. 1 44. 3 48. 4	48.6 51.3	45.1 54.1 41.6
39.1 13.0 17.2 66.1 41.8	40. 8 13. 0 14. 8 55. 4 38. 0	40. 8 12. 0 14. 5 47. 4 35. 2	8. 9 38. 6	37. 5 12. 5 15. 1 66. 0 41. 9	12. 5 14. 5	14.5	10.0	34. 3 15. 8 13. 8 71. 9 40. 2	15.8 12.9 54.9	57.0	24. 3 15. 5	14. 5 65, 0	22. 0 14. 5 60. 7	8.8	40. 1 15. 0 15. 8 72. 3 44. 5	14.5 60.2	
34. 9 42. 3 32. 3 40. 2 63. 4	32. 3 36. 3 21. 4 32. 4 71. 3	30. 0 35. 7 20. 1 29. 5 40. 1	24. 2 18. 1 31. 4	38. 5 40. 7 36. 8 44. 5 56. 8	36. 3 35. 4 25. 9 33. 7 66. 8	24.3	20. 0 17. 6	35. 0 42. 1 36. 0 38. 5 53. 1	33. 8 39. 7 27. 0 26. 7 70. 5	32. 8 39. 2 25. 5 25. 7 41. 4	40. 8 44. 6 35. 5 39. 5 76. 7	35. 6 36. 9 26. 8 26. 5 75. 7	37. 5 21. 5 25. 7	18. 8 15. 8	36. 3 42. 0 33. 0 38. 4 80. 3	35. 4 37. 6 22. 9 28. 1 90. 8	34. 0 36. 5 20. 9 26. 6 57. 0
49. 6 10. 4 8. 4 6. 6 9. 3	60. 2 10. 4 6. 0 5. 4 9. 3	10. 4 5. 8 4. 9 9. 8	23. 3 5. 9 2. 5 3. 4	43.0 12.1 6.9 7.5 9.9	58. 0 -11. 8 -4. 9 -6. 0 -9. 7	25. 0 11. 8 4. 6 5. 0 9. 7	5.7 3.3 3.4	35. 0 10. 9 7. 8 6. 6 10. 5	60. 0 9. 6 7. 0 6. 1 10. 6	9. 6 6. 8 5. 9 10. 6	58.6 10.7 8.4 5.2 11.6	66. 0 11. 2 7. 4 3. 8 12. 6	11. 2 7. 1 3. 3 11. 9	23. 5 5. 5 3. 5	62.4 12.7 8.8 8.8 10.9	71.3 12.3 7.3 7.9 11.7	40. 0 12. 3 7. 2 7. 8 11. 5
14. 5 30. 6 19. 5 19. 2 11. 9	14.8 30.4 20.2 12.0 9.9	14. 8 30. 0 20. 0 10. 2 9. 2	8. 2	14.6 33.8 19.9 17.7 12.9	15. 0 33. 8 22. 8 10. 7 10. 0	15. 2 33. 4 23. 1 9. 8 9. 8	8.5	13.7 28.0 14.8 17.9 9.7	14. 4 28. 8 14. 0 10. 9 7. 6	14. 4 29. 1 13. 3 10. 5 7. 4	14.3 30.5 22.2 17.3 15.2	14.3 30.5 23.7 10.3 11.8	00 0	8, 5	14.3 28.5 23.9 19.5 14.4	14. 1 29. 3 25. 3 13. 3 11. 1	13. 9 29. 1 24. 9 11. 0 10. 8
5.3 8.7 8.8 19.1 18.7	2.6 3.5 3.6 48.4 17.2	2. 0 3. 4 3. 8 18. 2 17. 6	1.0	5. 1 8. 0 9. 7 20. 0 18. 3	2. 1 3. 5 3. 3 18. 9 18. 7	1. 9 3. 1 3. 2 18. 5 18. 5	1.5	6. 0 7. 1 18. 2 18. 7	2. 9 2. 4 18. 0 19. 1	3. 0 2. 5 17. 8 18. 7	6. 4 11. 1 10. 5 18. 9 19. 7	3.7 5.0 5.1 16.3 17.7	3. 2 4. 7 4. 9 15. 4 16. 7	1. 7	5. 4 9. 9 8. 9 15. 5 19. 0	2.9 4.7 2.9 14.8 17.4	2.5 4.4 2.7 14.4 16.9
17. 4 15. 0 20. 7 67. 3 51. 0	17. 0 13. 8 9. 7 72. 3 43. 2	16. 5 13. 5 9. 2 72. 7 42. 5	6. 2 65. 7 35. 8	17. 6 17. 0 15. 9 80. 9 58. 7	17. 1 14. 5 10. 3 82. 5 51. 5	17. 3 14. 4 10. 0 82. 5 50. 0	5. 3 50. 0 32. 0	18.3 13.7 16.7 59.0 46.1	19.0 12.7 9.8 59.1 38.4	19.3 12.3 9.2 59.6 38.2	19.5 15.5 19.9 76.1 47.4		18, 9 11, 7 9, 0 72, 6 33, 8	6, 1 52, 5 31, 3	18. 5 15. 7 19. 9 69. 1 51. 5	17.6 12.7 9.9 65.7 42.2	17 I 12.8 9.1 64.8 40.8
30. 6 25. 8 12. 8 61. 7	25. 5 32. 4 2 14. 4 55. 7	23, 8 32, 5 2 14, 5 52, 3		26. 8 25. 1 2 15. 4 58. 1	26. 0 30. 5 2 19. 1 46. 9	23. 1 30. 2 2 18. 6 43. 5		22. 4 22. 2 42. 1 51. 7	20. 2 29. 1 45. 7 47. 1	19. 4 29. 3 44. 3 44. 7	30. 9 24. 5 44. 2 48. 5	27. 3 32. 2 43. 3 39. 6	24. 9 31. 8 43. 9 37. 8		26, 5 36, 7	21. 6 32. 4 37. 9 50. 3	20. 5 31. 2 37. 5 49. 8

² Per pound.

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

		Se	eattle,	Was	h.	Sprin	ngfield	1, 111.	Was	hingt	ton, I). C.
Article.	Unit.	Feb.	15—	Jan.		Feb.			Feb.	15—	Jan.	
		1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1921.	15, 1920.	15, 921.	15, 1921.	1913	1920	15, 1921.	15, 1922
Sirloin steak Round steak Lib roast Huck roast Plate beef	do do	Cts. 22.0 20.0 18.4 15.0 11.4	34.3 30.3 24.2	30.9 27.6 20.0	30.0 26.9 19.6	33. 9 25. 0 21. 1	34.6 24.8 19.5	33.1 24.6 19.7	21.8 20.0 15.6	Cts. 48. 8 44. 2 37. 6 29. 0 17. 6	41.3 37.8 27.0	38. 35. 25.
ork chops	do dodo	18.3	59.0 58.2 37.3	55.5 53.9 32.5	55.0 53.5	44.7 47.5 38.8	42.3 46.6 37.5	42.7 46.8 35.0	19.3 23.3 28.2 21.0 21.3	47.5 56.3 48.2	42.8 51.7 43.8	3 42 54 3 38
almon (canned)	Quart 15-16-oz.can. Pound	9.1	15.0 14.6 69.1	38.4 12.8 12.9 53.8 38.3	12.0 12.7	71.3	14.3 16.1 62.1	13. 4 15. 7 56. 5	9.0	16.3 77.4	17.0	16 2 14 2 60
Nut margarine	do	21.6 17.9	31.1	39.8	40. 1 25. 9	45.0 31.6 41.0	39. 2 22. 2 28. 5	40. 4 20. 6 28. 0	23.5	32. 8 37. 8	39.5 21.7 27.6	5 39 7 19 6 25
Eggs, storage Bread. Flour Corn meal . Rolled oats.	do Pounddodododo	22. 5 5. 4 3. 0 3. 1	11. 7 7. 8 7. 8 9. 8	10.0 5.8 5.8 9.1	10.0 5.8 5.2 8.8	51. 7 12. 3 8. 6 6. 6 11. 0	71.4 11.7 6.4 5.4 12.7	11. 7 6. 4 5. 1 11. 9	20. 5 5. 5 3. 7 2. 5	10.1	10.4 6.9 4.4	5 10
Corn flakes Cream of Wheat Macaroni. Rice Beans, navy.	8-oz. pkg 28-oz. pkg Pound		14.8 31.2 17.	30.6 7 18.	30.9 1 18.0 1 11.9	2 15.0 9 30.8 0 19.0 9 19.3	15. 2 30. 3 23. 1 5 12. 6	15. 2 30. 3 23. 2 10. 5	9.6	29. 2 22. 6 18. 6	3 13. 2 . 29. 3 22. 5 13. 5 8.	5 2 9 2 3 1
Potatoes Onions Jabbage Beans, baked Corn, canned	do		5. 1 9. 6 8. 8 21. 1	3. 4 3. 6 3. 18. 9	3. 18.	1 9. 5 5 17.	7 3.8 7 17.	4. 5 3. 8 16. 7	1.5	9. 1 10. 9 15. 1	1 4. 9 3. 1 13.	8 3 1
Peas, canned. Fomatoes, canned. Sugar, granulated Fea. Coffee	Pound	6.	1 17.	6 10. 0 65.	7 13. 9. 65.	7 22. 5 85.	1 10.	9. 9. 85. 0	5. 28. 8 5 28. 8	16.5 18.9 77.6	2 10. 9 9. 6 76.	9 1 7 2 7
Prunes. Ra _i sins. Ba nanas. Oranges.	Dozen		25.	2 30. 9 2 17.	5 30. 5 2 17.	4 26. 4 2 11.	3 26. 1 36. 4 2 12. 0 52.	2 35.9 1 ² 12.0	9	25.	6 25. 0 31. 6 44. 2 44.	8 3 7 4

¹ No. 21 can.

² Per pound.

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 food 7 in February, 1921, compared with the average cost in the year 1913, in February, 1920, and in January, 1921. For 12 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. 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.8

Effort has been made by the bureau each month to have perfect reporting cities. For the month of February, 99 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 40 cities who is cooperating with the bureau sent in his report in time for his prices to be included in the city averages: Atlanta, Baltimore, Birmingham, Bridgeport, Butte, Chicago, Cincinnati, Columbus, Dallas, Denver, Detroit, Houston, Indianapolis, Jacksonville, Kansas City, Little Rock, Los Angeles, Louisville, Manchester, Memphis, Minneapolis, Newark, New Haven, New York, Norfolk, Omaha, Peoria, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Portland, Me., Providence, Richmond, Rochester, St. Louis, St. Paul, Salt Lake City, Savannah, Seattle, Springfield, Ill., and Washington.

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

*

RETAIL PRICE REPORTS RECEIVED DURING FEBRUARY.

	United	Geographical division.									
Item.	States.	North Atlantic.	South Atlantic.	North Central.	South Central.	Western.					
Percentage of reports received Number of cities in each section from which	99	99	99	99	99	98					
every report was received	40	10	7	12	6	5					

⁷ For list of articles, see note 2, p. 15.

⁸ The consumption figure used from January, 1913, to December, 1920, for each article in each city is given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for November, 1918, pp. 94 and 95. The new consumption figures which have been used for January, 1921, and which will be used for each month after January, 1921 are given in the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for March, 1921, p. 26.

TABLE 6.—PERCENTAGE CHANGES IN THE RETAIL COST OF FOOD IN FEBRUARY, 1921, COMPARED WITH THE COST IN JANUARY, 1921, FEBRUARY, 1920, 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.	Percentage increase February, 1921,	crease,	tage de- February, compared	City.	Percentage increase February, 1921,	crease,	tage de- February, compared
cay.	com- pared with year 1913.	February, 1920.	January, 1921.		com- pared with year 1913.	February, 1920.	January, 1921.
Atlanta	58	21	8	Milwaukee	55	25	9
Baltimore	64	20	8 7	Minneapolis	53	26	6
Birmingham		17	(Mobile	52	21 21	
Boston	-60	18	8 9	New Haven	58	20	(
Bridgeport		21	9	New Haven	98	20	1
Buffalo	60	23	11	New Orleans	61	19	
Butte		23	11	New York	60	21	(
Charleston	69	18	8	Norfolk		20	
Chicago	56	22	9	Omaha	56	24	(
Cincinnati	57	20	. 8	Peoria		24	1
Cleveland	55	23	9	Philadelphia	56	22	3
Columbus		22	9	Pittsburgh	58	21	
Dallas	55	20	9	Portland, Me		20	
Denver	45	24	9	Portland, Oreg	44	21	1
Detroit		25	10	Providence	65	20	4
Fall River	59	21	7	Richmond	71	-20	1
Houston		19	8	Rochester		23	1
Indianapolis	56	21	6	St. Louis	57	25	1
Jackson ville		19	7	St. Paul		25	
Kansas City	56	22	9	Salt Lake City	43	21	
Little Rock	51	22	9	San Francisco		18	
Los Angeles	48	17	6	Savannah		23	1
Louisville	43	25	10	Scranton		19	
Manchester	57	21	8	Seattle	46	24	
Memphis	1	26	10	Springfield, Ill		23	
	1			Washington, D. C	64	21	

Retail Prices of Coal in the United States.1

THE following table shows the average retail prices of coal on January 15, 1920, and on January 15 and February 15, 1921, 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 OF COAL, PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS, FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JAN. 15, 1920, AND JAN. 15 AND FEB. 15, 1921.

City, and kind of coal.	Jan. 15,	19	21
	1920.	Jan. 15.	Feb. 15.
United States:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	\$12.588 12.768	\$15.985 16.123	\$15.795
Bituminous	8. 808	11.819	15. 884 11. 408
Atlanta, Ga.:			
Bituminous	9.050	11.854	8.958
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 12. 500	1 15. 500	1 15.500
Chestnut Bituminous	1 12, 600	1 15. 500	1 15.500
Birmingham, Ala.:	1 7.500	1 10.250	1 9.972
Bituminous	7.496	10.648	10.381
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	17.500	16,000
Chestnut	12.500	17.500	16.000
Buffalo, N. Y.:	-		
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove————————————————————————————————————	10.890	13.250	13, 250
Chestnut	10. 990	13. 250	13. 250
Butte, Mont.:			
Bituminous	10.381	12.715	12.512
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	1 13. 400	1 17. 875 1 17. 725	1 17.875
Chestnut.	1 13.500	1 17. 725	1 17.725
Bituminous	8.500	13.250	13. 250
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	12.590	15.913	15. 280
Chestnut Bituminous	12.690 8.020	16.025 9.481	15.520 9.107
Cincinnati, Ohio:	0.020	.0. 101	0.101
Pennsylvania anthracite—	40.443		
Stove	12.500 12.667	15. 970 16. 375	15.980 16.125
Bituminous	6.739	8.679	8.143
Cleveland, Ohio:	-		
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	12,300	14.750	14,663
Chestnut	12. 233	14.750	14.813
Bituminous	7.911	9.558	8.619
Columbus, Ohio: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Chestnut	12,000	16.500	15.750
Bituminous	6.513	9.457	9,000
Dallas, Tex.: Arkansas anthracite—		1	
Egg	18.500	20.250	20.000
Bituminous	14.583	16.250	15.500
Denver, Colo.: Colorado anthracite—			
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	14.000	17.533	17.600
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	13.500	17.533	17.600
Bituminous Detroit, Mich.:	8.908	11.691	11.676
Pennsylvania anthracite—		12	
Stove	12.650	15.950	15.550
Chestnut Bituminous	12.750 8.781	15.950	15. 550 10. 972
fall River, Mass.:	8.781	12.194	10.972
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13.000	16.500	16.000
Bituminous	12.750 10.000	16. 250 14. 000	16.000 13.250
Iouston, Tex.:			
Bituminousndianapolis, Ind.:	12.000	16.286	15.286
Pennsylvania anthracite—		1	
Stove	13.000	16.000	15.875
Chestnut	13.167	16.000	15.875
Bituminous	8.188	9.838	9.461

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF COAL PER TON OF 2,000 POUNDS FOR HOUSEHOLD USE, ON JAN. 15, 1920, AND JAN. 15 AND FEB. 15, 1921—Continued.

	Jan. 15,	19	21
City, and kind of coal.	1920.	Jan. 15.	Feb. 15.
Jacksonville, Fla.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove.	\$17.000	\$24.000	\$24.000
Chestnut	17.000	23. 000	23. 000
Bituminous	11.000	15.667	15. 500
Kansas City, Mo.:			
Arkansas anthracite— Furnace.	15. 950	17. 917	18. 250
Stove, or No. 4.	16. 583	18. 500	18, 500
Bituminous	8.625	10.115	9. 950
Little Rock, Ark.: Arkansas anthracite—			
Egg		17.000	7 17.000
Bituminous	10.375	14.176	eretj 14.17
Los Angeles, Calif.: Bituminous	16.000	19. 222	19.33
Louisville, Ky.:	20.000	10.22	
Pennsylvania anthracite—	10 850	10 000	10.00
Stove. Chestnut	13. 750 13. 750	16. 000 17. 000	16.000 17.500
Bituminous	6. 836	9. 750	8. 53
Manchester, N. H.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove	13, 417	18.000	18.00
Chestnut	13. 417	18.000	18.00
Bituminous	10.000	14.000	13. 33
Memphis, Tenn.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.	16.000	18,000	18.00
Chestnut	16.000	18.000	18.00
Bituminous	8.000	10.036	9. 50
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	12.600	16.200	16.20
Chestnut. Bituminous.	12.700 8.960	16. 280 12. 948	16. 26 11. 46
Minneapolis, Minn.:	8, 900	12. 940	11. 40:
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14.000	18. 330 18. 390	18. 25 18. 33
Chestnut. Bituminous.	14. 100 10. 425	13. 824	13. 22
Mobile, Ala.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove.	17 000		
Chestnut	17. 000 17. 000		
Bituminous	10.333	13.214	12.68
Newark, N. J.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	10.483	13.000	13.00
Chestnut	10.483	13,000	13.00
New Haven, Conn.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.	12.250	17, 083	15. 83
Chestnut	12.250	17.083	15. 83
New Orleans, La.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.	17.500	22, 500	22, 50
Chestnut	17.500	22, 500	22.50
Bituminous	9. 269	12.873	12. 54
New York, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	11,536	14. 542	14. 22
Chestnut	11.600	14. 542	14. 22
Norfolk, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13,000	16.000	16.00
Chestnut	13.000	16. 000 13. 357	16.00
BituminousOmaha, Nebr.:	9.750	13. 357	13. 14
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove.	17. 275	23. 250	22.00
Chestnut. Bituminous.	17. 450 10. 108	23. 375 13. 697	22. 00 13. 09
Peoria, Ill.:	10.100	10.001	10.00
Pennsylvania anthracite—	10.000	10 700	10.00
Stove. Chestnut	13. 000 13. 000	16. 500 16. 500 7. 750	16.00 16.00
Bituminous	6,000	10.000	7.06

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

City, and kind of coal.	Jan. 15,	19:	21
City, and kind of coat.	1920.	Jan. 15.	Feb. 15.
Philadelphia, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	2 \$11. 881	2 \$14. 975	2 \$14. 97
Chestnut	2 11. 906	² 14. 975	2 14. 978
Pittsburgh, Pa.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	2 13. 750	2 18. 500	2 18. 500
Bituminous	2 14. 000	² 18. 500	2 18. 667
Portland, Me.:	6. 179	8. 156	7. 938
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13. 440	16.320	16. 310
Rituming Isi	13. 440 9. 370	16. 320	16. 310
Bituming Portland, Oreg.:	9. 510	12. 740	11.760
Bituminous	11,618	13.792	13991
Providence, R. I.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	3 12, 950	3 17 000	8 16, 500
Chestnut	3 13, 000	³ 17. 000 ³ 17. 000	⁸ 16, 500
Bituminous	8 10. 000	³ 13. 583	³ 12. 500
Richmond, Va.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	12. 125	15, 500	15, 500
Chestnut	12. 125	15. 500	15. 500
Dittiminous	8. 931	12. 289	12.039
R ochester, N. Y.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	10, 800	13, 550	13. 550
Chestnut	10.900	13, 550	13. 550
St. Louis, Mo.: Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	13, 100	17. 288	17, 163
Chestnut Bituminous	13. 225	17. 288	17. 163
Bituminous	5. 970	8, 066	7.750
St. Paul, Minn Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	14,000	18.283	18. 250
Chestnut	14.100	18.317	18.300
Bituminous	11.531	15.131	14.383
Colorado anthracite—			
Furnace, 1 and 2 mixed	16.313	17.700	17.700
Stove, 3 and 5 mixed	16.583	18.500	18.400
Bituminous	8.236	10.012	9.964
New Mexico anthracite—		1	
Cerillos egg	23.000	28.650	28.650
Colorado anthracite— Egg.	01 770	00 850	00 550
Bituminous	21.750 15.100	26,750 19,400	26.750 19.455
Savannah, Ga.:	20.200	10.100	10.100
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove. Chestnut.	4 15, 100 4 15, 100	4 19, 100 4 19, 100	4 19.100 4 19.100
Bituminous	4 11. 100	4 15. 100	4 15. 100
cranton, Pa.:			
Pennsylvania anthracite— Stove.	8, 233	9, 833	9, 833
Chestnut	8.300	9.833	9, 833
eattle, Wash.:			
Bituminous	5 9.588	5 11.611	5 11.595
pringfield, Ill.: Bituminous	3.950	4.950	4.950
Vashington, D. C.:	0.500	4. 550	4. 930
Pennsylvania anthracite—			
Stove	2 12. 447	2 15. 593	2 15. 536
Chestnut	² 12. 538 ² 8. 267	² 15. 557 ² 11. 577	² 15.500 ² 11.555
	0. 201	11.011	- 11.000

² Per ton of 2,240 pounds.
⁸ 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, according to distance.

Retail Prices of Dry Goods in the United States. 1

THE following table gives the average retail prices of 10 articles of dry goods on the 15th of February, May, August, and October, 1920, and on the 15th of February, 1921. The averages given are based on the retail prices of standard brands only.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1920, AND ON FEB. 15, 1921.

			Atl	anta,	Ga.			Balt	imore,	Md.	
Article	Unit.		19	20		Feb.		19	20		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 94 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton 66 by 80.	YarddododododoEach.YarddoPair	\$0. 250 .513 .344 .447 .650 .393 .972 2. 572 .393 .950 .5. 320	\$0.548 .368 .454 .686 .425 1.208 2.650 .465	\$0. 623 .342 .539 .714 .464 1. 139 2. 868 .553 1. 250 5. 110	\$0.508 .280 .433 .643 .402 1.046 2.552 .442 1.250 5.903	\$0. 275 .161 .238 .464 .222 .662 1. 599 .265 1. 250 3. 240	\$0. 356 . 528 . 351 . 423 . 582 . 475 1. 153 2. 917 . 437 1. 150 7. 442	\$0.510 .350 .490 .668 .529 1.237 3.076 .488 1.213	. 479 . 643 . 500 1. 159 2. 988 . 517 1. 320	. 257 . 450 . 610 . 315 1. 125 2. 781 . 418 1. 330	.161 .234 .349 .211 .673 1.754 .252
			Birmi	nghan	ı, Ala.			Bos	ton, M	lass.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddodododododododo. Each. Yarddo. Pair.	\$0. 434 316 427 .662 .385 .873 2. 094 .369 1. 113 6. 484	\$0. 257 .474 .324 .450 .645 .410 1. 019 2. 548 .380 1. 070 6. 600	.317 .506 .683 .407 1.014 2.539 .440 1.098	.380 .280 .413 .643 .290 .833 2.162 .341 1.096	\$0. 258 .175 .251 .413 .194 .604 1.517 .245	.456 .320 .383 .602 .487 .999 2.662 .384 1.413	. 493 . 350 . 443 . 664 . 529 1. 085 2. 732 . 392 1. 370	. 366 . 536 . 718 . 451 1. 022 2. 745 . 495 1. 415	\$0.373 .282 .364 .643 .360 1.041 2.662 .425 1.383	. 178 . 240 . 504 . 262 . 666 1. 663 . 251 . 998
			Bridg	eport,	Conn			Buí	falo, N	T. Y.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	YarddodododododoEachYarddoPair	\$0. 220 .473 .390 .433 .599 .457 1. 197 2. 638 .368 .625 6. 125	\$0. 250 . 523 . 340 . 493 . 635 . 491 1. 220 2. 858 . 430 1. 000	\$0.530 .323 .547 .687 .413 1.267 3.2.960 .438 1.190 6.125	\$0. 478 290 448 659 400 1. 148 2. 738 448 1. 250 6. 640	.185 .253 .488 .241 .660 8 -1.855 .300 1.250	.510 .320 .404 .545 .447 1.089 2.664 .392 .980	. 553 . 380 . 486 . 690 . 483 1. 193 2. 828 . 432 1. 115	.500 .764 .481 1.210 2.910 .494 1.115	. 388 . 303 . 381 . 629 . 357 1. 142 2. 817 . 385 1. 115	. 285 . 196 . 242 . 491 . 258 . 681 1. 789 . 297 . 865
			Bu	tte, M	ont.			Char	leston	, S. C.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheetin, bleached, 94 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing fiannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 250 . 483 . 280 . 394 . 500 . 408 1. 131 3. 063 . 372 1. 020 6. 800	\$0. 250 483 303 414 583 467 1. 217 3. 000 398 1. 020 6. 770	.517 .315 .454 .643 .444 1.206 3.000 .423 1.020	. 483 . 250 . 386 . 570 . 350 1. 217 3. 000 . 407 1. 088	.334 .214 .306 .478 .244 .842 2.118 .308 .950	. 478 . 301 . 435 . 581 . 461 1. 116 2. 587 . 367 1. 267	. 520 . 316 . 468 . 562 . 490 1. 180 2. 756 . 408 1. 010	. 550 . 350 . 494 . 620 . 431 1. 093 2. 968 . 455	.370 .240 .362 .507 .281 .996 2.267 .339	. 205 . 164 . 232 . 420 . 223 . 614 1. 553 . 262 1. 073

¹ Retail prices of dry goods are published in the April, July, October, and December issues of the MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW.

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1920, AND ON FEB. 15, 1921—Continued.

			Ch	icago,	III.			Cinc	innati,	Ohio	
Article.	Unit.		19	920		Feb.		1	920		Fob
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oet. 15.	15, 1921.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	Feb. 15, 1921
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	dodododoEach.	. 319 . 264 . 431 . 711 . 467 1. 166 2. 753 . 393 1. 750	.317 .457 .758 .437 1.244 2.912 .447	.443 .340 .472 .812 .464 1.237 2.972 .494 1.000	. 458 . 274 . 383 . 805 . 282 1. 023 . 2. 523 . 322 1. 150	. 284 . 159 . 255 . 579 . 228 . 637 1. 530 . 236	. 470 . 293 . 408 . 639 . 393 . 999 . 2. 499 . 360 1. 110	3 .495 3 .317 3 .458 664 400 1.020 2.500 .410 1.000	5 .527 .312 .467 .712 .435 1.113 2.796 .488	. 465 . 270 . 410 . 713 . 375 . 999 2, 540 . 347 1, 193	270 160 160 160 160 160 160 123 1,250
			Cleve	eland,	Ohio.			Colu	mbus,	Ohio.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.			. 559 . 358 . 480 . 738 . 461 1. 148 2. 917 . 468 1. 000	. 582 . 342 . 494 . 770 . 459 1. 189 2. 856 . 478	. 392 . 290 . 379 . 691 . 336 . 926 2. 265 . 374 1, 250	\$0. 276 . 175 . 238 . 528 . 252 . 676 1. 558 . 234 1. 250	. 490	.646 .363 .461 .733 .445 1.323 2.991 .430 1.417	. 363 . 501 . 757 . 458 1. 348 2. 734	. 522 . 268 . 459 . 685 . 367 1. 170 2. 613 . 450	. 267 . 163 . 275 . 593 . 222 . 763 1. 743 . 290
*			Da	llas, T	ex.			Den	ver, C	olo.	-
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing Bannel, 27 to 28 inch Tlannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	do do	\$0. 250 . 434 . 310 . 431 . 622 . 391 . 985 2. 348 . 361	. 455 . 294 . 461 . 689 . 418 1. 033	\$0, 250 . 530 . 290 . 477 . 773 . 395 1, 061 2, 771 . 433 1, 125 7, 161	\$0, 200 . 387 . 235 . 358 . 615 . 272 . 926 2, 298 . 336 1, 125 7, 079	\$0. 125 . 270 . 174 . 247 . 516 . 209 . 593 1. 529 . 194 -4, 156	\$0. 250 . 520 . 360 . 443 . 774 . 472 1. 245 2. 864 . 425 1. 200 6. 343	.630 .380 .482 .773 .520 1.312 3.361 .503 1.000	.695 .380 .567 .813 .500 1.330 3.337 .528 1.250	\$0.200 .580 .325 .473 .753 .390 .1945 2.845 .486 1.367 7.688	. 348 . 179 . 266 . 621 . 244 . 716
			Detr	oit, M	lich.			Fall 1	River,	Mass.	
Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch.	+(10	\$0. 250 . 472 . 318 . 396 . 615 . 456 1. 090 2. 734 . 365 1. 000 5. 800	. 520 . 354 . 469 . 729 . 512 1. 117 2. 987 . 420 . 988	. 529 . 374 . 470 . 742 . 478 1. 100 2. 909 . 468 . 967	\$0.197 .447 .294 .383 .689 .342 .992 2.548 .420 1.067 6.242	\$0. 132 . 286 . 190 . 225 . 574 . 225 . 715 1. 727 . 263 1. 233 5. 013	\$0. 430 .350 .455 .610 .443 1. 040 2. 575 .400 6. 173	\$0, 290 . 453 . 343 . 423 . 645 . 480 1, 150 2, 583 . 370 5, 410	\$0.490 .325 .484 .680 .482 1.083 2.663 .400	. 263 . 395 . 590 . 380 1. 083 2. 488 . 420	\$0, 238 , 167 , 240 , 390 , 230 , 783 1, 610 , 258 4, 320

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1920, AND ON FEB. 15, 1921—Continued.

			Hou	ston,	Tex.			India	apoli	s, Ind.	
Article.	Unit.		195	20		Feb.		19	20		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 250 . 433 . 290 . 383 . 618 . 385 . 975 2. 365 . 336 . 910 7. 500	\$0. 290 . 518 . 338 . 408 . 685 . 429 1. 038 2. 664 . 353 . 880 6. 500	\$0. 230 .600 .333 .458 .763 .385 .970 2. 779 .453 .875 6. 543	\$0. 210 .360 .245 .325 .544 .250 .776 2. 317 .335 .974 7. 047	\$0. 125	\$0. 251 . 470 . 303 . 411 . 609 . 426 1. 066 2. 595 . 379 1. 250 6. 503	\$0. 253 . 483 . 345 . 465 . 613 . 461 1. 207 2. 910 . 439 1. 290 6. 858	\$0. 258 . 469 . 342 . 488 . 620 . 447 1. 184 2. 787 . 462 1. 290 6. 685	\$0. 223 . 458 . 281 . 407 . 575 . 386 1. 076 2. 606 . 397 1. 195 6. 622	\$0. 140 . 295 . 171 . 249 . 410 . 238 . 698 1. 527 . 254 . 997 4. 905
					e, Fla.				as Cit		
Calico, 24 to 25 inch Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.			. 390 . 463 . 720 . 523 1. 310 3. 016 . 483 1. 000	\$0.605 .320 .447 .742 .500 1.243 2.966 .427 .800	. 445 .290 .397 .656 .408 1.000 2.363 .410	. 160 . 233 . 438 . 229 . 688 1.615 . 270 . 850	.500 .350 .450 .690 .473 1.070 2.420 .403	. 545 .364 .503 .714 .486 1.275 3.063 .428	. 573 . 360 . 488 . 706 . 486 1. 200 3. 100 . 480	.517 .250 .446 .737 .411 1.077 2.725 .453	. 284 . 190 . 270 . 555 . 241 . 705 1. 712 . 243 . 750
			Little	Rocl	k, Ark			Los A	ngeles	, Calif	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 250 . 480 . 295 . 385 . 538 . 400 1. 008 2. 338 1. 111 . 5. 000	\$0, 270 480 . 298 . 371 8 . 636 . 443 8 . 1.181 2. 818 8 . 399 8 . 1.348 5 . 140	\$0, 269 \$. 283 . 413 6 . 694 8 . 433 1 . 156 8 . 2.88 4 . 456 8 . 1.066 6 . 17	\$0, 233 \$0, 238 \$1, 426 \$238 \$374 \$4, 566 \$4, 566 \$5, 566 \$6, 566	\$\\ \begin{array}{c} \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \	\$0. 203 506 506 6. 356 6. 419 6. 658 9. 956 2. 368 4. 414 1. 500 6. 204	\$ \(\) \(\	\$ \$0. 228 \$. 354 \$. 356 \$. 466 \$. 467 \$. 677 \$. 447 \$ 1. 099 2. 816 . 480 1. 417 6. 155	5 \$0.509 306 431 3 681 7 379 4 1.032 6 2.606 7 429 7 1.333 2 6.756	58 .180 .274 .589 .244 .713 1.623 .269 .95
,				isville,						, N. H	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 94 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	do. do. do. do. do. do. Each Yard	33 44 75 40 99 2 60 36 1 17	5 .325 5 .455 5 .766 4 .42 0 1.04 2.72 3 .38 1.37	32 .32 8 .51 3 .74 7 .38 2 1.00 5 2.79 8 .59 5 .84	50 .40 00 .25 33 .43 99 .71 66 .29 33 .97 88 2.65 00 .43 00 1.12	9 .20. 0 .15 3 .26 4 .53 8 .19 0 .63 5 1.93 2 .25 5 .87	30 30 30 39 39 39 46 51 11 22 26 68 7 37 51 108	3 30 6 39 4 61 7 51 1 1.12 4 2.65 4 39 0 1.09	3 .33 9 .43 7 .67 4 .48 7 1.15 1 2.72 1 .46 5 1.09	5 .25 7 .34 4 .59 7 .38 0 1.03 7 2.43 4 .37 5 1.09	3 .15 1 .23 1 .45 1 .23 .71 1 .62 1 .23 5 1.25

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICE OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1920, AND ON FEB. 15, 1921—Continued.

			Men	nphis,	Tenn.			Milv	vauke	, Wis.	
Article.	Unit.	=	19	920		Feb.		. 1	1920		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15,	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 94 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	YarddodododododoEachYarddoPair	\$0.264 .507 .355 .426 .687 .435 1.007 2.669 .383 1.213 6.987	\$0. 257 . 580 . 283 . 463 . 480 1. 098 2. 904 . 375 1. 310 7. 067	\$0. 290 . 598 . 350 . 512 . 747 . 418 1. 108 2. 896 . 471 1. 288 6. 442	\$0. 256 461 281 493 722 334 1. 120 2. 667 416 1. 288 6. 495	\$0. 144 301 150 266 545 204 552 1. 627 209 875 4. 857	\$0. 220 .538 .350 .423 .629 .473 1. 002 2. 703 .414 .6. 593	\$0. 270 . 597 . 350 . 457 . 701 . 481 1. 214 2. 954 . 395 6. 721	\$0. 235 .530 .374 .465 .735 .512 1. 210 2. 924 .486 .750 6. 960	\$0. 195 .487 .288 .412 .708 .387 1. 086 2. 679 .468 .750 6. 849	\$0. 155 260 176 258 519 263 664 1. 734 280 5. 032
,		1	Vinnes	polis,	Minn.			Mo	obile, A	Ala.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddo.	\$0. 237 . 423 . 306 . 440 . 728 . 434 1. 059 2. 600 . 415	\$0. 261 . 465 . 326 . 454 . 832 . 465 1. 133 2. 650 . 402	\$0. 228 . 427 . 314 . 469 . 869 . 451 1. 091 2. 544 . 419 1. 047 6. 402	\$0.177 .369 .213 .384 .741 .316 .961 2.561 .385 1.047 6.105	\$0. 132 242 169 264 618 233 624 1. 639 220 5. 098	\$0, 253 .510 .316 .436 .622 .390 .930 2, 276 .350 1, 000 6, 320	\$0. 255 . 517 . 326 . 429 . 624 . 436 1. 025 2. 506 . 359 . 867 6. 296	\$0. 250 . 520 . 338 . 475 . 590 . 422 1. 017 2. 583 . 420 . 750 6. 994	\$0. 250 .443 .270 .402 .596 .322 .908 2. 533 .416 .790 6. 605	\$0. 150 . 244 . 158 . 221 . 398 . 219 . 590 1. 570 . 226 . 590 4. 979
			New	ark, N	г. ј.			New I	Iaven,	Conn	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Maill, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddodododododo Each. Yarddo Pair.	\$0. 250 . 488 . 297 . 402 . 608 . 432 1. 004 2. 645 . 382 1. 250 5. 827	\$0. 277 . 564 . 317 . 483 . 718 . 475 1. 157 2. 870 . 480 1. 320 5. 370	\$0, 250 .521 .317 .459 .686 .448 1, 157 2, 843 .508 1, 250 5, 956	\$0.170 .424 .244 .373 .671 .323 1.055 2.667 .364 1.410 6.039	\$0, 125 . 303 . 183 . 243 . 508 . 219 . 670 1, 809 . 245 1, 140 4, 760	\$0.190 .436 .299 .391 .581 .423 .982 2.314 .364 .945 5.354	\$0.250 .502 .336 .434 .679 .470 1.094 2.575 .383	\$0, 262 . 484 . 308 . 499 . 720 . 432 . 988 2, 639 . 414 1, 250 6, 354	\$0, 208 . 394 . 246 . 390 . 595 . 349 . 957 2, 578 . 346 1, 275 6, 000	\$0. 144 . 255 . 177 . 263 . 459 . 221 . 675 1. 552 . 263 . 810 4. 634
		1	New O	rleans	, La.			New	York,	N. Y.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 242; . 398 . 340 . 374 . 718 . 390 . 967 2. 343 . 373 . 600 5. 990	\$0. 250 \$\\ .435 \\ .290 \\ .450 \\ .732 \\ .393 \\ .975 \\ 2. 383 \\ .350 \\ 1. 250 \end{array}	\$0. 263 . 590 . 290 . 490 . 780 . 380 . 930 2. 558 . 395 1. 250 6. 075	\$0. 220 •414 •250 •366 •750 •278 •743 •2. 040 •349 •1. 000 •6. 457	\$0. 150 . 226 . 180 . 220 . 637 . 192 . 557 1. 695 . 184	\$0. 270 . 466 . 364 . 431 . 718 . 449 1. 148 2. 534 . 371 . 944 5. 550	\$0. 260 \(\) 541 \(\) 371 \(\) 453 \(\) 776 \(\) 459 \(\) 1. 183 \(\) 2. 900 \(\) 417 \(\) 953 \(\) 6. 288	\$0. 282 . 564 . 365 . 482 . 786 . 453 1. 198 2. 798 . 465 1. 091 6. 620	\$0. 240 .413 .296 .429 .796 .335 1. 104 2. 664 .398 1. 147 6. 729	\$0.173 .284 .181 .262 .628 .230 .682 1.626 .263 .979 5.462

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AVARAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, OCT. 15, 1920, AND ON FEB. 15, 1921—Continued.

			No	rfolk,	⊽a.			Oma	aha, N	ebr.	
Article.	Unit.		1	920		Feb.		19	20		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	Мау 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.	Feb. 15.	May 15.	Aug. 15.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached. 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 250 .487 .369 .404 .620 .427 1. 025 2. 360 .385 1. 050 6. 238	350 406 .694 .503 1.136 2.632 .453 1.125	. 350 . 469 . 702 . 478 1. 171 2. 701 . 473	. 286 . 406 . 603 . 365 1, 036 2, 617 . 406 1, 167	. 183 . 243 . 455 . 245 . 701 1. 699 . 249 1. 035	. 318 . 400 . 703 . 426 1. 114 2. 488 . 395 1. 370	.334 .489 .704 .439 1.160 2.795 .419	. 336 . 496 . 700 . 436 1. 163 2. 908 . 430 1. 360	.308 .473 .682 .385 1.173 2.620 .436 1.406	. 185 . 268 . 581 . 232 . 741 1. 725 . 256 1. 256
			P	oria,	111.			Phila	delphi	ia Pa.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing fllannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 203 . 450 . 263 . 412 . 624 . 416 1, 085 2, 616 . 385	. 490 . 920 . 474 1. 288 3. 258 3. 382 . 980	. 453 . 745 . 362 1. 058 2. 690 . 457	. 376 . 735 . 286 . 996 . 2. 632 . 395	. 241 . 565 . 221 . 630 2 1. 673	.511 .323 .408 .653 .446 1.065 2.643 .416 1.458	. 537 . 326 . 449 . 691 . 479 1. 088 2. 663 . 440 1. 380	, 523 , 318 , 494 , 776 , 453 1, 083 2, 699 , 481 1, 316	. 271 . 379 . 682 . 286 . 924 2. 351 . 396	. 253 . 169 . 216 . 499 . 238 . 676 1. 623 . 223 1. 10
			Pitts	burgl	, Pa.			Por	tland,	Me.	,
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27-inch Gingham, dress, 32-inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 94 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0. 218 . 493 . 281 . 393 . 628 . 428 1. 063 2. 597 . 367 1. 073 5. 783	328 328 33 . 459 36 . 727 38 . 448 31 . 168 7 2 . 829 7 . 398	318 509 679 422 8 1.099 1 2.719 6 430 1.080	243 380 380 320 321 301 301 301 301 301 301 301 301 301 30	3 .178 3 .239 5 .551 7 .219 67- 5 1.692 7 .257 1.000	290 406 646 425 961 2,365 408	. 290 . 400 . 633 . 426 . 999 2. 467 . 424 1. 398	290 410 3 .717 6 .458 9 1.024 7 2.450 4 .590 8 1.390	7 .701 8378 1 .965 2 .498 0 .428 0 1 .445	. 190 . 24 . 490 . 22 . 65 . 1. 60 . 270 1. 44
			Por	tland,	Oreg.	-		Prov	idence	, R. I.	-
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododododo. Each Yarddo. Pair.	\$0, 224 46, 230 392 707 44' 879 2, 25 37' 1, 12 6, 75'	5 20. 233 4 . 490 . 28 . 422 . 470 . 70 . 45 . 1. 07 . 75 . 2. 75 . 39 . 1. 33 . 6. 63	\$0. 250 \$0. 250 \$1. 433 \$4. 890 \$4. 45 \$1. 1. 100 \$6. 82 \$6. 82	\$0. 22 .42 .30 .34 .70 .55 .90 .22 .39 .23 .33 .71 .16 .743	1 \$0, 138 . 336 . 185 . 244 . 527 . 238 . 644 . 760 . 1.76 . 247 . 1.13 . 5.14	\$ \$0. 270 6 . 473 6 . 337 7 . 590 8 . 448 6 . 986 6 . 986 1 . 096 4 . 417 4 . 6. 240	\$0, 277 .482 .465 .465 .465 .480 .2. 936 	7 \$0, 283 488 344 7 499 469 469 1, 111 9 2, 84 46 6, 57	5 \$0. 235 2 . 404 3 . 290 412 9 . 614 377 1. 037 7 2. 722 5 . 448 1. 290 6. 488	\$ \$0. 13
			Ric	hmon	I, Va.			Rock	nester,	N.Y.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27-inch. Gingham, dress, 32-inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27-inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo. Each Yarddo. Pair	\$0. 23 . 49 . 29 . 38 . 60 . 46 . 1. 05 . 2. 49 . 35 . 1. 03 . 5. 68	4 \$0. 24. 9 . 48. 9 . 39. 39 . 63. 0 . 48. 0 1. 07. 3 2. 60. 4 . 39. 6 1. 09. 4 5. 89.	8 \$0. 25 . 49 . 31 1 . 44 . 67 . 44 7 1. 05 1 2. 64 . 49 . 49 . 40 . 40 . 40 . 67 . 78 . 78	0 \$0. 22 9 .38 0 .25 3 .35 8 .58 4 .31 2 .93 7 2 .34 7 .37 0 1.12 5 5 .98	4 \$0. 143 6 . 25 7 . 156 8 . 24 5 . 409 0 . 22 5 . 65 9 1. 61 3 . 25 5 . 91 2 5 . 22	\$0. 221 7 . 486 . 296 4 . 384 . 664 . 431 1. 039 2. 504 1. 346 3 7. 144	\$0. 200 . 450 . 300 . 420 . 431 . 431 . 1. 17 . 2. 820 . 370 . 1. 37 . 6. 990	5 \$0. 21: 500 31: 44: 44: 44: 67: 6: 43: 7: 1. 13: 2. 96: 0: 41: 1. 24: 7: 11: 24: 7: 11: 11: 11: 11: 11: 11: 11:	3 \$0. 150 0 . 354 8 . 220 7 . 365 6 . 604 0 . 320 3 1. 022 3 2. 533 6 . 333 1. 244 7. 033	\$0.13 4 .28 5 .16 3 .25 4 .56 0 .21 7 .62 8 1.77 3 .25 3 1.17 5.92

AVERAGE RETAIL PRICES OF 10 ARTICLES OF DRY GOODS ON FEB. 15, MAY 15, AUG. 15, AND OCT. 15, 1920, AND ON FEB. 15, 1921—Concluded.

			St.	Louis,	Mo.			St.	Paul,	Minn.	
Article.	Unit.		19	920		Feb.		19	920		Feb.
		Feb. 15.	May. 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.	Feb. 15.	May. 15.	Aug.	Oct. 15.	15, 1921.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27 inch. Gingham, dress, 32 inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27 inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddodododododo. Yarddo. Pair.	\$0. 250 . 490 . 300 . 448 . 728 . 440 . 994 2. 535 . 372 1. 050 6. 425	\$0.257 .490 .300 .455 .741 .445 1.075 2.563 .410 6.161	\$0.252 .490 .300 .465 .797 .425 1.068 2.691 .437 1.050 6.322	\$0. 210 . 390 . 250 . 403 . 793 . 355 1. 050 2. 451 . 358 1. 197 6. 166	\$0, 131 .262 .154 .238 .593 .208 .670 1, 729 .238 .985 4, 916	\$0. 255 . 491 . 320 . 427 . 644 . 469 1. 028 2. 507 . 398 1. 027 6. 613	\$0.277 483 314 459 666 521 1.115 2.638 .980 6.554	\$0. 256 494 305 457 696 457 1.093 2.587 419 6. 850	\$0. 194 .366 .255 .363 .620 .342 .938 2,608 .383 6. 368	\$0. 156 . 251 . 163 . 242 . 503 . 217 . 632 1. 631 . 242 . 980 5. 346
		Sa	lt Lal	ke Cit	y, Uta	h.	S	an Fr	ancisc	o, Cal	if.
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale. Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27 inch. Gingham, dress, 32 inch. Muslin, bleached. Sheeting, bleached, 9-4. Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Flannel, white, wool, 27 inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddodododododododo. Each. Yarddo. Pair.	\$0. 220 . 529 . 298 . 409 . 709 . 467 1. 078 2. 691 . 441 1. 590 7. 410	\$0. 250 . 545 . 312 . 448 . 708 . 468 1, 103 3. 003 . 438 1, 450 6, 912	.600 .317 .471 .712 .445 1.185 2.942 .487	.499 .276 .372 .642 .345 1.143 2.803 .394 1.598	\$0. 144 . 299 . 154 . 238 . 494 . 240 . 833 1. 844 . 291	. 325 . 400 . 621 . 417 . 983	.350 .414 .642 .430 1.207 3.050 .444 1.500	.693 .481 1.221 2.926	. 305 . 403 . 668 . 398 1, 213 2, 857 . 437 1, 625	. 175 . 254 . 581 . 235 . 725 1. 957 . 323 1. 625
		,	-	nnah,	Ga.	,		Sera	inton,	Pa.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch. Gingham, dress, 27 inch. Gingham, dress, 32 inch. Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90. Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch. Fannel, white, wool, 27 inch. Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80.	Yarddododododododo	\$0.505 .336 .429 .659 .462 1.077 2.593 .419 1.250 7.284	\$0, 490 .366 .436 .613 .459 1.116 2.783 .430 1.000 6.500	\$0.490 .363 .466 .683 .447 1.108 2.873 .484 6.500	\$0.400 .250 .392 .620 .345 .823 2.232 .379 5.950	\$0. 257 . 158 . 247 . 460 . 243 . 620 1. 630 . 246 . 246	\$0. 273 .415 .297 .402 .598 .416 1. 022 2. 378 .404 .980 6. 615	. 450 . 320 . 441 . 608 . 471 1. 101 2. 619 . 451 1. 125	.340 .467 .670 .456 1.144 2.646	. 373 . 263 . 373 . 613 . 327 1. 075 2. 614 . 410 1. 125	. 290 . 161 . 250 . 470 . 252 . 695 1. 856 . 236 . 990
				tle, W	-			Sprin	ngfield	, Ill.	
Calico, 24 to 25 inch. Percale Gingham, apron, 27 to 28 inch Gingham, dress, 27 inch Gingham, dress, 32 inch Muslin, bleached Sheeting, bleached, 9-4 Sheets, bleached, 81 by 90 Outing flannel, 27 to 28 inch Flannel, white, wool, 27 inch Blankets, cotton, 66 by 80	YarddodododododoEachYarddoPair	\$0. 200 \$0. 475 \$0. 350 \$0. 397 \$0. 655 \$0. 458 \$1. 204 \$0. 011 \$0. 429 \$1. 675 \$0. 092	\$0. 250 . 540 . 350 . 419 . 700 . 500 1, 177 3. 118 . 441 1. 467 6. 071	\$0.317 .571 .358 .443 .741 .481 1.175 3.005 .456 1.575 5.790	\$0,250 .470 .330 .439 .750 .351 1.119 2.895 .435 1.575 5.825	\$0. 150 . 317 . 192 . 259 . 543 . 251 . 708 1. 800 . 263 1. 225 4. 700	. 431 . 296 . 397 . 593 . 366 . 900 2. 350 . 383 . 750	. 441 . 330 . 414 . 594 . 397 1. 028 2. 730 . 392 . 850	\$0. 250 . 436 . 333 . 438 . 573 . 412 1. 073 2. 549 . 447 . 750 5. 134	\$0. 230 . 349 . 280 . 354 . 493 . 322 . 966 2. 526 . 307 . 750 5. 583	\$0, 136 , 264 , 173 , 228 , 435 , 228 , (05 1, 752 , 233 , 750 4, 917
				agton,	D.C.		- 1				-
	(10	.503 .313 .495 .637 .473 1.141 2.946 .397	.601 .350 .538 .705 .472 1.258 2.909 .425 1.250	. 580 . 356 . 507 . 762 . 450 1. 186	. 486 . 257 . 439 . 674 . 339 1. 010 2. 538 . 404 1. 224	. 267 . 179 . 263 . 511 . 213 . 683 1. 652 . 246 . 875					

Wholesale Prices in February.

CONTINUED recession of commodity prices at wholesale is shown for February by information collected in representative markets of the country by the Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor. The bureau's weighted index number, which includes 327 commodities, or series of quotations, and in computing which due allowance is made for the relative importance of the different commodities, dropped from 177 in January to 167 in February, or nearly 5\frac{3}{4} per cent. The fall from the

high peak of prices in May, 1920, was $38\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.

Food articles and building materials showed the largest price decreases from the previous month, the decline in each group being over 7 per cent. Farm products and miscellaneous commodities, the latter group including such important articles as bran, cottonseed meal and oil, lubricating oil, jute, rubber, newsprint and wrapping paper, mill-feed middlings, soap, tobacco, and wood pulp, each decreased about 5½ per cent below the level of the month before. Cloths and clothing were 4½ per cent and fuel and lighting materials 4½ per cent cheaper in February than in January. Metals and metal products registered a decline of nearly 4 per cent and chemicals and drugs a decline of nearly 2½ per cent from the January level. In the group of house-furnishing goods the decrease was over 2 per cent.

Of the 327 commodities or price quotations included in the comparison for the two months, 207 showed a decrease and 33 showed an increase. In 87 cases no change in price was recorded. Of these a majority belong in the groups of food and clothing. Some of the more important price changes occurring between January and February, as measured by average prices in each month, are as follows:

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICE IN FEBRUARY AS COMPARED WITH JANUARY, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

Increases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.
Farm products.		Food, etc.—Concluded.		Building materials.	
Sheep, ewes, Chicago	6.9	Prunes, New York	7.7	Shingles, red cedar, mill	2.8
Peanuts, No. 1, Norfolk Poultry, live, Chicago	6.4	Hams, smoked, loose, Chicago	4.5	Chemicals and drugs.	
Food, etc.		Cloths and clothing.		Sulphuric acid, 66°, New York	6.
Butter, creamery, extra, San Francisco Cheese, Chicago	7.3 7.3	Wool, Ohio, unwashed, fine clothing, Boston	3.2	Miscellaneous.	
Bananas, Jamaica 9s, New York	73.9	Fuel and lighting.		Wrapping paper, manila. New York	10.5
Lemons, California, Chi-	12.7	Coal, bituminous, pre- pared sizes, Chicago	4.4		
Oranges, California, Chi-	5.6				

IMPORTANT ARTICLES INCREASING OR DECREASING IN AVERAGE PRICE IN FEBRUARY AS COMPARED WITH JANUARY, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES—Concluded.

Decreases.

Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per cent.	Commodity.	Per
Farm products.		Cloths and clothing.		Building materials.	
Cotton, middling, New		Boots and show fortune			
York	16.8	Boots and shoes, factory: Men's, tan grain, blu-		Brick, common, building, Cincinnati	7.
Flaxseed, No. 1, Minne-		cher	1.8	Cement, Portland, New	1.
apolis Barley, Chicago	7.3 8.2	Women's, McKay, kid,		York	10.
Corn, No. 3, mixed, Chi-	0. 4	Blankets, cotton, New	1.2	Lath, eastern spruce, New York	-
	3.1	York	27.6	Douglas fir, No. 1, f. o. b.	5.
Pats, Chicago Rye, No. 2, Chicago	5. 2 9. 7	Drilling, brown, Pepperell, New York		mills	19.
Vheat:	9.1	Cotton flannel colored	5.5	Hemlock, Chicago Maple, New York	11.
No. 1 northern spring,	60.0	Cotton flannel, colored, New York	38.6	Oak, white, plain, Cincin-	20.
Chicago	9.3	Print cloths, 27-inch,	1	nati	10.
No. 2 hard winter, Kan- sas City	6.1	Boston	8.7	Oak, white, quartered, St. Louis	-
sas City No. 1 hard white, Port-		4/4. N. Y.	3.2	Pine, white, No. 2, barn,	5.
land, Oreg	4.3	4/4, N. Y. Muslin, bleached, Wam-		Buffalo	8.
lay: Alfalfa, No. 1, Kansas		Sutta, factory	2.0	Pine, vellow, flooring,	-
City	11.9	Carded, 22/1	4.2	Dathespurg.	5. 12.
Timothy, No. 1, Chicago.	10.3	Cotton yarn, Boston: Carded, 22/1. Twisted, 20/2	2.8	Poplar, yellow, Cincinnati. Linseed oil, New York	16.
Iides, Chicago: Calískins, No. 1	12.3	Leather, sole, oak, Boston.	8.3	Turpentine, New York	15.
Packers', heavy, native	12.0	Overcoating, soft, faced, black, Boston	20.1	Oxide of zinc, New York Rosin, New York	5. 14.
steers	18.6	Suitings:	20.1	Shingles, cypress, New	14.
ive stock: Steers, good to choice,		Clay worsted, diagonal,	44.0	Shingles, cypress, New Orleans	4.
Chicago	5.4	16-oz., mill	15.0	Chemicals and drugs.	
Sheep, lambs, Chicago	13.6	Fulton mills serge, 11-oz., Boston.	22.0	Chemicais and arags.	
Hops, Portland, Oreg	19.4	Yarn, worsted, half blood,		Alcohol, grain, 190 proof, New York	
Food, etc.		2/40s, Philadelphia	5.3	New York	2.
		Underwear, cotton, men's, New York	5.9	Alcohol, wood, 95%, New York	5.
Butter, creamery, extra: Chicago	1.4		-	York. Copper sulphate, 99%, New York.	
New York	11.4	Fuel and lighting.		Carbonate of soda, New	6.
Eggs, fresh:	41.0	Alcohol, denatured, New		York	2.
Firsts, Chicago Firsts, New York.	41. 2 37. 3	York	4.8	Sulphur, crude, New York.	15.
Extra, selected pullets, San Francisco		Coal, bituminous: Run of mine, Cincin-		House farmishing goods	
San Francisco	40.2	nati	8.9	House-furnishing goods.	
Buckwheat, New York		Run of mine, St. Louis	10.7	Bedroom sets, 3 pieces,	
State	4.8	Coke, Connellsville, fur-	6.2	Chicago	3.
Rye, Minneapolis	9.9	Gasoline, motor, New	0.2	tory	6.
Patent, Kansas City	3.3	Gasoline, motor, New York.	6.5	Pails, galvanized iron,	
Standard patents, Min-		Petroleum, crude, at wells: Kansas-Oklahoma	43.0	factoryTubs, galvanized iron,	12.
Patent, Portland,	4.6	Pennsylvania	27.5	factory	9.
Oreg	1.9				
ard, prime, contract,	m m	Metals and metal products.		Miscellaneous.	
New York	7.7	Bar iron, Pittsburgh	6.4	Bran Minneanolis	18.
Beef, fresh, good native		Lead, pig, desilverized, New York		Bran, Minneapolis Cottonseed oil, New York.	16.
steers, Chicago	7.9	New York	5.8	Lubricating oil, paramne,	
Lamb, dressed, round, Chicago	22.0	Pig iron: Basic, valley furnace	8.3	New York	4.
Mutton, dressed, New	22.0	Bessemer, Pittsburgh Foundry No. 2, north-	7.4	Rubber, Para, New York. Starch, laundry, New	2.
York	16.7	Foundry No. 2, north-		Starch, laundry, New	12
filk, fresh, New York (vicinity)	17.0	ern, Pittsburgh Silver, bar, fine, New	11.5	Wood pulp, sulphite, do-	13.
leomargarine, Chicago	5. 2	Silver, bar, fine, New York	9.4	mestic, New York	22.
ugar, New York:	1 7	Steel billets, Bessemer,	9.0	mestic, New York Hemp, manila, New York. Linseed meal, New York.	11.
RawGranulated	1.7	Steel plates, tank, Pitts-	2.9	Mill feed, middlings, Min-	12.
egetables, fresh, Chicago:		burgh	12.1	neapolis	12.
Onions, sack	8.7	Tin, pig, New York	8.1	Vegetable oils:	17
Potatoes, white	12.5	Zinc, pig (spelter), New York		Coconut, Pacific coast	17.

Comparing prices in February with those of a year ago, as measured by changes in the index numbers, it is seen that food has declined over 38 per cent, cloths and clothing over 44 per cent, and farm products over 45 per cent. In the remaining groups, except fuel and lighting, smaller declines have taken place, ranging from 9³/₄ per cent in the case of chemicals and drugs to 22³/₄ per cent in the case of metals, and 26 per cent in the case of building materials. Fuel and lighting materials, on the contrary, were 16¹/₂ per cent higher than in February, 1920. All commodities, taken in the aggregate, were almost 33 per cent cheaper than in the corresponding month of last year.

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN SPECIFIED YEARS AND MONTHS, 4943 TO FEBRUARY, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES.

[1913=100.]

				[IOIO I						
Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and clothing.	Fuel and light- ing.	Metals and metal prod- ucts.	Build- ing mate- rials.	Chemicals and drugs.	House fur- nishing goods.	Miscel- lane- ous.	All com- modi- ties.
1913	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	10
January	97	99	100	103	107	100	101	100	100	10
April	97	96	100	98	102	101	101	100	98	9
July	101	102	100	99	98	101	99	100	101	10
October	103	102	100	100	99	98	100	100	100	10
1914	103	103	98	96	87	97	101	99	99	10
January	101	102	98	99	92	98	100	.99	99	10
April	103	95	99	98	91	99	100	99	101	9
July	104	104	99	95	85	97	99	99	97	10
October	103	107	97	93	83	96	105	99	96	6
1915	105	104	100	93	97	94	114	99	99	10
January	102	106	96	93	83	94	103	99	100	9
April	107	105	99	89	91	94	102	99	99	10
July		104	99	90	102	93	108	99	98	10
October	105	103	103	96	100	93	124	99	99	10
1916	122	126	128	119	148	101	159	115	120	12
January	1.08	113	110	105	126	99	150	105	107	11
April	114	117	119	108	147	101	172	108	110	11
July		121	126	108	145	99	156	121	120	11
October	136	140	138	133	151	101	150	124	132	13
1917	189	176	181	175	208	124	198	144	155	17
January	148	150 182	161	176 184	183 208	106	159	132	138	13
July		181		192	257	132	198	139	149	18
October		183	187 193	146	182	134	252	152 152	153 163	1 18
1918	220	189	239	163	181	151	221	196	193	18
January	207	187	211	157	174	136	232	161	178	18
February		186	216	157	176	138	232	161	181	1
March	212	177	223	158	176	144	232	165	184	1
April		178	232	157	177	146	229	172	191	19
May	214	177	237	160	178	148	223	173	194	1
June		179	245	159	178	150	219	198	196	1
July		184	249	166	184	154	216	199	190	1
August	230	191	252	166	185	157	222	221	191	2
September	237	199	255	167	184	159	220	226	194	21
October	224	201	257	167	187	158	218	226	196	2
November		208	256	171	188	164	215	226	203	2
December	222	210	250	171	184	164	195	227	204	2
1919	234	210	261	173	161	192	179	236	217	2
January	222	207	234	170	172	161	191	218	212	2
February		196	223	169	168	163	185	218	208	1
March		203	216	168	162	165	183	218	217	2
April	235	211	217	167	152	162	178	217	216	2
May		214	228	167	152	164	179	217	213	-2
June	231	204		170	154	175		233	212	2
July		216	282	171	158	186	171	245	221	2
August		227	304	175		208		259	225	2:
September		211	306	181	160	227	173	262	217	2
October	230	211	313	181	161	231	174	264	220	2
November		219	325	179	164	236		299	220	2
December	244	234	335	181	1 169	253	1 179	303	220	1 2

INDEX NUMBERS OF WHOLESALE PRICES IN SPECIFIED YEARS AND MONTHS, 1913
TO FEBRUARY, 1921, BY GROUPS OF COMMODITIES—Concluded.

Year and month.	Farm products.	Food, etc.	Cloths and cloth- ing.	Fuel and light- ing.	Metals and metal prod- ucts.	Build- ing mate- riels.	Chemicals and drugs.	House fur- nishing goods.	Miscel- lane- ous.	All com- modi- ties.
1920	218	236	302	238	186	308	210	366	236	243
January	246	253	350	184	177	268	189	324	227	248
February	237	244	356	187	189	300	197	329	227	249
March	239	246	356	192	192	325	205	329	230	253
April	246	270	353	213	195	341	212	331	238	265
May	244	287	347	235	193	341	215	339	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	363	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	165	195	234	258	170	274	207	369	220	207
December	144	172	220	236	157	266	188	346	205	189
1921:				200	201	200	100	910	200	100
January	136	162	208	228	152	239	182	283	190	177
February 1	129	150	198	218	146	222	178	277	180	167

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. 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.]

						France: Fa et, 13 a	mily budg- rticles.	
Year and month.	United States: 22 foodstuffs; 51 cities (variable). Weighted.	Australia: 46 food- stuffs; 30 towns. Weighted.	Belgium: 54 articles (variable); Brussels. Not weighted.	Canada: 29 food- stuffs; 60 cities. Weighted.	Denmark: Family food budget; 5 persons. Weighted.	Cities over 10,000 popu- lation (except Paris). Weighted.	Paris only. Weighted.	Great Britain: 21 food- stuffs; 600 towns. Weighted
July October	100 103	100 99	1 100	100 108	100	2 100	100	100 112
January April July October	101 97 98 101	107 113 131 133		107 105 105 105	128	² 110 ² 123	120 114 120 118	118 124 132 140
1916. January April July October	105 107 109 119	129 131 130 125		112 112 114 125	146	² 133 ² 137 ² 141 ² 146	134 132 129 135	145 149 161 168
January February March	125 130 130 142 148	125 126 126 127 127		138 141 144 145 159	158	² 154 ² 171	139	187 189 192 194 198
May	149 143 146 150 154	127 126 129 129 129		160 157 157 157 157 159	166	² 184	183	202 204 202 206 197
November December 1918. January	152 154	129 128		163 165 167 169	173	2 211	191	206 205 206 208
February March April May June	151 155 159	130 131 131 132 132		170 169 171 172	187	² 232	218	207 206 207 208 210
August September October November	164 168 175 177 179	131 128 128 131 133		175 181 179 182 182	187	² 244	238	218 216 229
1919. January February	181	134 140 141	639 534	184 186 181	186	2 278	248 227	230 230
March	1,00	143 145 146 147 147 148	424 374 351 344 354 348	176 180 182 185 186 195	212	² 293 ² 289	248 257 268 264 261 238	220 213 207 204 209 217
August September October November December	184 184 188	148 156 158 158	342 337 341 359	193 192 192 198		2 301	259 283 280 285	216 222 231 234
1920. January. February March. April. May. June July. August.	. 196 207 211 215 215 203	160 163 163 173 176 187 194 194	410 445 473 488 492 490 479 480	206 212 215 215 224 228 227 221	251	2 379	339 358 379 369 373 373	236 235 233 236 246 255 258 262
September October November	199 194 189	197 192 186	493 505 499 493	215 213 206 200		² 450	407 420 426 424	267 270 291 282

¹ April, 1914.

[766]

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.	Nether- iands: 27 foodstuffs; Amster- dam. Not weighted.	New Zealand: 59 food- stuffs; 25 towns. Weighted.	Norway: Family food budget. Weighted.	South Africa: 18 foodstuffs; 9 towns. Weighted.	Sweden: 21 articles; 44 towns. Weighted.	Switzer- land: 9 groups of foodstuffs Not weighted
1914. July October	100	⁸ 100	4 100	100 102	100	5 100	100 7 107	6 100 6 103
1915. January April July October	108	95 107 95 100		111 113 112 112		5 107	7 113 7 121 7 124 7 128	6 107 6 114 6 119 6 120
1916. January April July October		111 116 111 111		116 118 119 120	8 160	5 116	7 130 7 134 7 142 7 152	6 126 6 129 6 140 6 144
January. February March April May June July August Cottober November December	116	124 127 121 120 123 136 137 143		127 126 126 127 128 128 127 127	214		160 166 170 175 175 175 177 181	6 148 158
		148 166 157		129 130 130 132			187 192 200 212	192
January. January. February March April. May June July August September October November December	113 117 118 121 124 131 134 135 134	181 199 200 202 199 203 208 219 235 249 254		134 134 137 139 139 139 141 141 140 144 150	279 275 275	129 131 134 136 135 134 134 135 139 135 134	221 227 235 247 258 261 268 280 284 310 320 330	204 230 251 252
J919. January. February. March. April May. June July August September October November December	140 143 155 151 154 153 153 153 151	259 258 243 230 232 225 206 207 214 241 246 252	195 212 205 196 186 204 210 207 203 204 202 199	145 142 141 142 142 143 144 146 148 150 153 155	279 278 278 276 283 290 289 291 298 300 297 299	136 137 137 139 139 141 139 145 145 145 154 167 170	339 334 331 337 328 319 310 313 309 307 309 307	257 261 245
1920. January February March April May fune July August September October November December	153 154 151 151 159 164 170 167 166 165	275 299 300 310 325 325 325 318 322 324 341	203 205 205 206 209 210 217 219 223 226 220 208	158 160 162 163 163 167 171 173 177 176	299 207 298 305 311 311 319 333 336 340 342	177 187 183 183 188 194 197 196 195 197	298 290 291 297 294 294 297 308 307 306 303 294	244

⁸ January-July. ⁴ Year 1913.

⁵ For calendar year. ⁶ Previous month.

Quarter beginning month specified.
 August.

Cost of Living of School-Teachers and Telegraph Operators in Paraguay.1

BOTH the school-teachers and telegraph operators in Paraguay have petitioned for increases in pay, alleging that it is impossible for them to live on their present salaries and submitting as evidence schedules of what they find it necessary to pay for the barest necessaries of life. The teachers disclose a deficit of 120 pesos (\$3.96, exchange rate) based on the maximum salary now paid, while the telegraph operators show that their expenses are at least 30 pesos (\$0.99, exchange rate) above the salaries paid to those in the highest grade. They demand a minimum monthly salary of 1,200 pesos (\$39.60, exchange rate) for the third grade operators and a graduated addition of 200 pesos (\$6.60, exchange rate) for each higher grade in lieu of the following rates now being paid:

MONTHLY SALARIES OF TELEGRAPH OPERATORS IN ASUNCION AND OUTSIDE THE CAPITAL, BY GRADES.

[1 peso=3.3 cents, exchange rate.]

Grade.	In Asuncion.	Outside Asuncion.
First. Second	Pesos. 900 800 700	Pesos. 800 600 500

The school-teachers now receive a minimum of 200 pesos (\$6.60, exchange rate) a month and a maximum of 400 pesos (\$13.20, exchange rate). They ask an increase in salary without suggesting the amount. The following tables show the cost of living of these two groups of workers as submitted by each with the petitions for increased pay:

COST OF LIVING OF TEACHERS IN PARAGUAY.

[1 peso=3.3 cents, exchange rate.]

Article.	Cost (in pesos).	Article.	Cost (in pesos).
Daily.		. Monthly.	
Meat (2 meals)	2 1 1 2	Food and charcoal. Rent of room. Washing. Toilet articles.	300 150 40 30
Salt and onions. Coffee (breakfast) Sugar Biscuits.	1 1	Total cost	520 400
Charcoal for fire	1 1 2	Deficit	120
Total	10		

¹ Data from November report on commerce and industries of Paraguay, forwarded to this bureau by the Department of State. The dispatch is dated December 18, 1920.

MONTHLY COST OF LIVING OF TELEGRAPH OPERATORS IN PARAGUAY.

[1 peso=3.3 cents, exchange rate.]

Article.	Cost (in pesos).	Article.	Cost (in pesos).
Rent in suburbs Meat Sugar Biscults Rice Noodles. Water	200 210 60 120 60 60 30 90	Coffee. Lard. Onions. Candles Soap Salt. Total.	11 30 11 12 20 1

Wholesale Prices in France, 1914 to 1920.1

HE variations in wholesale prices of commodities in France during the war period and in subsequent months up to October, 1920, are shown by the index numbers compiled and published quarterly by the General Statistical Office (Statistique Générale de la France). The index numbers are computed from the prices of 45 commodities, divided as follows:

(a) Food products, 20 articles.

Vegetable (8).	Animal(8).	Other (4).
Wheat. Flour. Rye. Barley. Oats. Corn. Potatoes. Rice.	Beef, 1st quality. Beef, 2d quality. Mutton, 1st quality. Mutton, 2d quality. Pork. Salt meat. Butter. Cheese.	Refined sugar. Raw sugar. Coffee. Cocoa.

(b) Industrial materials, 25 articles.

Minerals and metals (7).	Miscellaneous (12).	Textiles (6).
Pig iron. Bar iron. Copper. Tin. Lead. Zinc. Coal.	Salted hides. Skins. Tallow. Rapeseed oil. Linseed oil. Alcohol. Petroleum. Soda carbonate. Soda nitrate. Indigo. Lumber. Rubbor	Cotton. Flax. Hemp. Jute. Wool. Silk.

Several distinct periods of alternate rise and fall of prices are revealed by the index numbers: (1) A period of rising prices from August, 1914, the month in which hostilities began, to October, 1918,

¹ Condensed from a report on "Variations in Wholesale Commodity Prices in France, 1914 to 1929," by the American consul at Paris Jan. 20, 1921.

² These index numbers, converted to the 1913 base and without subdivisions, are published in the March, June, September, and December numbers of the Monthly Labor Review, under "Wholesale Prices in the United States and Foreign Countries."

the last month of actual warfare; (2) the armistice period to May, 1919, characterized by continued increases in food prices but a marked decrease in prices of industrial materials; (3) the first postwar period from May, 1919, to April, 1920, marked by a rapid increase in prices in general, due to renewed industrial activity and extravagant buying on the part of manufacturers and speculators, as well as the consuming public; and (4) the second post-war period dating from April, 1920, when the upward movement of prices was definitely arrested and a clear though somewhat irregular downward tendency became manifest.

During the war the general index number rose practically without any interruption, and by October, 1918, had attained a level 260 per cent above that of 1913. In this time the prices of industrial materials rose more rapidly than the prices of foodstuffs. Among industrial materials, minerals and metals showed the largest increases during the first three years of war, but the average price for 1918 was only slightly above the 1917 average, due probably to Government control over these essential commodities and to the stimulation given to their production. The index for the minerals and metals group was 2.8 times as large in 1918 as in 1913. Another striking fact observed in the movement of industrial prices during the war is the rapid increase that took place in the quotations for cotton, wool, silk, and other textile materials, principally after 1916. The index for textiles increased 360 per cent from 1913 to 1918. Among food products, grains and cereals showed the most rapid, and coffee and cocoa showed the slowest increases.

In the eight months from October, 1918, to May, 1919, the general price index declined about 9½ per cent, due to decided decreases in prices of industrial materials. Food prices on the contrary continued to increase. In March and April the index number for food commodities was greater than that for industrial materials. The decline suffered by the latter group was about 20 per cent from October to April. Textile materials in particular were in March, 1919, 30 per cent below the average for 1918.

Following the signing of the peace treaty wholesale prices in general rose more than 80 per cent in the period from May, 1919, to April, 1920. Industrial materials alone rose nearly 100 per cent, reaching a level almost seven times the prewar level. Textile materials showed an increase of over 195 per cent in the 13 months from March, 1919, to April, 1920. At the end of the period textiles were almost ten times as high as in prewar days. During the same period food prices increased over 50 per cent, rising to five times the prewar averages.

Since April, 1920, the high point for wholesale prices in general, the tendency has been downward. In October the level was about 14½ per cent below the level for April. Food products declined during this period nearly 7 per cent, while industrial materials declined over 19 per cent. In the case of articles in the latter group, it is stated that there seems to have been a determined effort on the part of the consuming public to bring about a reduction in the cost of living which, coupled with the success manufacturers have had in increasing production and keeping their workers at their benches, has accomplished a material decrease in the prices of these articles. It is

pointed out that, in seeking to interpret the general movement of prices in France during the summer and fall of 1920, not only must the industrial revival be taken into account, and the gradual elimination of the spirit of extravagance, but also the fact that the Millerand government, which took office at the end of January, succeeded in arresting the continued inflation of the currency which had been going on since the armistice.

Below are shown the index numbers of the Statistique Générale by quarters from 1914 to the middle of 1918, and by months there-

after to October, 1920:

WHOLESALE PRICE INDEXES OF 45 COMMODITIES, 1914 TO OCTOBER, 1920 [1901-1910=100.]

Period.	General index (45 commodi- ties).	Food products (20 commodities).	Industrial materials (25 com- modities).
1914: First quarter	115.4	118.0	113. 3
Second quarter	115.7	120. 9	111. 5
Third quarter	116.8	120, 3	114.1
Fourth quarter.	192 7	121.6	125.
1915: First quarter	143 9	139. 8	147. 9
Second quarter	156.3	151. 1	160. 5
Third quarter	163. 7	152. 9	172.3
Fourth quarter	182. 4	159. 7	187.5
916: First quarter	206.7	187. 9	221.8
Second quarter	219 5	198.3	236. 7
Third quarter	215. 5	189.1	236. 7
Fourth quarter	228 8	195. 7	255, 2
917: First quarter	258. 2	217.0	291. 2
Second quarter	296. 7	268. 7	319, 4
Third quarter.	315. 2	277.7	345.0
Fourth quarter	339, 5	279. 5	387.6
918: First quarter	369, 6	301.6	424.1
Second quarter		317.8	437.7
July	389. 9	317. 8	447.6
August	405. 0	337. 9	458. 6
September		342. 1	465. 3
October	416. 1	345. 7	472. 4
November. December.	413. 7	348. 4	466.0
919: January	407. 9	352, 5	452. 2
February		362. 1	433. 6
March.	393. 5	366. 1	415. 5
April	388. 1 384. 0	390. 1	386. 5
May	375. 8	389. 0 369. 4	379. 9
June	380. 0	362, 4	381. 0 394. 1
July		391. 1	412.5
August	401, 7	374. 3	423. 6
September	416. 2	386, 5	439. 5
October	441. 4	408, 6	467. 2
November	468. 2	426. 2	501. 6
December	488. 6	445. 2	523. 4
920: January	562. 7	509. 7	605, 2
February	603. 3	548. 3	647. 2
March	641.0	576. 9	692. 3
April	679. 2	586. 5	753, 4
May	635, 9	546, 3	707. 5
June	569, 6	502. 8	625, 1
July	572. 9	500. 0	631, 3
August	479.5	500.0	643. 2
September	607. 7	563. 6	642. 9
October	581.5	546, 6	609.3

Changes in Cost of Living in Germany.1

THE National Ministry of Labor of Germany is publishing monthly in the Federal labor bulletin figures of the cost of living in various cities and towns of the country. The following table shows the latest data available, the cities and towns given having

¹ Data from the American consul at Berlin, dated Dec. 10 and 13, 1920.

been selected in order to indicate the cost of living in the various geographical and economic regions of Germany and in small towns as well as large cities. The figures indicate a considerable increase

in the cost of living from February to August, 1920.

The cost of living is based on the monthly requirements of two grown-up people and three children aged 12, 7, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ years, respectively. The sum of the prices covers 13 kinds of foodstuffs in reasonable amounts (rye bread, cereals, vegetables, meats, fats, salt herring, cooking apples, sugar, eggs, unskimmed milk, etc.); fuel (coal, wood, etc.); and lighting (electricity, petroleum, etc.); as well as the average rent for two rooms and kitchen during that month. For the foodstuffs rationed by the local Government the officially fixed prices are given. The remaining articles are covered by the prices in open or illegitimate trade. The officially distributed amounts vary considerably, even in neighboring places, though they are usually adjusted in course of time.

The figures do not include expenses for clothes, underwear, or shoes. They do not indicate the minimum of existence, but serve

purely as a measure of comparison.

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING FOR A FAMILY OF 5 PERSONS IN GERMANY, FEBRUARY TO AUGUST, 1920.

[1 mark at par=23.8 cents.]

	Civil population, census of October, 1919.	Cos	t of livin	ng—	In			cost of 1920=		in
State and city.		Feb., 1920.	July, 1920.	Aug., 1920.	Mar., 1920.	Apr., 1920.	May, 1920.	June, 1920.	July, 1920.	Aug., 1920.
Prussia: Berlin Koenigsberg. Charlottenburg. Neukoelin Stettin. Breslau. Kiel. Hanover Dortmund Frankfort Duesseldorf Cologne.	1, 889, 065 255, 468 320, 331 261, 488 229, 476 522, 818 198, 697 387, 541 294, 627 431, 233 404, 188 633, 477	Marks. 648 558 707 679 574 580 634 715 784 707	Marks. 926 731 976 871 785 800 796 774 917 1,051 887 910	Marks. 823 724 878 822 778 731 813 756 780 979 905 858	124 111 112 135 111 109 110 111 117 112 119 108	141 125 120 132 725 133 127 119 129 134 130 129	136 136 133 135 137 143 143 126 125 138	130 129 119 133 135 129 142 121 122 133 139	143 131 138 128 137 138 137 122 128 134 125 132	127 136 124 121 136 122 144 119 100 124 122 123
Bavaria: Muenchen Nuernberg	620, 061 349, 175	562 547	865 647	666 710	111 109	125 114	133 124	149 137	154 118	11 13
Saxony: Dresden Leipzig Wurttemberg:	522, 264 600, 017	605 602	849 782	813 806	125 126	141 139	153 150	153 138	140 130	13 13
StuttgartBaden:	306, 514	580	715	713	114	120	132	158	123	123
Mannheim. Hessen: Darmstadt. Hamburg: Hamburg (including Har-	226, 476 81, 325	580 658	869	746 862	118	167	167 138	156 135	150	13:
burg)	982, 858	800	864	836	112	113	116	103	108	10.
RostockBraunschweig:	67, 043	624	753	703	102	121	133	122	121	11
Braunschweig	138, 261	540	843	757	120	124	133	154	156	14

Prices of prime necessities prevailing in Hamburg on December 1, 1920, were as follows:

PRICES OF PRIME NECESSITIES IN HAMBURG ON DECEMBER 1, 1920.

[1 mark at par=23.8 cents; 1 liter=1.06 quarts.]

Article.	Unit.	Price.
In limited quantities upon ration cards.		
Brown coal briquettes. Common coal. Coke Sugar Milk Flour Bread	dodoPound.Liter.Pound.do	Marks. 16. 5 18. 5 25. 1 3. 8 2. 0 5. 2 1. 2
In open market or illegal trade without cards.		
Pea Rice. Rice. Butter Buffer Bef Mutton Pork	Pound	26-3 27-3 5- 24-3 3 13-1 12-1
Veal Sausage Lard. Seans	dododo	18-2 12-1 16-3 2
eas: .entils. dargarine. farmalade.	do	3. 5 1 6-1
Terrings.	do	3-

Increase in Cost of Living in Great Britain in 1920 as Compared With 1914.

budget in Great Britain during 1920 and a comparison with 1914 are included in the January issue of the Labor Gazette, London (pp. 5 and 6). It is shown that the average increase in the cost of food in December, 1920, over July, 1914, was 182 per cent, the peak being in November when the percentage was 191. On January 1, 1920, the increase over July, 1914, was 136 per cent. It is stated that more than half of the average net advance during the year was due to the increase in the prices of flour and bread. The average price of bread was 9½d.(19.3 cents, par) per 4 pounds from January to the middle of April, 1s. ½d. to 1s. ¾d. (24.8 to 25.9 cents, par) from that date to the middle of October, 1s. 4d. (32.4 cents, par) from October to the beginning of December, and 1s. 3¾d. (31.9 cents, par) from January 1, 1921. Flour showed similar movements. Other foods showing marked increases in price were British meat, bacon, butter, and sugar.

There was considerable increase in rents during the year. The average level of working class rents rose from under 10 per cent above the prewar level at the beginning of 1920 to about 42 per cent above the prewar level at the end of the year. The prices of clothing rose steadily during the first four months of the year and did not begin to fall until during the autumn, reaching at the end of the year about the same level as at the beginning, namely, approximately 290 per

cent above the prewar average price. Coal was nearly £1 (\$4.87, par) per ton higher in December than in January, due to the general advance of 14s. 2d. (\$3.45, par) a ton which took effect in May and to other small advances. Railroad fares were advanced in August to

75 per cent above prewar rates.

Taking all items in the family budget, the general advance had in December, 1920, reached 169 per cent over July, 1914, the peak being in November, when it was 176 per cent. In January, 1920, the percentage increase over July, 1914, was 125, and in January, 1921, it was 165, representing a decrease from the preceding month.

Change in Basis of Calculating Wholesale Price Index Numbers in Great Britain.

HE British Board of Trade has announced that, beginning with 1921, calculations of wholesale price index numbers will be made upon a new basis, and that the number of commodities will be increased from 47 to 150. The proposed change is explained in the Official Journal published by the Board of Trade, for January 20 (p. 61), as follows:

We gave last week a summary of the course of the index number of wholesale prices for the whole of the period of 50 years which the calculations have covered. The method which was employed by the board of trade in calculating that series of numbers was to prepare for each of 47 commodities a series of numbers expressing the percentage of its price at the date for which the index number was required to the price of the same article in the year 1900. These percentages were multiplied by certain numbers estimated to be proportional to the importance of the articles in the business of the country and the products were added together. The aggregate thus reached, when divided by the sum of the multipliers, expressed the percentage of the average of prices at the date in question to their average level in the year 1900. In the majority of cases the figures used as prices were the average declared value of the total imports or exports of the commodity concerned into or from the United Kingdom. The multipliers were based on estimates of the value of the various commodities consumed in the United Kingdom in the 10 years 1881–1890, including as consumed commodities such articles as cotton or wool imported and worked up into goods for export.

For a number of reasons it has been decided to revise the basis of calculation, beginning with the present year. Several changes of considerable importance are being made in the nature of the material used in the compilation and also in the manner in which the different elements of the calculation are combined. The average import or export values hitherto used are to be replaced by market values. In a few special cases, as in the past, so also in the future, reliance will be placed on values furnished to the board by experts in the absence of a satisfactory published quotation of the prices of the articles concerned. A further point of importance is that, instead of multiplying the price percentages by suitable factors, the number of separate prices used will be increased, so that articles of special importance, such as wheat, coal, iron, and cotton, will be represented by several quotations. The number of quotations to be used in each case has been determined on the same general principles as the multipliers in the old number, but the results of the census of production have rendered possible a complete revision, based on the values of goods made in many cases in which the value of raw materials worked up were alone ascertainable prior to that census. The total number of series of commodity prices which it is proposed to use at present is 150, or three times the number hitherto employed. The quotations will relate in numerous instances to standard manufactured commodities, in others to raw or semimanufactured materials.

To avoid various inconveniences resulting from the use of prices based on those of a fixed year, the calculation to be made in the first place will be the percentage movement of prices over a period of one year, each month's figure showing the increase or decrease compared with the corresponding month a year earlier. This procedure will avoid the difficulties which occur when, owing to changes in business, commodities

once serving as standards of comparison are superseded by other commodities or other grades. The extension of the list of commodities, when necessary, will also be facilitated in the same way, the calculations forward from any date not being hampered by the necessity of securing comparisons with prices at a past date from which the calculations have started. The combination of the series of yearly comparisons so as to yield continuous record can be easily made. The results will not be dependent on the initial date of the series, as is generally the case when the procedure, described

above as used in the old index number, is followed.

The 150 series of quotations are to be arranged in eight groups of approximately equal importance, three for foodstuffs and five for industrial products. The foodstuffs groups comprise cereals, meat and fish, and other foods; the industrial products are grouped as iron and steel, other metals and minerals, cotton, other textiles, and miscellaneous industrial products. The separate index numbers for the eight groups will be prepared, and the aggregate index number will be the average of these eight numbers. Finally the geometric mean of the individual items is to be used in place of the more commonly employed arithmetic mean, this course being adopted for various technical reasons. It is anticipated that the new series of numbers will reflect more closely than has been the case with the older series in the recent past the movements of the wholesale markets, the special conditions of trade during and since the war having had the effect of diminishing in this respect the value of the index number as hitherto calculated.

Fixed Wholesale and Retail Prices of Men's and Boys' Clothing in Great Britain.

THE following dispatch from the American consul at Leeds, England, dated January 19, 1921, has been forwarded to this bureau by the Department of State:

The following scheme, submitted by the Wholesale Clothing Manufacturers Federation, has been approved by the Board of Trade under the profiteering (amendment) act, 1920, so far as regards the consignments of cloth which have been approved by the subcommittee of the standing committees on investigation of prices and trusts, subject to the reservation that, if at any time, in the board's opinion, there is reason to think that, owing to a fall in costs of manufacture or distribution, the average rates of profit realized on the goods are substantially in excess of those allowed under the scheme, the board may require the scheme to be modified accordingly.

For the purpose of the scheme a certain quantity of cloth has been and will be manufactured, and the scheme only applies to clothing made from this cloth and allocated for the purpose by members of the Wholesale Clothing Manufacturers Federation. The cloth will be sold to clothiers at a fixed price which has been investigated.

tigated and approved by the subcommittee.

The clothiers will make up the cloth in standard sizes and supply retailers at the prices fixed in the first column of the table. The retailers will sell the clothes to the public at the prices fixed in the second column of the table:

FIXED WHOLESALE AND RETAIL PRICES OF MEN'S AND BOYS' CLOTHING IN GREAT BRITAIN.

[1 shilling at par=24.33 cents; 1 penny=2.03 cents.]

Kind and size of suit.	Whole		Ret	
Men's suit, 34 to 42 inches (chest) Youths' suits, size 9 (31 inches, chest) Variation in price, per size Boys' rugby, size 7 (29 inches, chest). Variation in price, per size Boys' sports, size 7 (29 inches, chest) Variation in price, per size	 8. 67 56 2 50 2 52 52 2	d. 6 3 6 8 3 6 3	8. 90 75 3 67 3 70 3	d 0 0 6 6 6 0 0

In the case of men's and youths' suits the above prices are for unlined trousers. In the case of men's suits, an extra charge of 2s. 3d. [55 cents par] wholesale and 3s.

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[73 cents, par] retail is permitted for three-quarter lined trousers, and in the case of youths' suits an extra charge of 2s. 3d. wholesale and 3s. retail is permitted for full-lined trousers.

Prices of Foodstuffs and Other Commodities in Budapest, Hungary.

THE American commissioner at Budapest, Hungary, under date of January 20, 1921, forwarded to the Department of State a communication from the Director of the American Relief Administration European Children's Fund which includes the following tables taken from the Congressional Record for February 25 (p. 4083), giving prices of foodstuffs and other commodities in that city at specified dates in 1920 as compared with prices in 1914.

AVERAGE MONTHLY PRICES OF FOODSTUFFS IN BUDAPEST IN 1920 COMPARED WITH 1914.

1	brone at	nar=20.26 cents	; 1 heller=0.203 cent.	7
1.	RIOHE at	pai - 20.20 cento,	, I monor— o.zoo como.	3

						192	20.				
Article.	Unit.	July,	1914.	January.		Jul	у.	October.			
Cooking flour Beef, roast Beef, for soup, first grade. Beef, for soup, second grade. Veal, leg. Veal, shoulder Pork, leg. Pork, cutlet. Lard Milk Curds.	Kilo	2 2 1 3 2 2 2 1 1 1 1 1	Heller. 45 30 27 06 67 73 03 12 10 60 62 30 41 32 18 29 14 32 72 07	Kronen. 10 10 62 60 56 87 72 85 92 119 4 15 18 6 6 6 12 21 47 5	Heller. 52 82 00 74 55 60 23 09 77 47 20 00 99 08 37 04 96 98 80 00 11	Kronen. 10 10 90 87 74 94 72 96 117 122 7 28 15 6 4 4 6 12 46 3	Heller. 90 18 48 86 51 34 14 09 89 00 50 34 54 97 59 23 60 07	Kronen. 42 11 93 90 80 105 84 107 121 159 10 28 15 4 6 4 3 13 52 5	Heller, 00 00 88 63 57 422 466 20 777 67 00 744 228 35 90 03 00		

PRICES OF MISCELLANEOUS COMMODITIES IN BUDAPEST IN 1914 AND 1920. [1 krone at par=20.26 cents.]

Article, average grade.	August, 1914.	October, 1920.
Man's suit Man's shoes Man's shirt. Man's hat. Socks Woman's blouse. Woman's shoes. 100 kilos coal. 11 kilogram soap	Kronen. 50. 00 12. 00-16. 00 3. 50-5. 00 8. 00 5. 00 8. 00 8. 00 3. 96 3. 50 8. 00	Kronen. 5,000,0 1,300.00-1,600.0 500.0 600.0 80.0 300.0 1,200.0 200.0 200.0 88.0 200.0

Changes in Cost of Living in Netherlands.1

PPARENTLY the general cost of living in Holland is on the decrease although no material change is noted in most retail lines and in most imported articles this high level of recent years is strictly maintained. The figures of the Government statistical bureau show that prices of 49 principal commodities other than foodstuffs during 1920 averaged 325 per cent of the average cost for the 10 years from 1901 to 1910, while 31 articles of foodstuffs during the past year averaged 290 per cent of the average cost in the same period which is taken as the standard. This percentage compared favorably with all years since 1916 as appears from the following table:

PERCENTAGE INCREASE IN COST OF LIVING IN HOLLAND IN SPECIFIED YEARS AS COMPARED WITH THE PERIOD 1901-1910.

Year.	General com- modities (49 articles).	Foodstuffs (31 articles).
1901-1910	100	100
1911	116	117
1912	120	120
1913	114	112
1914	121	122
1915	170	171
1916	266	263
1917	340	313
1918	454	338
1919	349	333
1920	325	290

The course of prices during the past year has been rather variable, a considerable rise in both general commodities and foodstuffs having taken place during the first half of the year, which was much more than lost in the last half. The variations in the average prices, by months, have been as follows:

CHANGES IN COST OF LIVING, BY MONTHS, 1920. [1901-1910=100.]

Month and year.	General com- modities.	Foodstuffs.
1920.		
January	334	296
February	329	285
March	331	283
April	338	291
May	339	293
June	339	301
July	343	307
August	330	297
September	328	292
October	323	290
November	297	283
December	266	259

It is notable, perhaps, that prices of foodstuffs did not advance so far as the prices for general commodities, probably explained by the fact that Holland produces much of its own food, while the fall in the price of grain the world over had a material effect upon the course of

¹ Dispatch from the American consul general at Rotterdam, Jan. 27, 1921.

prices. In December, 1920, only tea, alcohol, mutton, and petroleum were dearer than in November; wheat fell from 256 to 207, rye from 264 to 220, barley from 263 to 231, oats from 229 to 189, rice from 470 to 402, macaroni from 228 to 197, peas from 183 to 153, linseed oil from 263 to 212, sugar from 592 to 521, pork from 320 to 287, salmon from 327 to 192, eggs from 573 to 439, cheese from 307 to 258, raw cotton from 298 to 230, flax from 385 to 288, timber from 403 to 382, horsehides from 170 to 141, cowhides from 257 to 211, coal from 616 to 515, T iron from 328 to 243, turpentine from 305 to 224, and resin from 474 to 316.

Retail Prices of Food in Bilbao, Spain.

THE following table of retail prices of food in Bilbao, Spain, in January, 1921, is taken from a dispatch sent by the American consul in that city, dated January 10. The data are taken from the Municipal Statistical Bulletin of Bilbao.

MAXIMUM AND MINIMUM RETAIL PRICES OF FOOD IN BILBAO, SPAIN, IN JANUARY, 1921.

[1 peseta at par=19.3 cents;	1 kilogram=2.2 pounds;	1 liter=1.06 quarts.]
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Article.	Unit.	Maximum price.	Minimum price.
		Pesetas.	Pesetas.
Bread, ordinary	Kilogram.	0.78	0.78
Beef, ordinary	.do	4, 30	2, 20
	.do	2, 50	2,00
Mutton, ordinary	.do	6,00	5, 00
Pork, ordinary, fresh	do	4. 80	4, 50
Lard.	Liter	2, 90	2, 60
Olive oil, low grade	Kilogram.	4, 50	4, 50
Pork, salt	do.	1,00	. 90
Sardines, salted	do	2.70	2.00
Codfish	do		1.00
Fresh fish, ordinary			
Fresh fish, good quality	do	5.00	3.00
Chickens	Each	10.00	7.00
Rice	Kilogram.		, 90
Chick peas	do	1.80	1.20
Potatoes	do		. 25
Beans	do	1.70	1.60
Eggs	Dozen	5.00	4.00
Sugar	Kilogram .	3.40	3.00
Coffee	do	7.60	7.00
Milk	Liter	. 80	. 60

Cost of Living in Egypt in 1920.

THE Ministry of Finance of Egypt has recently published the results of an investigation made to determine the increase in the cost of living in March, 1920, the date of the investigation, and prewar times, the principal results sought to be achieved being "the establishment of a system of weights for a series of index numbers of retail prices which has been appearing in the Monthly Agricultural Statistics since July." The report is based on 594 family budgets which have been roughly classified as class 1, clerks; class 2, artisans; and class 3, laborers, the last designated class, however, not representing common laborers exclusively, since it includes a large proportion of office servants. The average expenditures of class 1 were found to be L. E. 22.9 (\$113.19, par) as against average earnings of L. E. 11.9

Egypt. Ministry of Finance. Report on cost of living. Cairo, 1920. 10 pp. 10 detached tables.
 L. E.—Egyptian pound, its par value being \$4.94.

(\$58.82, par) or an excess of expenditures of about 92 per cent. For classes 2 and 3 the average expenditures were L. E. 12.2 (\$60.30, par) as against earnings of L. E. 6.2 (\$30.64, par) with an excess of expenditures of about 97 per cent. Before the war the excess of expenditures over earnings was 53 per cent for each class. Some striking facts are noted, as shown by the detailed table included in the report: (1) That there is no great difference between the standard of living of classes 2 and 3; (2) that almost invariably the total expenditures greatly exceed the total earnings; (3) that the average size of families (6.3 persons, equivalent to 5 "men") appears somewhat high when compared with the general urban population; and (4) that the expenditure on food is not proportional to the number of equivalent "men."

The following table indicates the changes in the cost of living from the prewar average to March, 1920, the actual expenditures being given and also the percentage that the expenditure for each item represents of the total budget. The price ratio shown in the first column represents the average percentage for all classes that each item in the budget was found to have increased in the period given, while the last line shows the percentage by which the cost of living was found to have increased in March, 1920, over prewar expenditures.

COST OF LIVING IN 1920 COMPARED WITH PREWAR PERIOD.

[1 piaster at par= 4.94 cents.]

			Class	s 1.	Classes 2 and 3.						
Item.	Price ratio.	Expenditure, March, 1920.	Per cent of total ex- pend- iture, 1920.	Prewar expenditure.	Per cent of total pre-war ex-pend-iture.	Expenditure, March, 1920.	Per cent of total ex- pend- iture, 1920.	Prewar expendi- ture.	Per cent of total pre- war ex- pend iture		
Food, fuel, and household sundries	2.8 1.5 1.5 2.0 2.5 1.05 2.0	Piasters. 1,385.2 166.8 20.2 110.2 397.2 60.4 121.2	61. 1 7. 4 . 9 4. 9 17. 6 2. 7 5. 4	Piasters. 494. 5 111. 2 13. 5 55. 3 158. 7 57. 5 60. 8	51.9 11.7 1.4 5.8 16.7 6.1 6.4	Piasters. 891. 8 67. 2 5. 2 62. 7 140. 1 18. 1 34. 4	73, 2 5, 5 4 5, 1 11, 5 1, 5 2, 8	Piasters. 318. 2 44. 8 3. 5 31. 2 56. 3 18. 0 17. 3	65. (9. 2 6. 4 11. 5 3. 7 3. 8		
Total		2, 261. 2	100.0	951. 5	100.0	1,219.5	100.0	489.3	100.0		
Per cent of increase in cost of living			138				149				

WAGES AND HOURS OF LABOR.

Average Union Scale of Wage Rates per Hour and per Week May, 1913 to 1920.

THE union scale of wages per hour and of hours per week from 1913 to 1920 is given by cities for many of the organized trades

in the Monthly Labor Review of October, 1920.

The March Review contains a table of index numbers for rates per hour and per week and for hours per week, 1907 to 1920, for all trades and localities combined; also a table showing for each trade the per cent of increase in the average rate per week in 1920 over the average rate in each year back to 1907. A table is now given showing by occupations the average money rates per hour and per full-time week back to 1913 for the country as a whole so far as data are revisible.

The annual bulletins on union wage scales give rates by cities for each subdivision there may be within the trade, but in the average in this table all subdivisions are combined. For example, bakers are classed in some cities as first hands, second hands, and third hands, each subdivision having a different rate; in other cities the classification is by bench hands, oven men, mixers, etc., at different rates. Because of the varying terminology the only "common denominator" is the general trade term "bakers." The average in this table includes all subdivisions of bakers taken collectively. The same conditions exist as to freight handlers, machinists, pressmen, and several other trades.

A comparison of the average rates for different trades in this table must be made with caution. To illustrate, the average rate of carpenters in 1920 in all cities reported is \$1.034 and for fresco painters in the comparatively small number of cities reporting, \$1.115. This shows a difference of \$0.081 in favor of fresco painters. However, a computation of the average rate for carpenters in the small number of cities that reported a rate for fresco painters shows that carpenters

in those identical cities had an average rate of \$1.062.

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Occupation.			Av	erage rat	es per ho	our.					Ave	Average rates per week.							
		1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920			
Bakery.																			
Bakers	\$0.312	\$0.318	\$0.321	\$0.334	\$0.365	\$0,443	\$0.580	\$0.823	\$16.64	\$16.97	\$17.14	\$17.47	\$18.97	\$22.63	\$28.29	\$38.			
Building trades.																			
Bricklayers	. 686	. 699	. 706	.713	.734	. 789	. 878	1.200	30.57	31.18	31, 18	31.48	32, 40	34. 85	38, 82	52.			
ricklavers—sewer, tunnel, and caisson	. 960	. 960	. 960	. 960	. 989	1.065	1.085	1.459	42, 25	42. 25	42. 25	42. 25	43. 52	46. 90	47.74	64.			
uilding laborers	. 309	. 312	.312	. 327	. 361	. 423	. 482	. 698	14. 88	15.03	14.88	15. 48	16.67	19.35	21.58	30.			
arpentersarpenters, parquetry-floor layers	. 530	. 541	. 546	. 562	. 610	. 668	.774	1.034	23.63	24.10	24. 34	25. 05	27.17	29. 54	34. 03	45.			
arpenters, parquetry-floor layersement finishers	. 568	. 603	* 608	.614	- 659	. 739	- 847	1. 245	26. 36	27. 94	28. 21	28. 47	30. 58	32.69	37. 43	54			
ement finishersement finishers' helpers	. 552	. 557	. 563	.568	.602	662	.745	1.010	25, 36 15, 98	25, 36 15, 98	25. 61 16, 14	25. 61 16. 14	26. 88 16. 94	29. 67 19. 66	32. 97 22. 37	35.			
ement finishers' laborers	.418	.418	. 418	.431	. 460	. 535	.606	.907	18, 57	18. 57	18. 57	19: 12	20, 24	23. 77	26. 74	39.			
Engineers, portable and hoisting.	. 586	. 592	. 598	. 604	. 633	.727	.797	1.032	27, 33	27, 60	27. 60	27, 60	28, 97	32. 80	35. 53	45.			
lod carriers	. 356	. 359	. 363	.373	. 416	. 487	. 569	. 825	15, 73	15, 88	16.04	16, 51	18. 40	21.39	25. 01	36.			
nside wiremen	. 547	. 564	. 575	. 586	. 624	. 695	.799	1.051	24. 83	25. 57	25. 82	26. 32	27. 81	30.79	35. 01	46.			
iside wiremen, fixture hangers	. 491	. 521	. 521	. 540	. 580	. 634	.707	. 953	22.50	23.63	23.63	24.08	25. 65	28. 13	31, 28	41.			
athers	. 485	. 494	. 499	.514	. 533	. 577	- 640	. 916	21.71	22. 14	22, 36	22. 79	23. 66	25. 40	28. 22	40.			
farble setters	. 665	. 672	. 678	.678	. 685	.718	.798	1.051	29. 45 17. 73	29. 74 17. 73	30. 03 17. 73	30. 03 17. 73	30. 03 18. 97	31. 51 19. 86	35. 04 22. 70	46. 38.			
larble setters' helpers. ainters	. 505	. 520	. 526	.571	. 591	.652	.763	1.041	22, 56	23, 24	23, 46	25. 27	26. 17	28.65	33, 62	44.			
ainters, fresco	. 544	. 566	. 566	.636	.642	.664	-778	1.115	23. 97	24, 93	24, 93	27, 56	27. 80	28. 76	33. 80	45.			
ainters, sign	. 629	. 629	. 629	.648	. 674	. 736	. 888	1.196	28. 04	28. 04	28, 04	28. 60	29. 73	32, 53	38. 98	52.			
lasterers	. 674	. 680	. 680	. 707	. 728	. 761	. 883	1.152	30.04	30. 04	30.04	30. 94	31. 84	33. 34	38. 45	50.			
lasterers' laborers	. 409	. 417	. 417	. 429	. 458	. 528	.601	. 871	18.13	18. 50	18, 50	18. 86	20.13	23. 21	26. 47	38.			
lumbers and gas fitters	. 619	. 625	. 631	. 637	. 662	. 724	. 823	1.064	27. 73	28. 01	28. 28	28. 28	29. 11	32. 16	36. 32	46.			
heet-metal workers	. 512	. 532	. 538	. 548	. 573	.671	. 737	. 988	23. 36 27. 10	24. 29	24, 53 27, 92	24. 76	25. 93	30. 13	32. 94	44.			
team fitters	. 598	.610	. 328	.634	. 353	. 409	. 490	.709	13. 92	27. 37 14. 20	14, 48	28. 46 14. 75	29. 54 15. 59	31. 98 17. 82	35. 78 21. 44	47. 31.			
team fitters' helpers	.610	.628	. 634	. 646	. 671	.731	. 823	1.146	27. 17	27. 98	28, 25	28, 52	29, 61	32.60	36, 13	50.			
tructural-iron workers	.617	.629	. 629	,641	.678	.777	. 882	1.104	27, 45	28. 00	28, 00	28, 28	29, 92	34. 31	38. 71	48.			
tructural-iron workers, finishers	. 594	.606	. 606	.618	. 647	.730	. 814	1.069	25. 98	26, 50	26, 50	27. 02	28. 06	31, 70	35. 60	47.			
tructural-iron workers, finishers' helpers	. 405	.409	. 409	. 409	. 445	. 498	. 599	. 826	18.17	18.35	18.35	18.35	19.62	21.99	26. 53	36.			
ilelayers	. 652	. 658	. 658	. 671	. 704	. 723	. 788	1.062	29. 32	29.61	29.61	29.91	31.08	31.96	34. 89	46.			
ile layers' helpers	. 359	. 362	. 373	. 387	. 398	. 409	.498	. 814	16. 15	16.31	16.63	17.12	17. 44	18.09	21.64	35.			
Chauffeurs, teamsters, and drivers.																			
hauffeurs	. 261	. 264	. 266	. 277	. 295	. 342	. 425	. 522	16.92	17.09	17.09	17.60	18.45	20.82	24.71	29.			

				Av	erage rat	es per h	our.					Ave	rage rat	es per we	ek.		
	Occupation.	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919	1920
,	Freight handling.																
*	Freight handlers	\$0.332	\$0.342	\$0.342	\$0.385	\$0.395	\$0.494	\$0.640	10.773	\$19.54	\$20.13	\$20, 13	\$22.87	\$23. 26	\$27.17	\$29.12	\$34. 79
	Granite and stone trades.																
6	Granite cutters	. 513 . 570	. 518	.518	. 539	. 559	. 667 . 673	. 790 . 798	. 970 1. 043	22. 57 25. 40	22. 57 26. 42	22. 80 26. 67	23.70 26.67	24. 60 27. 94	29. 34 29. 72	44. 53 35. 06	42. 66 45. 98
	Metal trades.																
]	Slacksmiths Slacksmiths' helpers Soiler makers. Soiler makers' helpers	. 426 . 276 . 441 . 297	. 435 . 279 . 441 . 300	. 435 . 287 . 445 . 300	. 452 . 301 . 467 . 321	. 486 . 337 . 503 . 339	. 694 . 492 . 679 . 467	. 758 . 550 . 758 . 532	. 899 . 663 . 829 . 583	21.72 13.98 21.83 14.57	22. 15 14. 12 21. 83 14. 57	22. 15 14. 54 21. 83 14. 72	22. 81 14. 96 22. 49 15. 30	24. 33 16. 64 24. 24 16. 17	33. 23 23. 49 31. 88 21. 86	35. 40 25. 45 34. 72 24. 33	41. 92 30. 76 38. 21 26. 81
1	Oremakers. Aachinists Aachinists' helpers Aetal polishers and buffers Adolders, iron Pattern makers, wood	. 395 . 391 . 274 . 372 . 388 . 471	. 399 . 399 . 274 . 372 . 392 . 475	. 403 . 399 . 274 . 376 . 392 . 475	. 430 . 454 . 293 . 402 . 426 . 508	. 486 . 497 . 323 . 446 . 481	. 620 . 654 . 411 . 554 . 609 . 767	. 699 . 724 . 460 . 662 . 698 . 904	. 924 . 818 . 575 . 915 . 911 1. 144	20. 90 19. 48 14. 18 19. 39 20. 76 23. 67	21. 11 19. 68 14. 18 19. 39 20. 97 23. 67	21. 31 19. 87 14. 18 19. 58 20. 97 23. 67	22. 57 21. 82 15. 17 20. 36 22. 21 25. 33	25. 28 23. 96 16. 59 22. 49 24. 91 28. 17	32. 18 30. 98 20. 70 27. 73 31. 14 36. 92	34. 69 33. 90 22. 55 31. 99 34. 26 42. 13	44. 30 37. 99 28. 36 43. 43 52. 55
	Millwork.		. 110		. 000	.001	. 101	. 501	1.111	20.01	20.01	20.01	20.00	20, 11	00.02	22.10	02.00
(Carpenters	. 395	. 403 . 437	. 407 . 450	. 423 . 508	. 455 . 516	. 506 . 545	. 601 . 666	. 866 . 995	19. 69 19. 31	19. 29 20. 09	19. 49 20. 86	20. 08 23. 37	21. 06 23. 56	23. 23 24. 91	27. 17 30. 13	38. 78 41. 33
	Printing and publishing, book and job.																
(3 ookbinders Sompositors Electrotypers:	. 403 . 447	. 412 . 461	. 412 . 461	. 412 . 469	. 436 . 478	. 492 . 532	. 625 . 648	. 823 . 854	19. 37 21. 42	19.76 22.07	19. 76 22. 07	19. 76 22. 50	20. 92 22. 92	23. 43 25. 49	30. 02 31. 06	39. 51 40. 92
	Batterymen and builders	. 385 . 515 . 514	. 404 . 536 . 519	. 415 . 546 . 519	. 427 . 561 . 525	. 446 . 577 . 535	. 485 . 603 . 581	. 562 . 685 . 705	. 850 . 963 . 900	19. 69 24. 18 24. 55	20. 68 25. 14 24. 79	21. 27 25. 63 24. 79	21. 86 26. 35 25. 04	22. 65 27. 08 25. 53	24. 62 28. 29 27. 74	28.75 32.15 33.63	43. 72 45. 21 42. 96
I	Aachine operators. Aachinis tenders (machinists). Aachinist operators. Press assistants and feeders. Pressmen, cylinder Pressmen, platen	. 542 . 593 . 213 . 372 . 328	.542 .599 .219 .379	. 548 . 599 . 219 . 379 . 334	. 548 . 599 . 221 . 387 . 341	.559 .610 .234 .394 .357	.613 .634 .274 .435 .393	. 754 . 723 . 353 . 528 . 485	. 949 . 895 . 485 . 688 . 655	26. 01 27. 58 10. 26 17. 95 15. 70	26. 01 27. 85 10. 57 18. 30 16. 01	26. 27 27. 85 10. 57 18. 30 16. 01	26. 53 28. 13 10. 67 18. 66 16. 32	27. 05 28. 68 11. 29 19. 02 17. 11	29. 65 29. 79 13. 24 21. 00 18. 83	36. 42 33. 92 17. 04 25. 48 23. 23	45. 52 41. 92 23. 30 33. 02 31. 39

Printing and publishing: Newspaper.	-		1	1												
Compositors, daywork. Compositors, night work. Machine operators, night work Machine operators, night work Machine tenders, machinists, daywork. Machine tenders, machinists, night work Machinist operators, daywork. Machinist operators, night work. Machinist operators, night work. Pressmen, web presses, daywork. Pressmen, web presses, night work Stereotypers, daywork. Stereotypers, night work	. 563 . 646 . 560 . 640 . 587 . 681 . 605 . 687 . 480 . 583 . 519 . 605	. 569 . 652 . 566 . 646 . 593 . 681 . 605 . 687 . 485 . 589 . 525 . 611	. 575 . 652 . 572 . 652 . 593 . 687 . 605 . 687 . 485 . 589 . 525 . 611	. 575 . 658 . 577 . 652 . 593 . 687 . 617 . 489 . 595 . 530 . 617	. 592 .671 .594 .671 .605 .694 .629 .715 .499 .601 .545 .636	.620 .697 .617 .691 .634 .728 .641 .721 .542 .647 .566 .660	. 744 . 846 . 751 . 844 . 810 . 919 . 677 . 797 . 657 . 810 . 639 . 745	. 907 1. 020 . 936 1. 036 1. 010 1. 123 . 744 . 955 . 811 . 997 . 779 . 914	25. 86 29. 12 25. 53 28. 54 26. 88 30. 85 28. 37 30. 50 22. 52 23. 78 25. 03 25. 72	26, 12 29, 41 25, 79 28, 83 26, 88 30, 85 28, 37 30, 50 22, 75 24, 02 25, 28 25, 98	26. 12 29. 41 26. 04 28. 83 27. 15 31. 16 28. 37 30. 50 22. 75 24. 02 25. 28 25. 98	26, 38 29, 41 26, 04 28, 83 27, 15 31, 16 28, 93 30, 50 22, 97 24, 26 25, 53 26, 24	27. 16 30. 29 26. 81 29. 68 27. 42 31. 47 29. 50 31. 42 23. 42 24. 49 26. 28 26. 75	28. 45 31. 45 27. 83 30. 83 29. 03 33. 01 30. 07 32. 64 25. 45 26. 40 27. 28 28. 04	33. 88 37. 86 33. 96 37. 68 37. 10 41. 65 31. 77 35. 99 30. 86 32. 82 30. 78 31. 38	41. 64 46. 01 42. 38 46, 24 45. 97 50. 91 34. 89 43. 31 38. 29 40. 19 37. 29 38. 33

Union Scale of Wage Rates per Hour and Hours per Week of Carpenters, Dec. 31, 1920.

THE following table shows the union wage rates per hour and hours per week for carpenters in the building trades on December 31, 1920, for certain representative cities of the United States. Carpenters working as mill-workers are not included. The information was furnished by the secretaries of carpenters' district councils and of local carpenters' unions in response to an inquiry sent out from this bureau. Space is not available to publish the figures for all of the cities from which information was received.

UNION SCALE OF WAGE RATES PER HOUR AND HOURS PER WEEK OF CARPENTERS, DEC. 31, 1920.

City and State.	Rate per hour.	Hours per week.	City and State.	Rate per hour.	Hours per week.	City and State.	Rate per hour.	per
Albany, N. Y	\$1.00	44	Galveston, Tex	\$1.00	44	OklahomaCity,Okla	\$1.00	44
Albuquerque, N. M.	1.00	44	Grand Rapids, Mich.		44	Omaha, Nebr	1.121	
Atlanta, Ga	.80	44	Great Falls, Mont	1.00	44	Paducah, Ky	. 871	
tlantic City, N.J	1.00	44	Hagerstown, Md	. 80	44	Peoria, Ill	1,00	44
Augusta, Me	.80	48	Hartford, Conn	1.00	44	Philadelphia, Pa	1. 121	
Bakersfield, Calif	1, 121	44	Helena, Mont	1.00	44	Phoenix, Ariz	1.00	44
Baltimore, Md	.90	44	Holyoke, Mass	, 95	44	Pittsburgh, Pa	1.25	44
Baton Rouge, La	.90	48	Hot Springs, Ark	1.00	44	Portland, Me	1.00	44
Binghamton, N. Y	1.00	44	Houston, Tex	1.061	44	Portland, Oreg	1.00	44
Birmingham, Ala	. 873	44	Idaho Falls, Idaho	1.00	48	Portsmouth, N. H	1.00	44
Bismark, N. Dak	1.00	54	Indianapolis, Ind	1.00	441	Raleigh, N. C	. 80	48
Bloomington, Ind	.75	48	Jackson, Miss	.90	54	Reno, Nev	1.00	4
Boise, Idaho	.873		Jersey City, N. J	1, 124		Richmond, Va	. 80	47
Boston, Mass	1.00	40	Kansas City, Kans	1.00	44	Rochester, N. Y	1.00	4
Bridgeport, Conn	1.00	44	Kansas City, Mo	1.00	44	Rutland, Vt	. 87	
Brunswick, Ga	.70	44	La Favette, Ind	.90	44	Saginaw, Mich	1.00	4
Buffalo, N. Y	1.00	14	La Junta, Colo	.87	44	St. Louis, Mo	1.25	4
	, 871		Laramie Wyo	1.00	48	St. Paul, Minn	1.00	4
Burlington, Vt Butte, Mont	1, 12		Laramie, Wyo Lincoln, Nebr	1.00	44	Salem, Oreg	. 93	
Cedar Rapids, Iowa.	1, 00	48	Los Angeles, Calif	1.00	44	Salt Lake City, Utah	1.12	
Charleston, S. C	. 80	44	Louisville, Ky	.80	44	San Francisco, Calif		
Chattanooga, Tenn.		44	Lowell, Mass	1,00	44	Seattle, Wash	. 1.00	4
Chevenne, Wyo	1.00	44	Macon, Ga	. 85	44	Shreveport, La	. 1.00	4
Chicago, Ill	1. 25	44	Manchester, N. H.	1.00	44	Spokane, Wash	1.00	4
Chico, Calif	1.00	48	Marion, Ohio	.75	54	Springfield, Mass	. 95	4
Cincinnati, Ohio	1.00	441	Memphis, Tenn	1.00	44	Stockton, Calif	1.00	4
Cleveland, Ohio	1. 25	44	Milwaukee, Wis	1.00	44	Syracuse, N. Y	1.00	4
Columbia, S. C	. 873		Minneapolis, Minn.	1.00	44	Tacoma, Wash	. 1.00	
Dallas, Tex	1.00	44	Missoula, Mont	1.00	48	Tampa, Fla	1.00	4
Davenport, Iowa		44	Mobile, Ala	. 80	48	Taunton, Mass	1.00	
Dayton, Ohio	1.00	44	Montgomery, Ala	. 75	48	Terre Haute, Ind	. 90	4
Denver, Colo	1. 127		Moorhead, Minn	. 90	48	Toledo, Ohio	. 90	
Des Moines, Iowa	1.00	44	Muskegon, Mich	1.00	44	Tonopah, Nev	. 1.00	
Detroit, Mich	1.00	44	Nashville, Tenn	. 80	44	Tueson, Ariz	. 1.12	
Dubuque, Iowa	.90	44	Newark, N. J	1.00	44	Tulsa, Okla	. 1.25	
Duluth, Minn	1.00	44	New Haven, Conn.	1.00	44	Vicksburg, Miss	85	
Elmira, N. Y	, 90	44	Newport, R. I	1.00	44	Washington, D. C	. 1.05	
Eureka, Calif	1.00	44	Newport News, Va			Wheeling, W. Va	1.00	
Fall River, Mass	1.00	44	Newton, Mass	1,00		Wilkes-Barre, Pa	85	
Fort Smith, Ark	1.00	44	New York, N. Y	1, 12		Winona, Minn	80	4
Fresno, Calif	1.18		Ogden, Utah	1.00		Worcester, Mass	1.00	

Extent of Industrial Home Work and Earnings of Home Workers in Milwaukee in 1920.1

THE Wisconsin law regulating industrial home work prohibits such work unless a license is obtained and then specifies the articles on which home work may be done. The industrial commission is in charge of the administration of the law, and licenses are issued after inspection to determine whether the sanitary con-

¹ From typewritten report furnished this bureau by the Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, Madison.

ditions under which the work is to be done are satisfactory. In Milwaukee, which is the only city in the State in which industrial home work prevails to any extent, the administration of the law has been delegated to the board of health, and from its records the data contained in the following summary have been obtained.

It appears that on July 1, 1920, the number of home workers was 2,907, all females with one or two exceptions. The largest proportion of these workers, 2,514, or 86.5 per cent, were connected with the textile industries, and of this number 1,722, or 59.3 per cent, were workers on hand and machine knit goods. About 10 per cent were employed by the paper-goods industry and nearly 3 per cent by the leather-goods manufacturers. About 86 per cent of the 1,187 females for whom data as to marital condition were obtained were married. Of 142 assistants to home workers 51 per cent were under 16 years of age; in the textile industry 42 per cent were under 16. As might be expected, the average hours worked per day by home workers was small, 60 per cent working less than 100 hours a month, or about 4 hours a day. Even this, however, is considerable time to put in, when it is remembered that most of the workers are married women and have their regular household duties to perform.

Income of Home Workers.

THE report includes tables showing the total monthly incomes of families in which home work is done and of individuals doing home work, and also the estimated hourly and monthly earnings of home workers. It appears that 56 per cent of 507 families reported incomes of over \$100 a month. Of 1,001 home workers who reported on sources of income, 799 received the wages of their husbands, the average amount being \$96.92. Only 22 persons were reported as recipients of charity, the average amount received being \$37.23. The following tables show, respectively, the estimated hourly and monthly earnings of about 600 home workers. It should be remarked that these figures are only an approximation and are probably lower than the true amounts because of the disinclination on the part of home workers to divulge information regarding family finance.

NUMBER OF HOME WORKERS IN MILWAUKEE EARNING EACH SPECIFIED AMOUNT PER HOUR BY INDUSTRY.

Industry.	Under 10 cents.			o 20 nts.	20 to cent		Ove		
industry.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Total.
Textiles: Hand and machine knit goods Men's clothing. Women's clothing Other	82 18 1 1	23 11 25 5	189 86 14	54 51 67	66 47 2 5	19 28 50 24	16 17 1 1	5 10 25 5	353 168 4 21
Total Paper goods. Leather goods.	102 6 2	19 18 9	289 17 10	53 50 43	120 6 10	22 18 43	35 5 1	6 15 4	546 34 23
Grand total	110	18	326	54	136	23	41	7	• 603

NUMBER OF HOME WORKERS IN MILWAUKEE EARNING EACH SPECIFIED AMOUNT PER MONTH, BY INDUSTRY.

	Under \$10.		\$10 to \$20.		\$20 to \$30.		\$30 to \$40.		Over		
Industry.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Num- ber.	Per cent.	Total
Textiles: Hand and machine knit goods. Men's clothing. Women's clothing Other.	88 27 6	24 17 30	183 58 2 10	51 36 66 50	70 36 1 2	19 22 33 10	11 16	3 10	8 25 2	2 15 10	360 165 20
Total	121 7 5	22 18 23	253 21 9	46 54 41	109 7 4	20 18 18	27 2 2	5 5 9	35 2 2	7 5 9	54: 3: 2:
Grand total	133	22	283	47	120	20	31	5	39	6	60

Wages in Tampico, Mexico.

A REPORT on industrial conditions in Tampico, Mexico, published in an official bulletin which has just been received at this office, contains the following data on wages paid in that city, presumably in the latter part of 1919, though the exact time is not given.

DAILY WAGES IN TAMPICO, MEXICO.

[1 peso at par=49.9 cents.]

Occupation.	Daily wage.	Occupation.	Daily wage.
Calkers Carpenters, journeymen Coppersmiths Electricians, experienced journeymen Firemen at terminals. Gardeners Grocers' assistants. Iron workers Laborers Machinists Maid servants Masons	Pesos. 10.00 8.50 7.50 6.00 5.50 2.50 3.50 6.50 2.50 4.00 1.50 5.00 8.00	Masons, helpers	Pesos. 3. 0 2. 0 6. 0 6. 0 5. 5 0 6. 0 3. 5 5. 0 6. 0 3. 0 6. 0 4. 0

a Per month.

Recommendations for Cost-of-Living Bonus for British Government Employees.

A SPECIAL committee appointed in October, 1919, by the National Council for the administrative and legal departments of the British civil service, to consider the increase in the cost of living and its effect upon the salaries of civil servants, whether permanent or temporary, submitted its report in May, 1920, a copy of which has just come to hand.²

The inquiry was confined to permanent civil service employees who were at the time of the report in receipt of a bonus as conferred by

Mexico. Boletín de Industria, Comercio y Trabajo. Enero a marzo de 1920. Mexico, 1920.
 Great Britain. Civil Service National Whitley Council. Cost of living committee. Report. London, 1921. 5 pp. Cmd. 1107.

Civil Service Arbitration Board award No. 101, and whose salaries (on a prewar basis) did not exceed £500 (\$2,433.25, par) per annum. Under the award mentioned it was provided that "(1) the percentage rates of bonus payable to persons of 16 years of age and upwards should be increased to 30 per cent of their 'ordinary remuneration,' (2) the flat rates of bonus should continue unchanged, and (3) the maximum total rate of bonus should be increased to £500 [\$2,433.25, par] a year for men and £300 [\$1,459.95, par] a year for women." Some considerations affecting the decision of the committee are noted briefly, following which a bonus scheme is recommended based on a cost of living index of 130 as shown in the Labor Gazette as the increase in cost of living on February 1 and March 1, 1920, over July, 1914. The essential details of the committee's recommendations are as follows:

Where the ordinary rate of remuneration does not exceed 35s. [\$8.52, par] a week

(£91 5s. [\$444.07, par] per annum), 130 per cent of ordinary remuneration.

Where the ordinary rate of remuneration exceeds 35s. a week (£91 5s. per annum) but does not exceed £200 [\$973.30, par] per annum, 130 per cent on the first 35s. a week (£91 5s. per annum); 60 per cent on such amount of ordinary remuneration as is in excess of 35s. a week (£91 5s. per annum).

Where the ordinary rate of remuneration exceeds £200 per annum, 130 per cent on the first 35s. a week (£91 5s. per annum); 60 per cent on the next £108 15s. [\$529.23, par] per annum; 45 per cent on such amount of ordinary remuneration as is in excess of £200 per annum, up to £500 [\$2,433.25, par] per annum.

The bonus to be subject to revision every four months during the first 12 months (i. e., on July 1, 1920, November 1, 1920, and March 1, 1921) and thereafter every

6 months.

For the purpose of these revisions the standard cost of living figure to be arrived at by taking the average of the official figures for the preceding four months (or for the preceding six months in the case of revisions subsequent to that of March, 1921), e.g., the revision on July 1, 1920, to be based on the average of the official cost of living figures at March 1, April 1, May 1, and June 1, respectively.

It is further recommended that the bonus shall be applied as from March 1, 1920, irrespective of age or sex to all permanent full-time officers and employees of the Government and certain part-time employees engaged on manual work. Provision is also made that the bonus shall be increased or decreased by 1/26 (that is, 5/130) for each five full points by which the average cost of living figure rises above or falls below 130.

Wages in Budapest, Hungary, January, 1921.

THE Director of the American Relief Administration European Children's Fund at Budapest, Hungary, has compiled the following table of wages paid to skilled and unskilled workers in that city in January, 1921, the data being transmitted to the Department of State by the American commissioner:

WEEKLY WAGES OF SKILLED AND UNSKILLED LABOR IN BUDAPEST IN JANUARY, 1921.

 $\hbox{[1 crown at par=20.26 cents.}\quad \hbox{Exchange value, January, 1921: 1 crown=\$0.00175.]}$

Occupation.	Weekly wages.
Carpenters. Printers Bookbinders Women's tailors, men Iron and metal workers Men's tailors. Woodworkers Furriers Leather workers Shoemakers	Crowns. 540 445 425 750 430 540 500 800 400 650 700 800
Printers¹ Bookbinders¹ Women's tailors¹ Shoemakers¹ UNSKILLED.	241 288 330–500 400–500
Printer's apprentices ¹ Male factory workers Female factory workers Brick workers Brick workers ¹	279 300 250 270 90
OFFICE CLERKS.	
Average yearly income of 5,700 employees of the city administration Average yearly income of 6,900 city teachers	12,000 13,000

¹ Women workers.

It is stated that the wages given in the table are from 15 to 20 times

the wages paid in 1914.

The following table of wages was prepared by the labor insurance office, which carries policies of 230,000 workmen, and was transmitted to the Department of State by the American commissioner at Budapest, who states that at the time the compilation was made (Jan. 20, 1921) the exchange value of the crown was about 570 crowns to the dollar, or 1 krone = \$0.00175.

WAGES IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS IN HUNGARY IN JANUARY, 1921.

Occupation.	Period.	Wages.
Metalindustry:		Crowns.
Workmen	Day	105
Apprentices		10-32
Bakers		700
Bricklavers		500
Cabinetmakers		120
Locksmiths		72
Mechanics		13. 2
Mechanics, expert		72
Mechanical engineers		800
Metal industry:	11 OCK	000
Workmen	Day	105
Apprentices	do	10-32
Millworkers	Hour	0
Divintora	Week	500
PrintersShoemakers		750-1, 000
		760-900
Tailors		720
Upholsterers	ao	
Waiters	do	180

The Christian Socialist trades-unions supplied the American commissioner with the following figures, also representing wage rates in force in January, 1921:

WAGES IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS IN HUNGARY IN JANUARY, 1921.

Occupation.	Period.	Wages.
Bookbinders. Cabinetmakers Ditch diggers Dressmakers Farm hands. Leather workers Meat industry workers. Metal workers. Office employees Tailors Textile workers Tobacco workers Inexperienced laborers Inexperienced female laborers Apprentices.	Week Hour Day Hour Day, Hour Week Hour Month Hour Day Week Hour do	Crowns. 350 to 450. 10.50 to 14.50. 30 to 70. 3.35 to 10.31. 30 to 70. 14 to 16.60. 450 to 700. 14 to 15.20. 800 to 1,200. 10.31 to 14.50. 30 to 60. 180 to 350. 7.50 to 10.80. 4.80 to 6.20. 3.10 to 3.70.

Wage Scales in Specified Occupations in South Australia.

TWO awards each, announced by the Minister of Industry and by the industrial court of South Australia, affecting the workers in specified occupations in four branches of industry have recently been received. The first two awards affect those engaged in the "process, trade, business, occupation, or calling of agricultural machinery and implement makers," and those engaged as pattern-makers, fitters, turners, and machinists. The other two awards pertain to members of the Printing Industry Employees' Union of Australia (South Australian branch) and to members of the Masters, Mates, and Engineers' Association of South Australia engaged in the operation of vessels on all rivers and lakes in the State. Those portions of the awards relating to wages and hours are given in the tables which follow:

DAILY RATES OF WAGES OF AGRICULTURAL MACHINERY AND IMPLEMENT MAKERS. [1 shilling at par = 24.33 cents; 1 penny = 2.03 cents.]

Occupation.	Rate pe	r day
0	8.	d.
Carpenters	15	0
Assemblers.	13	6
DIACKSITIERS	1 =	0
Comb makers.	1.5	0
Driu men	12	6
Lugine drivers	1.4	0
rettlers	12	8
ricters	15	0
		4
Iron benders	14	0
Laborers	10	0
Machinists	15	0
Molders	15	10
Molding machine workers.	15	6
Painters (doing scroll work and line work)	16	2
Painters (brush hands)	15	0
Painters (brush hands)	13	6
Sheet-iron workers.	15	0
Storemen	12	0
Strikers	13	6
Troney drivers	13	6
I di nels.	15	0
Wheelwrights	15	0
Wood machinists (who do not grind and (or) set up)	14	0
wood machinists (who do grind and (or) set up)	15	0
Wireworkers	13	6
Bulldozer operators	14	6
Drop hammer workers	14	0

The above rates are based on a 48-hour week. For time in excess of 48 hours the rates are time and one-quarter up to 10 p. m. and time and one-half from 10 p. m. to starting time. On Sundays and holidays the rate is time and three-quarters.

WEEKLY WAGES OF PATTERNMAKERS, FITTERS, TURNERS, AND MACHINISTS.

[£1 at par=\$4.87; 1 shilling at par=24.33 cents.]

Occupation.	Rate	
Patternmakers.	£	8.
Fittors (including fittors in motor trade)	5	2
Turners (including turners in motor trade)	5	2
Borers	4	16
Slotters	4	13
Planers (ordinary)	4	13
Planers (doing plate edge work)	4	1
Change	4	13
Millers (universal). Millers (other than universal).	5	6
Millers (other than universal)	4	17
Drillers	4	4
Screwers	4	- 4
Lappers	4	1
Grinders (universal).	4	1

It is provided that continuous night work aggregating 48 hours in one week shall be paid at the rate of 3d. (6.1 cents, par) per hour in addition to the above rates.

The award affecting workers in the printing industry applies within the State of South Australia except the "municipal area" as defined by the factories act, 1907, and is to continue in force until May 12, 1922.

RATES OF PAY AND HOURS OF LABOR IN THE PRINTING INDUSTRY.

[£1 at par=\$4.87; 1 shilling=24.33 cents; 1 penny=2.03 cents.]

where all work is done be- tween 8 a. m. and			on day preceding publication is done between 8 a. m. and 10 p. m.;			on day preceding		In offices where work is done between 7 p. m. and 8 a. m.; per week of 42 hours.			
£	s. 7	d. 6	£	s. 10	d. 0	£	s. 12	d. 6	£	s. 17	d. 6
4 3	2 18	6	4	5	0	4	7 3	6	4	10 7	6
	wh w do t sa. 6 pe of 4	where work done k twee 8 a. m. a 6 p. m per we of 43 ho	where all work is done between 8 a. m. and 6 p. m.; per week of 43 hours.	In offices where all work is done between 8 a. m. and 6 p. m.; per week of 43 hours. £ s. d. £ 4 7 6 4 4 2 6 4	In offices where all work is done between 8a.m. and 6p.m.; per week of 43 hours. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. 4 7 6 4 10	In offices where all work is done between 8a.m. and 6p.m.; so for 43 hours. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. d. 4 7 6 4 10 0	In offices where all work is done between 8a. m. and 6 p. m.; of 43 hours. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ 4 7 6 4 10 0 4	In offices where all work is done between 8a.m. and 6 p.m.; per week of 43 hours. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. 4 7 6 4 10 0 4 12	In offices where all work is done between 8 a. m. and 6 p. m.; per week of 43 hours. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. d. £ s. d. 4 7 6 4 10 0 4 12 6	In offices where all work is done between 8a. m. and 6 p. m.; of 43 hours. £ s. d.	In offices where all work is done between 8a.m. and 6 p.m.; per week of 43 hours. £ s. d. 4 7 6 4 10 0 4 12 6 4 10

¹ Per week of 48 hours. ² Per week of 46 hours.

The next table shows rates of pay of masters, mates, and engineers operating vessels on rivers and lakes. This award runs until November 30, 1921, and, in addition to rates provided, each employee is entitled to meals and proper accommodations. The hours of duty are six while the vessel is running. Employees called upon to work

³ Per week of 44 hours.

outside of the regular six-hour watches shall be paid at the rate of time and one-quarter. When called upon to work on shore a day's work shall be from 7.30 a. m. to 5.15 p. m. from Monday to Friday, and from 7.30 to 11.45 on Saturday. For work done ashore the minimum daily rate of pay shall be 13s. 6d. (\$3.28 par).

MONTHLY RATES OF PAY OF MASTERS, MATES, AND ENGINEERS ON RIVER AND LAKE VESSELS.

[£1 at par=\$4.87.]

Occupation,	Rate per month.
Masters of passenger boats. Masters of hawking boats. Engineers of passenger boats. Engineers of hawking boats. Masters of cargo boats. Engineers of cargo boats. Mates of passenger boats. Mates (if certificated) of hawking boats. Mates (if certificated) of cargo boats.	21 21 21 20 20 17

Wages in Bilbao, Spain.

UNDER date of January 10, 1921, the American consul at Bilbao, Spain, sent the following table showing average maximum and minimum wage rates in specified occupations in that city. The table is taken from the Municipal Statistical Bulletin of Bilbao:

AVERAGE MAXIMU M AND MINIMUM DAILY RATES OF WAGES IN SPECIFIED OCCUPATIONS IN BILBAO, SPAIN.

[1 peseta at par=19.3 cents.]

O-marking and a second a second and a second a second and	Rates f	or men.	Rates for women.		
Occupation.	Maximum.	Minimum.	Maximum.	Minimum.	
	Pesetas.	Pesetas.	Pesetas.	Pesetas.	
Miners	9.00	5. 50			
Other industrial workers	10.00	6. 50 5. 50	3, 00	1.7	
Blacksmiths		5, 50	5.00	1. /	
Aasons	9.00	5. 50			
arpenters	8, 00	5, 50			
tonecutters	9.00	6.00			
Painters		5. 50			
Shoemakers		5. 50	4.00	2. 3	
	9.00	5. 50	4.00	2. 3	
Seamstresses		3, 75	4, 00 2, 50	2. 5	
farmers	8, 00	5, 50	4.00	2. (

Hours and Wages of Agricultural Labor in Sweden.¹

A N INQUIRY into hours and wages of agricultural labor in Sweden in 1919 was undertaken by the Swedish labor office (Socialstyrelsen). Questionnaires were sent to the presidents of the commune assemblies and to the organized employers and trade organizations of employees. Replies were received from 95.8 per

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¹ From Socialstyrelsen. Sverige: Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik. Arbetartillgång, Arbetstid och Arbetslön inom Sveriges Jordbruk år 1919. Stockholm, 1920. 68 pp.

cent of the communes, 73.9 per cent of the employers, and 91.1 per

cent of the employees. Regarding the labor supply, 6.2 per cent of the communes reported good labor supply, 58.4 per cent sufficient, 32 per cent insufficient,

while 3.4 per cent were unable to give any satisfactory report. Since 1918 the labor supply for the country as a whole seems about the

same as for the years preceding the war.

Reports of the presidents of commune assemblies show that gross working hours for farm laborers proper were 12.1 hours, rests 2.2, net working period 9.9 hours. Employers and employees give 11.9 hours gross working period, employers gave rests as 2.0, net 9.9 hours, while employees showed rest periods to be 1.8 hours and net working period 10.1 hours. Changes in the working period since the year 1911 are shown in the following table:

DAILY HOURS OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR DURING SUMMERS OF 1911 TO 1919.

Kind.	1911	1912	1913	1914	1915	1916	1917	1918	1919
Gross. Rests. Net.	2. 2	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	2. 2	2. 4	2. 2	12. 1 2. 2 9. 9

This shows that the average summer working period has been shortened over half an hour a day, or 3.6 hours a week, most of which falls in the year 1919.

The three tables that follow show the average daily hours and the annual and daily wages per year of specified groups of farm labor in

1919 for the various agricultural districts.

It should be explained that by farm laborers proper are understood those who do the actual farm labor in the fields and anything in connection with that. The driver's or tiller's work is to drive the horses or beasts of burden needed for farm work and to care for those animals. The cattle tenders are more distinctly grouped, because cattle require care from early until late in the day, making the day long and very much the same the year around, although this class usually gets a long noon rest. Servants include the usual drivers, workmen, and women without any special qualifications, but do not include persons who hold positions of trust or have special trades or abilities. "Statare" or truck servants comprise that class which receives its wages partly in cash and partly in payments in lieu of money such as dwelling place, garden plot, and various food products. Day laborers are divided into two classes, the occasionally employed who receive a daily wage but are not bound by any agreement to work for any stated length of time, and the steadily employed who usually have agreed to work a certain period of time.

Since before the outbreak of the war until the end of the year 1919 the total wage for servants has increased 170 to 180 per cent, for "statare" about 190 per cent, while the daily wage for day laborers has increased from 166 to 207 per cent. The wage levels increase during 1913–1919 appears to be from 175 to 200 per cent.

AVERAGE DAILY HOURS OF AGRICULTURAL LABOR IN SWEDEN IN 1918 AND 1919, AS REPORTED BY PRESIDENTS OF THE COMMUNE ASSEMBLIES.

O-mary street	Sum	mer.	Winter.		
Occupation.	1918	1919	1918	1919	
Farm laborers proper . Drivers or tillers . Cattle tenders	10. 1 10. 3 11. 0	9. 9 10. 2 10. 8	7. 9 8. 1 10. 6	7. 8 8. 1 10. 3	

AVERAGE YEARLY WAGES (IN CROWNS) OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF FARM LABORERS IN SWEDEN, 1911 TO 1919, BASED ON REPORTS OF THE PRESIDENTS OF THE COMMUNE ASSEMBLIES.

[1 crown at par=26.8 cents.]

			Serv	ants.		"Statare" or "truck servants."							
Year.	Men.			Women.			Drivers and farm laborers proper.			Cattle tenders.			
	Cash.	Room and board (value)	Total.	Cash.	Room and board (value).	Total.	Cash.	Pay- ments in kind (value).	Total.	Cash.	Pay- ments in kind (value).	Total.	
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1918	311 318 326 332 343 398 489 689 884	337 349 357 370 412 508 657 940 1,019	648 667 683 702 755 906 1,146 1,629 1,903	184 190 197 202 212 241 286 376 502	272 280 288 299 335 414 532 755 818	456 470 485 501 547 655 818 1,131 1,320	314 320 329 334 346 390 457 646 826	373 390 391 477 537 597 799 1,118 1,262	687 710 720 811 883 987 1,256 1,764 2,088	380 376 375 378 391 437 511 721 936	371 391 398 484 548 610 809 1,130 1,272	751 767 773 862 939 1,047 1,320 1,851 2,208	

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF FARM LABORERS IN SWEDEN, 1911 TO 1919, BASED ON REPORTS OF THE PRESIDENTS OF THE COMMUNE ASSEMBLIES.

[1 crown at par=26.8 cents.]

		Day laborers—men.											
Year.	8	steadily e	employee	i.	Occasionally employed.								
	With board.		Without board.		With board.		Without board.						
	Sum- mer.	Winter.	Sum- mer.	Winter.	Sum- mer.	Winter.	Sum- mer.	Winter					
1911 1912 1913 1914 1915 1916 1917 1918 1919	Crowns. 1, 64 1, 68 1, 74 1, 80 1, 88 2, 30 2, 95 3, 95 4, 95	Crowns. 1, 13 1, 16 1, 21 1, 25 1, 31 1, 69 2, 24 3, 08 3, 65	Crowns. 2, 40 2, 47 2, 54 2, 62 2, 72 3, 28 4, 23 5, 99 7, 36	Crowns. 1, 81 1, 85 1, 92 1, 97 2, 07 2, 55 3, 20 4, 69 5, 90	Crowns. 1. 94 1. 98 2. 05 2. 10 2. 18 2. 63 3. 43 4. 75 5. 76	Crowns. 1, 32 1, 36 1, 43 1, 46 1, 55 1, 96 2, 63 3, 63 4, 33	Crowns. 2, 79 2, 87 2, 97 3, 02 3, 13 3, 77 5, 00 7, 14 8, 58	Crowns 2. 04 2. 11 2. 12 2. 24 2. 34 3. 02 4. 00 5. 62 6. 72					

AVERAGE DAILY WAGES OF CERTAIN GROUPS OF FARM LABORERS IN SWEDEN, 1911 TO 1919, BASED ON REPORTS OF THE PRESIDENTS OF THE COMMUNE ASSEMBLIES—Concluded.

			Da	y labore	rs—wom	en.			
	St	teadily en	mployed		Occasionally employed.				
Year.	With	With board.		Without board.		With board.		t board.	
	Sum- mer.	Winter.	Sum- mer.	Winter.	Sum- mer.	Winter.	Sum- mer.	Winter	
1911. 1912. 1913. 1914. 1915. 1916. 1917. 1918.	Crowns. 1.01 1.04 1.07 1.10 1.16 1.39 1.74 2.35	Crowns. 0.74 .76 .79 .82 .86 1.06 1.31 1.76 2.15	Crowns. 1. 52 1. 56 1. 61 1. 65 1. 71 2. 05 2. 60 3. 58 4. 36	Crowns. 1.14 1.18 1.21 1.24 1.29 1.59 2.00 2.73 3.33	Crowns. 1. 14 1. 17 1. 21 1. 24 1. 29 1. 52 2. 67 3. 22	Crowns. 0.83 .86 .89 .92 .98 1.18 1.46 2.02 2.43	Crowns. 1. 67 1. 72 1. 77 1. 81 1. 87 2. 23 2. 95 4. 00 4. 82	Crowns 1, 2, 1, 3, 1, 3, 1, 3, 1, 4, 1, 7, 2, 2, 2, 3, 0, 3, 7	

General Increases in Wages in 1919 and Tentative Wages in 1920.2

FROM 1913 to the close of 1919 wages in Sweden increased on an average 170 per cent. In the lumber industries, employing 26,133 persons, the increase amounted to 176 per cent; in the leather industries, employing 7,593 persons, to 189 per cent; in the chemical industries, with 12,210 employees, the increase amounted to 182 per cent; and in the power, gas, and water works, employing

16,801 people, to 186 per cent.

In a report received after the above summary was prepared the following tentative figures are given for wages in 1920: Cash yearly wages for drivers, 1,052 crowns (\$281.94, par); for cattle tenders, 1,163 crowns (\$311.68, par); for men servants, 1,082 crowns (\$289.98, par); and for women servants, 665 crowns (\$178.22, par). For those occasionally employed, without board, the daily wage for men was 9.39 crowns (\$2.52, par) in summer and 7.22 crowns (\$1.94, par) in winter, and for women, 5.66 crowns (\$1.52, par) in summer and 4.32 crowns (\$1.16, par) in winter. For those occasionally employed, with board, the daily wage for men was 6.42 crowns (\$1.72, par) in summer and 4.72 crowns (\$1.27, par) in winter, and for women 3.80 crowns (\$1.02, par) in summer and 2.79 crowns (\$0.75, par) in winter.

Cash wages in the period from 1913 to 1920 increased about 220 per cent for all classes.

² Extract from Report on Commerce and Industries of Sweden for year 1919, forwarded by the Department of State.

MINIMUM WAGE.

Recent State Minimum-Wage Reports.

North Dakota.

THE Workmen's Compensation Bureau of North Dakota is charged with the administration of the minimum wage law of the State, which bears date of March 6, 1919. A department of minimum wage has been organized with a secretary in charge, and it has submitted its first annual report, for the year ending June 30, 1920. This report is taken up largely with the general consideration of the conditions discovered in the course of investigations made from August until December, 1919, into the conditions of labor of women, including wages, hours, and sanitary and moral conditions. An investigation of 312 establishments discloses an average wage of \$11.11 per week. This covered hotels and restaurants, retail stores, laundries, telephone exchanges, and factories. Visits were made to 27 cities and towns of the State in connection with this investigation, so that it is representative of the State as a whole. The estimated cost of living was \$16.65 per week; the conclusion was therefore reached that "the wages for women and minors were unsatisfactory and inadequate," and a series of hearings throughout the State was decided upon. Employees in various industries were subpænaed, others coming voluntarily, but all testified under oath. Employers were not so ready to appear, nor did they speak with equal freedom. However, there was felt to be an adequate basis for proceeding with the conferences, and these were held in Fargo during the month of April, 1920.

In accordance with the terms of the law, representatives of employers, employees, and the public were selected, those in the last group being practically the same for all conferences held; employers and employees naturally changed with the industry. The conferences related to public housekeeping and personal service, office occupations, manufacturing, laundries, student nurses, mercantile employment, and telephone occupations. The report sets forth the recommendations arrived at by each of these conferences, including rates of pay,

terms of apprenticeship, work time, etc.

Student nurses are supposed to receive full maintenance and uniforms and their wages are accordingly lower than the others, \$8 per week being the standard for the last year of employment. Experienced workers in manufacturing, laundries, and telephone occupations receive \$16.50 per week; as chambermaids and kitchen help in public housekeeping, \$16.70 per week; as waitresses and in public service and mercantile occupations, \$17.50 per week; while the wage for office occupations is fixed at \$20 per week. Lower entrance rates are prescribed for each employment, \$12 per week in some, other rates being \$13, \$13.20, and \$14 per week.

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Oregon.

THE Industrial Welfare Commission of Oregon not only regulates the minimum wage of women and minors, but also is charged with the regulation of work time, sanitary conditions, etc. The fourth biennial report of this commission takes up the work of the commission immediately following the war, a war emergency conference which had been at work during October and November, 1918, being dissolved early in 1919. On June 6 a new conference was formed which began its work 10 days later and made recommendations upon which the 12 new orders were based. These mainly related to classes of workers previously covered, though two new groups were added to the list, women elevator operators and student nurses. A general weekly rate of \$13.20 for experienced workers was agreed upon, adult learners beginning at \$9. A rate of \$6 for minors 14 years of age, \$7.20 if 15, and \$8.50 if 16 was also adopted for all employments. The rates were based on the 9-hour day and 48-hour week, the new orders becoming effective October 14, 1919. One question before the conference was whether or not the commission should require one day of rest in each seven consecutive days. It was decided that this matter should be regulated by general law applicable to all industries, and the commission itself took no action.

Overtime permits to meet cases of emergency were issued in 63 cases in 1919 and 170 in 1920, 1,121 women being affected in the

earlier year and 1,461 in the later.

Prosecutions were brought by the commission in 22 cases, all relating to working time. In nine the defendant was found guilty, in five not guilty, and eight were settled out of court after complaint had been filed with the district attorney. There were 31 complaints involving claims for wages: wages were collected in 17 cases, the amount being \$1,370.94.

The most insistent problem before the commission is said to be that of apprenticeship. Existing periods under the Oregon orders are too long. However, occupations in the same industry may be so different as to involve the same need of teaching to a worker of skill in one line changing to another as if she were a beginner. The commission does not feel that it has found a solution of this problem, but suggests there must be cooperation between the learner and the employer, though the former is usually at an age of such irresponsibility as to require special methods of organization and training.

Report of Basic Wage Commission of Australia.1

REPORT has recently been submitted to the Commonwealth Parliament of Australia by a special commission on the subject of a basic wage rate for workers. This commission has spent a year in its work, and determined the weekly rates of wages necessary to support a man, his wife, and three children under 14 years of age in the principal industrial centers of the State. The average for the Commonwealth was given as £5 16s. (\$28.23, par). This contrasts

¹ Wellington. Data from New Zealand Employers' Federation Industrial Bulletin, Jan. 6, 1921.

with the equivalent rate for 1914 of £3 9s. (\$16.79, par) and that of £2 2s. (\$10.22, par) in 1907. The Commonwealth statistician showed figures from which it appears that 84s. 8d. (\$20.60, par) in 1920 are

the equivalent of 43s. 1d. (\$10.48, par) in 1907.

The year 1907 is given as the date when the conception of a basic wage first took form in an arbitration award declaring that 7s. (\$1.70, par) per day was a fair and reasonable wage for a man with a wife and three children. The commission's present report of a similar cost of £5 16s. (\$28.23, par) per week is taken as proof of the imperative necessity of readjustment of wages. However, the commission estimates that the payment of the latter sum to all male adult workers would not only be an intolerable burden on industry, advancing costs of living in a continuous spiral; but, further, that there is no occasion for a provision to be made generally, since for the estimated 1,000,000 male employees in 1920 there were but 900,000 children instead of the 3,000,000 theoretically assumed. Instead, therefore, of paying a family minimum rate to every adult male it is proposed to pay an individual rate of £4 (\$19.47, par), with the auxiliary amounts of 12s. (\$2.92, par) for each child dependent upon the wage earner. Obviously this would put a premium on single men and small families. It is therefore proposed to furnish a Commonwealth endowment by which members could be paid the sum of 12s. (\$2.92, par) per week for each child instead of making a discriminatory rate against the employers of fathers of families. This would be accomplished by requiring each employer to pay £4 (\$19.47, par), the basic rate for a single adult, to every worker regardless of his family condition; besides this he would pay for each worker the sum of 10s. 9d. (\$2.62, par) into a general fund, from which payments to mothers could be made. It was computed that not only would this stabilize and equalize conditions, but that it would effect a saving of approximately £65,000,000 (\$316,322,500, par) in the Commonwealth as against advancing rates of all adult workers to the necessary family basic rate of £5 16s. (\$28.23, par).

Prime Minister Hughes in presenting this report classed this suggestion as "entirely novel," and not subject to immediate deter-

mination.

Press comment on the report is to the effect that it proposes an impossibility if all workers are to receive such an amount as that named by the commission; while the Queensland Employers' Federation stressed the general inapplicability of a rate which was computed on the basis of a family of five and which would inevitably call for an excessive maintenance allowance due to the nonexistence of large numbers of the children and also of many nonexistent wives.

Minimum Wages for Printers in Switzerland.

THE arbitration office of the printing trade in Switzerland made an investigation in October, 1920, of the cost of living in different localities in Switzerland for the purpose of determining whether the minimum wage for the workers in this trade should be increased. The cost of living budget was less comprehensive than

 $^{^1}$ Communauté professionelle de l'Imprimerie en Suisse. La repartition des localités en Suisse. Buchdruckerei Gasser et Cie. Basel, 1920. $\,\,^23$ pp.

in most investigations, including only food requirements for a family of five, as determined by the Union of Swiss Cooperative Societies, and rent and taxes. The taxes covered those imposed by Cantons and communes, church and so-called personal taxes, while military and fire-brigade taxes and contributions to societies and unions were not included.

The country was divided into 311 localities, and the cost of living for the items mentioned was found to range from 3,004 francs to 4,435 francs (\$579.77 to \$855.96, par) per year. The minimum wages as already established were divided into four classes, that for class A being 65 francs (\$12.55, par) per week; class B, 70 francs (\$13.51, par); class C, 77 to 82 francs (\$14.86 to \$15.83, par), and class D, 82 to 90 francs (\$15.83 to \$17.37, par) for married men, while the minimum for single men varied from 65 to 87 francs (\$12.55 to \$16.79, par). In order to divide the different localities into their proper categories, the difference between the highest and lowest living costs, 1.431 francs (\$276.18, par), was divided by four and the quotient, 358, added to each grade to determine the limit of the grade. This division would give 147 localities in class A, in which cost of living was from 3,004 to 3,362 francs (\$579.77 to \$648.87, par); 138 localities in class B, 3,363 to 3,720 francs (\$649.06 to \$717.96, par); 20 localities in class C, 3,721 to 4,078 francs (\$718.15 to \$787.05, par), and 6 localities in class D, 4,079 to 4,435 francs (\$787.25 to \$855.96, par). An increased minimum wage was established, subsequent to the publishing of the report, of 76 francs (\$14.67, par) for class A, 82 francs (\$15.83, par) for class B, 91 francs (\$17.56, par) for class C, and 103 francs (\$19.88, par) for class D.

EMPLOYMENT AND UNEMPLOYMENT.

Employment in Selected Industries in February, 1921.

THE Bureau of Labor Statistics received and tabulated reports concerning the volume of employment in February, 1921, from representative establishments in 13 selected manufacturing

industries and in bituminous coal mining.

Comparing the figures of February, 1921, with those of identical establishments for February, 1920, it appears that there were decreases in the number of persons employed in all industries. The largest decreases are 44.2 per cent in hosiery and underwear, 41.3 per cent in automobiles, 36.3 per cent in leather, and 35.1 per cent in woolen. The smallest decreases are 2 per cent in bituminous coal mining and 0.1 per cent in cotton manufacturing.

When compared with February, 1920, the amount of the pay rolls in February, 1921, show decreases in all industries. The greatest decrease, 74.4 per cent, is shown in the automobile industry. Respective decreases of 51.3 per cent, 45.8 per cent, and 44.3 per cent appear in the hosiery and underwear, woolen, and leather industries. Bituminous cool minimum and provided the second principles of the second principles are second principles.

minous coal mining shows a decrease of 1 per cent.

COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN FEBRUARY, 1920, AND FEBRUARY, 1921.

	Estab-	Period of	Num	ber on pa	ay roll.	Amor	unt of pay r	oll.
Industry.	ments report- ing for Febru- ary, both years.		February, 1920.	February, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	February, 1920.	February,	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Iron and steel Automobile manufacturing Car building and repairing Cotton manufacturing Cotton finishing Hosiery and underwear Woolen Silk Men's ready-made clothing Leather manufacturing Boots and shoes Paper making Cigar manufacturing Coal mining (bituminous)	116 44 50 54 16 60 52 42 46 34 84 55 56 86	2 wks 1 wk do .	188, 958 157, 160 45, 587 53, 975 12, 787 30, 614 51, 150 18, 765 31, 058 17, 583 72, 522 30, 442 17, 034 23, 909	143, 228 92, 302 38, 009 53, 903 10, 746 17, 080 33, 189 14, 827 22, 802 11, 209 54, 316 27, 408 15, 755 23, 430	$\begin{array}{c} -24.2 \\ -41.3 \\ -16.6 \\ -0.1 \\ -16.0 \\ -44.2 \\ -35.1 \\ -21.0 \\ -26.6 \\ -36.3 \\ -25.1 \\ -10.0 \\ -7.5 \\ -2.0 \end{array}$	\$13, \$92, 294 5, 063, 400 2, 719, 874 1, 099, 144 286, 824 567, 609 1, 279, 027 908, 392 1, 057, 970 455, 853 1, 676, 059 776, 675 340, 790 1, 533, 950	\$9,274,639 1,298,263 2,560,886 921,396 236,181 276,523 693,199 675,588 674,317 254,081 1,314,914 679,726 297,723	-33. 2 -74. 4 - 5. 8 -16. 2 -17. 7 -51. 3 -45. 8 -25. 6 -36. 3 -44. 3 -21. 5 -12. 5 -12. 5 -1. 10

Comparative data for February, 1921, and January, 1921, appear in the following table. The figures show that in 10 industries there were increases in the number of persons on the pay roll in February as compared with January, and in 4, a decrease. The largest increase, 42 per cent, is shown in the woolen industry. Men's readymade clothing shows an increase of 21.1 per cent and hosiery and underwear an increase of 20.8 per cent. The smallest increases, 0.8 per cent and 0.2 per cent, appear in iron and steel, and leather. Percentage decreases of 12.8 per cent and 3.3 per cent appear in car building and repairing and cigar making, respectively.

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When comparing February, 1921, with January, 1921, eight industries show an increase in the amount of money paid to employees and six show a decrease. The most important increases, 34.6 per cent and 31.4 per cent, occur in men's ready-made clothing and woolen, respectively. Car building and repairing shows a decrease of 14.4 per cent, while the decrease reported in the leather industry is 0.8 per cent. COMPARISON OF EMPLOYMENT IN IDENTICAL ESTABLISHMENTS IN JANUARY AND FEBRUARY, 1921.

	Estab- lish-		Numb	er on pay	v roll.	Amou	nt of pay re	oll.
Automobile manufacturing Car building and repairing. Cotton manufacturing	ments report- ing for Janu- ary and Febru- ary.	Period of pay roll.	Janu- ary, 1921.	Febru- ary, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).	Janu- ary, 1921.	Febru- ary, 1921.	Per cent of increase (+) or decrease (-).
Iron and steel	52 42 46 36 83 54 51	2 wks 1 wk ½ mo 1 wk do do 2 wks 1 wk do	140, 511 74, 879 44, 461 45, 671 9, 518 14, 258 23, 376 14, 268 18, 550 11, 916 47, 457 28, 710 15, 015 21, 464	141, 699 75, 879 38, 764 53, 808 10, 746 17, 229 33, 189 14, 827 22, 463 11, 945 51, 467 27, 809 14, 524 20, 840	+12.9 $+20.8$ $+42.0$ $+3.9$ $+21.1$ $+0.2$ $+8.4$ -3.1 -3.3	\$9,784,692 826,042 3,044,055 764,397 200,333 219,030 527,740 496,008 271,493 988,633 722,641 289,617 1,436,263	\$9,252,021 972,844 2,604,961 919,167 236,181 278,840 693,199 675,588 667,542 269,352 1,224,037 700,834 273,448 1,338,746	$ \begin{array}{c c} -0.8 \\ +23.8 \\ -3.6 \\ -5.6 \end{array} $

In addition to the data presented in the above tables as to the number of employees on the pay roll, 94 plants in the iron and steel industry reported 110,395 employees as actually working on the last full day of the pay-roll period reported for February, 1921, as against 148,816 for the reported pay-roll period in February, 1920, a decrease of 25.8 per cent. Figures given by 91 establishments in the iron and steel industry show that 106,777 employees were actually working on the last full day of the pay period reported for February, 1921, as against 109,447 for the same period in January, 1921, a decrease of 2.4 per cent.

Changes in Wage Rates and Per Capita Earnings.

I^N 12 of the 14 industries there were some establishments reporting wage rate decreases during the period January 15 to February

15, 1921.

Iron and steel.—All the men in two establishments had a decrease of 25 per cent, while a decrease of 21 per cent was made in two other plants, affecting all the men in the first plant and 95 per cent of the men in the second plant. Eighteen mills reported a decrease of 20 per cent, affecting the entire force in 15 mills, 66 per cent of the force in one mill, 50 per cent of the force in one mill, and laborers only in another mill. Ninety per cent of the employees in one plant received a decrease of 18 per cent. A general decrease of 15 per cent was made by one concern, while in two other concerns a 15 per cent decrease affected 60 per cent and 90 per cent of the force, respectively. A wage-rate decrease of approximately 12 per cent was made to all employees in one mill and to 95 per cent of the employees in the second mill. In five establishments a decrease of 10 per cent

was made, affecting from 40 per cent to 100 per cent of the force. All employees in two concerns had decreases, ranging from 10 per cent to 20 per cent. Decreases ranging from 7 per cent to 15 per cent were made to about 10 per cent of the force in one mill, while all employees in another mill received reductions, ranging from 8 per cent to 16 per cent. A decrease of 5 per cent to all men was reported by one concern, while a decrease of approximately 1 per cent was made to 8 per cent of the men in another concern. In one plant time and one-half was eliminated, resulting in decreases ranging from 9 per cent to 14 per cent in earnings. Another plant reported the elimination of time and one-half, but did not state the reduction in earnings caused thereby. The per capita earnings reported for the February pay-roll period, as compared with the pay-roll period for January, show a decrease of 6.2 per cent. Many establishments reported irregular operations, due to lack of orders.

Automobiles.—A decrease of about 15 per cent was reported by one establishment, affecting 30 per cent of the force. Twenty-five per cent of the employees in one plant had a decrease of 5 per cent, while about 24 per cent of the employees in another plant received a decrease of 4 per cent. Following the period of depression in January, establishments are gradually resuming operations, and the per capita earnings are 16.2 per cent greater than last month

per capita earnings are 16.2 per cent greater than last month.

Car building and repairing.—The entire force of one shop was reduced 20 per cent in wages. Reductions in the number of employees were reported by many plants. Comparing the per capita earnings for February with those for January, a decrease of 1.9 per cent is shown.

Cotton manufacturing.—The wages of all employees in one establishment were decreased 15 per cent, while a reduction of 12 per cent was made to all employees in another establishment. Five plants reported a wage-rate decrease of 10 per cent, affecting the entire force in all plants. An average decrease of 7½ per cent was reported by one concern. The per capita earnings of the workers increased 2 per cent during February as compared with January.

Hosiery and underwear.—Three mills reported respective wagerate decreases of 22½ per cent, 15 per cent, and 10 per cent, but did not state the number of employees affected. A decrease of 20 per cent in wages was made by one establishment, affecting 98 per cent of the employees, while one-half of the employees in another establishment had a decrease of 18¾ per cent in wages. In three plants, a wage decrease of 10 per cent was reported, affecting the entire force in the first plant, 75 per cent of the force in the second, and 20 per cent of the force in the third plant. Increased production was reported by several plants. The per capita earnings are 5.3 per cent higher than during January.

Woolen.—Three mills reported a decrease of 22½ per cent, affecting the entire force in two mills and 95 per cent of the force in the third mill. In two concerns a bonus of \$3 per week was discontinued, and in addition a wage reduction of 7 per cent was made. A decrease of 7.5 per cent in per capita earnings is shown when comparing February with January figures.

Silk.—The entire force of one establishment was reduced 21 per cent in wages. A general wage decrease of 20 per cent was reported by one mill. In one establishment decreases ranging from 15 per cent to 20 per cent were made; while in another establishment all

employees had decreases, ranging from 10 per cent to 15 per cent. One concern reported a 15 per cent decrease to 93 per cent of the force. Three mills made a decrease of 10 per cent, affecting all employees in two mills and 90 per cent of the employees in the third mill. Increased hours of operation and increased production were reported for this industry during the February pay-roll period, causing the per capita earnings to be increased 9 per cent.

Men's ready-made clothing.—Weekly reductions ranging from \$2 to \$5 were made by one establishment. While many concerns are still partly closed, a gradual increase of business is reported for those in operation. Per capita earnings have increased 11.1 per

cent during the period under review.

Leather.—A bonus for full-time service was granted by one establishment. Decreases ranging from 20 to 25 per cent were made to about 60 per cent of the employees in one tannery. In three plants approximately the entire force was reduced 20 per cent in wages. Practically all employees of three tanneries had respective wage reductions of 15 per cent, 10 per cent, and 7 per cent. A decrease of 5 cents per hour, affecting new employees only, was reported by one establishment; while another establishment reported a decrease of 30 cents per day, affecting all employees. Slight business depression was reported and per capita earnings show a decrease of 1 per cent, when comparing February with January figures.

Boots and shoes.—Approximately 75 per cent of the force in one factory had an average wage reduction of 12 per cent. The granting of a 10 per cent bonus was discontinued by one establishment. Due to increased production, the per capita earnings show an increase of 14.2 per cent, when comparing the earnings for February

with those for the previous month.

Paper.—Ten per cent of the employees in one mill were reduced 20 per cent in wages. A reduction of 16\(^2\) per cent was made to all employees in one establishment, while 95 per cent of the employees in another establishment had a wage reduction of 15 per cent. Two plants reported a wage-rate decrease of 10 per cent, affecting the entire force in one plant and 70 per cent of the force in the other plant. A 10 per cent bonus was discontinued by one mill. Conditions appear to be somewhat improved over those reported for last month, the per capita earnings showing an increase of 0.1 per cent.

Cigars.—One establishment reported a wage rate decrease of 12 per cent to 90 per cent of the employees. A decrease of 10 per cent was made by four factories, affecting practically the entire force in two factories, 90 per cent of the force in the third, and 60 per cent of the force in the fourth. General wage rate reductions were reported by two concerns. The per capita earnings decreased

2.4 per cent since the January pay-roll period.

Employment and Unemployment in Canada in 1920.

THE following table taken from the Labor Gazette, Ottawa, for February, 1921 (p. 213) shows the percentage of employment in Canada in April, July, and October, 1920, and on January 1, 1921, by industry, as reported by employers. In this table the middle week in January, 1920, is taken as the base, or 100.

PERCENTAGE OF EMPLOYMENT IN CANADA IN APRIL, JULY, AND OCTOBER, 1920, AND ON JAN. 1, 1921, BY INDUSTRY.

[January, 1920=100.]

Industry.	Apr. 17, 1920.	July 17, 1920.	Oct. 16, 1920	Jan. 1, 1921.
LoggingMining:	60. 2	46.6	71. 2	88.6
Metallic ores	98.7	96, 0	96.5	84.1
Coal	89.9	87.5	97.6	103.9
Nonmetallic minerals other than coal	112.1	133. 3	131.0	108. 5
Edible animal products (meat products, milk, etc.)	93.7	109.4	108.0	83.7
Lumber and its products	100.1	122. 2	107.6	67.0
Clay, glass and stone products	109.3	114. 2	114.6	90.8
Edible plant products (flour and flour products, sugar, etc.).	101.7	105. 1	106.4	71.8
Fur and fur products	97.8	96. 1	110.1	82.8
Iron and steel products	106.9	106.3	105.4	81.9
Leather and leather products	97.5	89. 5	71.7	59.0
Minerals	102, 8	100.7	98.9	96.6
Nonferrous metal products.	101.7	101.4	99. 9	79.7
Pulp and paper products	106.0	114. 2	109.6	101.8
Rubber products	108.6	110.0	91.3	54.6
Textile products.	103.6	99.9	97.7	69. 2
Transportation:	100.0	00.0	01.1	09. 2
Local	101.6	104.1	104.0	104.2
Rail	100. 2	103.5	106.6	102.0
Water	123. 2	187.6	189.8	116.4
Construction:	120.2	101.0	100.0	110.4
Building	104.4	166. 2	181.3	111.9
Railway	118. 9	169. 2	159.8	99. 7

Reports by 1,573 trade-unions, with a total membership of 208,320, show a percentage of unemployment at the end of December, 1920, of 13.4 for the Dominion as a whole. Compared with November, 1920, and with December of preceding years this percentage is an increase. The largest percentage of unemployment was in the clothing industry and the lowest was in mining, quarrying, and refining of oil.

Report of Employment Exchanges in the United Kingdom.

A S REPORTED by the British Labor Gazette for February, 1921, the operations of the employment exchanges for the four weeks ending January 7, 1921, are summarized as follows: The average daily number of applications from workpeople during the four weeks was 25,704; of vacancies notified, 3,454; and of vacancies filled, 2,630.

Compared with the previous month the daily average of applications from workpeople showed an increase of 44.4 per cent, while the daily average of vacancies notified and vacancies filled showed increases of 16.3 per cent and 18.1 per cent, respectively.

The average daily number of applications from adults was 22,617, of whom 15,280 were men and 7,337 women. There were 3,008 average daily vacancies reported, 1,822 men and 1,186 women. The average number of positions filled daily shows an increase of 55.8 per cent among men and 11 per cent among women, when compared with the previous month.

Among the occupational groups in which positions were filled by men, the largest number of positions filled were in building and construction of works, with 31.5 per cent of the total number of men; general laborers, with 29.1 per cent, and the transport trades with 7 per cent. Of the women, 74.5 per cent were placed in domestic service.

As regards juveniles, 30,110 applications were received from boys, 4,460 vacancies were notified, and 3,865, or 86.7 per cent, were filled.

The number of applications received from girls was 34,711, and the number of vacancies notified for girls 4,892. Of the vacancies notified 3,655, or 74.7 per cent, were filled.

Of the total vacancies filled for juveniles, 19.8 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 four weeks ending January 7, 1921.

APPLICATION FROM WORKPEOPLE, VACANCIES NOTIFIED, AND VACANCIES FILLED DURING FOUR WEEKS ENDING JANUARY 7, 1921.

Constant don't	Applicat work	ions from beople.		ncies fied.		ncies led.
Group of trades.1	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
Building . Construction of works . Engineering and iron founding . Shipbuilding . Construction of vehicles . Miscellaneous metal trades . Domestic service . Commercial and clerical . Conveyance of men, goods, and messages . Agriculture . Textiles . Dress (including boots and shoes) . Food, tobacco, drink, and lodging . General laborers . All other trades .	41, 108 5, 087 53, 582 18, 886 1, 727 27, 802 4, 862 7, 572 35, 476 4, 382 20, 049 13, 971 3, 761 45, 389 37, 235	4, 828 5, 124 24, 118 5, 944 3, 386 220 51, 673 29, 176 6, 418 5, 299 17, 890	5,059 7,432 2,192 1,369 192 201 840 1,815 2,664 671 189 135 169 10,141 5,195	104 223 20, 225 1, 325 252 91 422 736 217 68 1, 251	3,789 6,887 1,847 1,337 139 160 630 1,588 2,383 502 149 92 113 9,858 4,443	198 10, 289 1, 057 218 63 299 534 167 55 836
Total	320, 889	154,076	38, 264	24, 914	33, 917	13, 795

¹ Casual 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 2,078.

Volume of Employment in the United Kingdom in January, 1921.

THE following figures as to the condition of employment in Great Britain and Ireland in January, 1921, as compared with December, 1920, and January, 1920, were compiled from figures appearing in the Labor Gazette for February, 1921. Similar information for October was published in the January, 1921, Review.

In January, 1921, as compared with December, 1920, there were only four industries that reported increases in the number of persons employed. These are 1.1 per cent in quarrying, 0.9 per cent in the brick trade, 0.6 per cent in coal mining, and 0.5 per cent in the pottery trade. The largest decrease, 34.3 per cent, is shown in the linen trade. A decrease of 13.3 per cent appears in both the hosiery and cotton trades.

Comparing January, 1921, and December, 1920, the earnings of employees show an increase in one industry—2.7 per cent in the brick trade. The linen trade shows a decrease of 39.6 per cent. Decreases of 19.1 per cent, 14.7 per cent, 13.6 per cent, and 12.5 per cent appear

in the cotton, hosiery, jute, and glass trades, respectively.

The number of persons employed during January, 1921, in the cement trade shows an increase of 30.3 per cent over the January, 1920, number; while the brick trade shows an increase of 18.5 per cent. A decrease of 43.6 per cent is reported for the linen trade and a decrease of 32.1 per cent for the lace trade.

The aggregate earnings of employees in January, 1921, as compared with January, 1920, show an increase of 68.1 per cent in the cement trade and 51.1 per cent in the brick trade. Decreases of 49.4 per cent, 44.7 per cent, and 38.4 per cent appear in the linen, lace, and tailoring trades, respectively.

VOLUME OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED KINGDOM (GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND) IN JANUARY, 1921, AS COMPARED WITH DECEMBER, 1920, AND JANUARY, 1920.

[Compiled from figures in the Labour Gazette, London, February, 1921.]

Industries and basis of comparison.	Per ce increase decrease January compare	e(+) or $e(-)$ in 1921, as	Industries and basis of comparison.	Per ce increase decrease January, compared	(+) or $(-)$ in 1921, as
	December, 1920.	Janu- ary, 1920.	oompunou.	December, 1920,	Janu- ary. 1920.
Coalmining:			Other clothing trades:		
Average number of days worked	- 8.4	- 8.0	Dressmaking and milli- nery—Number of em-		
Number of employees	+ .6	+ 5.4	ployees	- 3.4	- 6.1
Iron mining:			Wholesale mantle, costume,		
Average number of days worked	-13.3	-12.3	blouses, etc.—Number of employees—		
Number of employees	- 9.6	-10.7	London	- 1.6	-24.8
Quarrying:			Manchester	-1.3	-15.3
Average number of days worked	- 3.6	- 6.3	Glasgow Corset trade—Number of	- 5.2	-21.9
Number of employees	+ 1.1	+11.3	employees	- 8.7	- 8.9
Pig iron: Number of furnaces in			Woodworking and furnishing: Number of employees ¹	- 0.1	- 0.0
Iron and steel works:	- 7.7	- 8.0	Number of employees ¹	- 3.4	(2)
Number of employees	-10.4	- 7.1	Number of employees	+ .9	+18.5
Number of shifts worked	-13.7	-11.7	Earnings of employees		+51.1
Tin plate, steel, and galvanized sheet trades: Number of mills			Cement trade:		
in operation	-49.8	-57.6	Number of employees Earnings of employees		+30.3
Cotton trade:			Paper, printing, and bookbind-	- +2	+68.1
Number of employees Earnings of employees	-13.3 -19.1	-19.3 -32.0	ing trades:		
Woolen trade:	-19.1	-52.0	Paper trades—		
Number of employees	- 3.2	- 8.7	Number of employees reported by trade-		
Earnings of employees Worsted trade:	- 1.8	-11.9	unions ¹ Number of employees	(2)	(2)
Number of employees	9	- 2.9	reported by employers.	- 1.9	+ 1.2
Earnings of employees	$ \begin{array}{c c}9 \\ - 7.8 \end{array} $	- 8.1	Earnings of employees	- 1.0	+ 1.2
Hosiery trade: Number of employees	-13.3	-25.4	reported by employers.	- 6.2	+ 9.6
Earnings of employees	-13.3 -14.7	-25.4 -37.8	Printing trades— Number of employees		
Jute trade:			reported by trade-		
Number of employees Earnings of employees	$-3.4 \\ -13.6$	-7.6 -36.3	unions1	- 1.1	- 3.7
Linen trade:	-15.0	-50.5	Number of employees reported by employers.	- 3.0	- 2.2
Number of employees	-34.3	-43.6	Earnings of employees	0.0	2.2
Earnings of employees Silk trade:	-39.6	-49.4	reported by employers. Bookbinding trades—	- 7.5	+ 7.9
Number of employees	$-5.5 \\ -10.0$	-10.9	Number of employees		
Earnings of employees	-10.0	- 6.1	reported by trade-		
Carpet trade: Number of employees	- 2.5	+ 9.1	unions 1 Number of employees	- 2.4	- 3.5
Earnings of employees	- 4.0	+28.7	reported by employers.	- 3.3	+ 5.4
Lace trade:	0.5	00.1	Earnings of employees		
Number of employees Earnings of employees	$ \begin{array}{c c} -6.7 \\ -5.4 \end{array} $	$-32.1 \\ -44.7$	reported by employers. Pottery trades:	- 9.6	+ 2.7
Bleaching, printing, dyeing, and			Number of employees	+ .5	+ 6.5
finishing: Number of employees		7 0	Earnings of employees	- 2.8	+25.2
Earnings of employees	$ \begin{array}{c c} -5.5 \\ -12.2 \end{array} $	$\begin{array}{c} -7.2 \\ -23.7 \end{array}$	Glass trades: Number of employees	- 9.2	-12.6
Boot and shoe trade:			Earnings of employees	-12.5	+ .6
Number of employees	- 2.4	-15.5	Food-preparation trades:		
Earnings of employees Leather trades: Number of em-	8	-24.6	Number of employees Earnings of employees	$\begin{array}{c c} -3.4 \\ -2.5 \end{array}$	-11.5 -1.4
ployees 1	- 1.5	-10.9	Dock and riverside labor: Num-		
Tailoring trade:	1.1	-22.1	ber of employees	- 2.9	-20.1
Number of employees Earnings of employees	- 4.4 - 8.3	$-22.1 \\ -38.4$	Seamen: Number of employees	- 3.4	- 9.9
Shirt and collar trade:					
Number of employees	- 3.9	- 4.2		+	
Earnings of employees	-10.5	-11.9			

¹ Based on unemployment.

² No report.

Employment Conditions in Foreign Countries.

France (Lyon District).1

THE labor situation in this region, as a result of the business depression that commenced first to be seriously felt in September last year, is becoming more aggravated. It was hoped that the new year would bring at least a partial resumption of business, and thus relieve the situation, but the wish seems to have been taken for the reality. There has been a gradual decrease during the last few weeks in almost all lines of work in the Lyon district. The local condition will become serious, unless a different turn in events occurs. Up to the present, there seems to have been an earnest effort made both by capital and labor to find a temporary working basis until conditions become better. Many manufacturers are continuing to keep their plants open on part time, and thus give employment to as many as possible. In other industries, where there is a demand for the articles manufactured, the workmen have accepted reduced wages. Many concerns unfortunately have not been able to take initiative in this regard, because of scarcity of ready capital, or the fact that they have stocks on hand, or a general hesitation to manufacture in face of uncertain markets.

The local situation has been in part relieved by departure to other countries, or return to their native countries, of large numbers of foreign laborers who came to France during the war. The city of Lyon is also undertaking in whatever way possible to provide employment during the crisis. The municipal council of Lyon recently voted 32,000,000 francs [\$6,176,000, par] for the purpose of increasing work on public constructions, and thus give employment to as many unskilled laborers as possible. Work on the municipal stadium is to be resumed, as also on the large hospital commenced before the war. In addition, an appropriation was also made by the city council of 140,000 francs [\$27,020, par] for the relief of women laborers, as they can not be given employment in the construction

of public works.

Unemployment in Specified Industries.

The following has been published as an approximate estimate of

the situation in various local industries:

Ready-made clothing.—Eighty per cent of the 10,000 workmen normally employed in this industry are estimated to be out of employment. Work is still very reduced. The condition of certain women usually engaged in this work, particularly in the manufacture of shirts, corsets, lingerie, gloves, etc., is said to be causing

hardship.

Metallurgical industries.—This industry, which follows the manufacture of silk in this district in importance, reports 25 per cent of its employees out of work. This percentage does not include the laborers working reduced hours. Large numbers of foreign laborers employed in this city during the war, and principally engaged in metallurgical industries and in the manufacture of automobiles and camions, were the first dismissed, and as heretofore stated, have

¹ From the American consul at Lyon, Jan. 14, 1921.

either gone to other countries or returned to their homes. Only the specialists or skilled labor remain little affected by the present crisis.

Dyeing industry.—The condition in this field is far from satisfactory. The situation has gradually grown worse in the last few weeks. The percentage out of work is given as high as 80 per cent. the importance of this industry is recalled in its alliance with the manufacture of silk, the large number of workmen affected can be easily seen.

Tulle manufacture.—There is very little being done in this industry. Many plants are open only two days a week in the Department of Rhône. In neighboring centers 30 per cent of the employees are estimated to be out of work. Manufacturers and employees are holding meetings in an effort to find some way to remedy the situa-

tion at least temporarily.

Furniture and furnishings (sculptors, cabinet makers, upholsterers, etc.).—The percentage out of work in this industry is reported to be 30.

Automobile and aviation.—These two industries are very hard hit, as in all countries. Thirty-five per cent to 45 per cent of the employees have been dismissed. Automobile manufacturers find themselves especially in difficult positions. This industry normally employs about 20,000 workmen.

Shoe manufacture.—Another reduction in hours of work is reported. Chemical industry.—Decrease of personnel, 20 per cent.

Hides and leather.—Decrease of personnel, 60 per cent.

Rubber.—Decrease of personnel, 40 per cent.

Estimates of the number of people out of work in the vicinity of Lyon vary from 30,000 to 80,000. A conservative estimate would be at least somewhat near 45,000 or 50,000.

Scotland.2

STATISTICS supplied by the Ministry of Labor show that on November 26 there 25 257 ber 26 there were 37,287 persons registered as employed in the whole of Scotland. On December 3 the number of unemployed in Glasgow was given as 14,628. The total of unemployed is somewhat greater than these figures indicate as all do not register at the Ministry of Labor exchanges. The number is probably nearer 20,000. During the month there were no labor disputes of consequence, but at its close about 4,000 joiners employed in the shipbuilding industry struck upon the refusal of the employers to pay the \$2.92 per week which had been paid the joiners in excess of the wages paid men in other branches. This advance was given to the men when work was plentiful in the shipbuilding industry to induce them to remain rather than join the buildings trade where higher wages were being paid. The refusal to continue the payment of the excess was made necessary by the demand of the men in the other branches that their wages should be increased by the same amount as that given the joiners. There is no prospect of an immediate settlement, and if the strike is prolonged it will affect other branches of the industry.

² From Department of State, transmitted by one of its representatives in Glasgow, dated Dec. 15, 1920.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY.

Hours of Women in Restaurants and Telephone Exchanges in Minnesota.

IN MINNESOTA hours of work for women are not regulated except in cities of the first and second class. The results of restricting such regulation to the larger cities are shown by the following statement of the department of labor and industries in the Seventeenth biennial report, 1919–20:

In the 168 restaurants in cities other than of the first and second class visited during the past two years it was found that most of the women worked more than the 58 hours a week which is the limit set for such workers in the four largest cities in the State. As will be seen by the table, 95 of these workers were on duty from 80 to 85 hours a week, and 2 even were found who had worked more than 100 hours. It may be said that the work is not so hard in these smaller towns because there are fewer patrons; but the fact is these girls usually do all kinds of work, not specializing as they do in the larger cities, therefore they are just as busy. It is quite the common thing for these women to be on duty from 10 to 12 hours a day, and in not a few cases 15 to 16 hours a day. This work requires that they be on their feet most of the time, the waitresses walking endlessly with their heavy trays, the kitchen workers exposed to the heat and humidity of their workrooms.

Number of women working specified number of hours per week in restaurants outside of cities of the first and second class.

07	ver 58 to 65	137	Over 85 to 90	3
01	ver 65 to 70	101	Over 90 to 95	8
07	ver 70 to 75	97	Over 95 to 100	5
On	ver 75 to 80	. 41	100 to 104	2
Ox	or 80 to 85	95		

It has been found that telephone operators in some of the small northern towns "have been on duty 24 hours a day although nominally on duty from 6 a.m. to 10 p.m., not even having time off for meals."

The Two-Shift System for English Working Women.

ON DECEMBER 9, 1920, the women, young persons, and children (employment) bill passed its third reading in the House of Lords, and was shortly after approved, thereby becoming law. It had met with strong opposition because of its extension of the hours during which women might be employed from 8 p. m. to 10 p. m. Owing to this opposition, this extension of time was carefully safeguarded, the permissive clause running as follows:

The Secretary of State may, on the joint application of the employer or employers of any factory or group of factories, and the majority of workpeople concerned in such factory or group of factories, subject to the provisions of this section, make orders authorizing the employment of women and young persons of the age of 16 years and upward in any factory or workshop at any time between the hours of 6 in the morning and 10 in the evening of any week day except Saturday, and between the hours of 6 in the morning and 2 in the afternoon on Saturday, in shifts averaging for each shift not more than 8 hours per day.

As a further safeguard, it is provided that orders issued for any factory shall be canceled whenever a joint representation against the two-shift system is made by organizations representing a majority of the employers and workers in the industry carried on in that factory, and also that in granting any order for the 2-shift system, the Secretary of State may impose such conditions as he "may consider necessary for the purposes of safeguarding the welfare and interests of the persons employed in pursuance of the order." Still further, it is provided that this permissive clause shall be valid for five years only, the idea being that this will be a sufficient period for testing the de-

sirability of the 2-shift system.

In 1901 the employment of women and young persons was prohibited between 8 p. m. and 6 a. m., so that the present bill extends the night period within which they may lawfully be employed. During the war the prohibition on night work was suspended in numerous instances, but this was supposed to be strictly an emergency measure, and the workers fully expected to have the old conditions restored. When this bill first came before the House of Commons in May, 1920, the workers conducted so strong a fight against the extension of the hours that the clause permitting it was dropped. The Government thereupon postponed action upon the bill until a departmental committee appointed to inquire into the proposed change could make its investigation and report. In November this committee presented its report, which was favorable to the change in hours, and the passage of the bill followed.

The report of the committee ¹ gives in full the arguments for and against the change. From the employers' side it was argued that in certain industries the cost of the modern plant is so great and its upkeep so expensive that it can not be advantageously run on a single-shift system. But if women may not be employed after 8 o'clock at night, they can not be used in a 2-shift system, as the working-day would be reduced below the point of profitable returns. The alternatives, therefore, to permitting the employment of women until at least 10 o'clock at night, are to give up the industry or to give up the women. In other industries, the work of women is closely related to that of skilled men; the men are employed on a shift system, and if it is no longer possible to employ women in two shifts, the whole process will be disorganized, and again it will be necessary to find a substitute for the women or to give up the industry.

From the workers' side it was pointed out that the change involves a shortening of the working day for women. Under the former law, it was permissible to employ women for 12 hours, including the breaks for meals, which amounted to 10 working hours. Under this bill,

¹ Great Britain. Departmental Committee on the Two-Shift System. Report to the Right Honorable the Secretary of State for the Home Department by the departmental committee on the employment of women and young persons on the two-shift system. London, 1929. 13 pp. Cmd. 1037.

eight hours is the limit of their employment in any one shift, and as there must be a break for meals within this period, the working-day is not likely to exceed $7\frac{1}{2}$ hours at the outside. It is expected that the morning and afternoon shifts will change over weekly, so that the average working week under this system will be about 41 hours.

A minor argument brought by the working women themselves in its favor dealt with the arrangement of their time. They liked the longer period of uninterrupted free time, saying that if they were housekeepers it gave them a better opportunity to attend to their household affairs, and if they were not, it gave them a better chance for shopping and for out-of-door exercise in the daytime. They especially appreciated the long week end of the afternoon shift, extending from 10 p. m. on Friday till 6 a. m. on Monday.

Another argument in its favor is the opportunity for employment afforded by the 2-shift system, which would necessarily require twice as many workers as the 1-shift plan. The workers seemed to lay special weight upon this argument. Delegation after delegation of women employed in factories working the 2-shift system appeared before the committee to protest against a return to the rules prevailing before the war, on the ground that if their employers could engage women only on a 1-shift plan, half of the women now at work must inevitably be thrown out of their jobs.

The opponents of the clause objected to it in the grounds that double working hours give inadequate opportunity for airing and cleaning the working premises; that under the 2-shift system much of the work must be done by artificial light, which involves severe eye strain; that the early start in the morning and the late return at night on alternate weeks are both bad for women, and especially objectionable in the case of young girls; that the irregularity of the hours for meals and sleep, due to the change of shifts, must injure the health; that the hours, especially when the weekly change of shift is taken into consideration, are such as to interfere seriously with family and social life; that under the proposed system regular attendance at evening clubs or classes would be impossible, and that adult education would thereby be seriously hampered; that the system will afford greater facilities for evading the law limiting the hours of women's employment; and that it may really increase unemployment by rendering it easier to secure a large output within a short time, and to shut down altogether when this is done. In other words, it may easily intensify the seasonality of seasonal trades.

Conclusions Drawn from the Hearings.

THE hearings were interesting as bringing into the open a difference of opinion within the ranks of women themselves which has been increasingly evident of late. One group desires to surround women with all possible legislative protection, while the other holds that good working conditions should be secured for all workers, but that women should not be handicapped by restrictions not imposed on men unless, as in the case of exposure to lead poisoning, it can be shown that such restrictions are necessary in the interest of their special function in the race. The alignment in this respect of the women who appeared before the committee was rather striking. Apparently most of the altruistically inclined, who work with working

women for their benefit, were against the change. Thus, the representatives of the Welfare Workers' Institute and of the Young Women's Christian Association were strongly opposed. Several working women's organizations sent delegates or were represented by their officials, and here the weight of numbers seemed to be against the change. The largest body represented, the standing joint committee of Industrial Women's Organizations, a federation which claims to have an associated membership of at least 1,000,000, could see no good but much harm in the 2-shift system. The working women themselves, however, who testified were almost unanimously in favor of the change, only one out of 133 being opposed. Another indication of their attitude was shown by the result of a referendum on the subject taken by a firm employing 533 women, which showed 472 women as favoring and 61 as opposed to the 2-shift system.

As to the effect of the 2-shift system on the health of women workers, there was a marked difference of opinion on the part of the doctors consulted. Two women doctors testified emphatically that the system is inevitably harmful, because the irregularity of meal hours under the changing shifts interferes with digestion, and the irregularity of the hours for going to bed and getting up prevents good sleep. Neither of these, however, was in practice among industrial workers, though both were interested in working women and had much contact with them. On the other hand, five women doctors, who, as medical officers in factories working on shifts had had considerable experience with the system, presented written statements that it had in no way been injurious to the health of the women under their charge. In addition, Dr. Addamson, who, as medical officer to the Leeds National Factory during the war, had supervised for two years the health of from 5,000 to 6,000 women working on shift systems, testified strongly against the theory that such work was injurious.

The women working an 8-hour shift stood it extremely well, including the night shift; they were very fit, they did their work well and did not suffer in health, and they liked the alteration of starting time.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE AND MEDICINE.

Physical Disabilities in Military and Industrial Life.

of the man power available for military purposes in this country was made possible, and actually secured, through the operation of the selective service act of May 18, 1917, providing for the recruitment of the United States Army. Incidentally it came to pass that an exhaustive canvass was made of the entire male population.

The law referred to prescribes that—

Each State, Territory, and the District of Columbia shall be required to supply its quota in the proportion that its population bears to the total population of the United States.

Under the authority of this enactment the Government was enabled not only to obtain a full inventory of the military strength of the Nation, but also all necessary data respecting the social and industrial condition of every man subject to registration.

Summarizing the tabulated results of enumeration and classification of the people by age and eligibility, there was in the United

States on September 12, 1918 1-

A total male population of	54, 340, 000
Ages 18 to 45 registered to date	23, 908, 576
Ages 18 to 45 not registered but in military service	1, 438, 901
Remainder not registered (under 18 and over 45)	28 992 523
Remainder not registered (under 15 and over 45)	20, 002, 020

The total male population originally constituted the base for computing the quotas for the several States. Subsequently it was found necessary to change the rule of selection by exempting certain essential occupations from the operation of the draft law.

The difficulty of making an equitable apportionment of quotas among the States was further complicated by the practice of voluntary enlistment which continued in the Army until August 8, 1918.

"During the period in which enlistments were permitted 1,300,000 men were withdrawn from the available source of supply upon which the selective service organization relied." (Second report, p. 6.)

After these deductions, under the revised plan of registration, 24,234,021 men of draft ages (44.5 per cent of the total male population) were enrolled in four days. "Not alone was the enrollment accomplished, but a complete survey and classification as to the domestic and industrial status of the enrolled was made."²

Thus the efficiency of the draft as an expeditious means of filling State levies and its relative superiority to the voluntary enlistment method were demonstrated by the completion of the registration in

record time.

¹ Second Report of the Provost Marshal General to the Secretary of War on the Operation of the Selective System to Dec. 20, 1918, p. 31.

² Idem, pp. 2, 21.

Extent of Military Rejections and Causes Therefor.

RUT now what proportion of the net total of registrants was found unfit for military duty? On what principles, or on what specific grounds, were exclusions from the service based? And to what extent are disqualifications for the military service incapacitating in

civilian occupations?

To the first question a categorical answer is supplied by the reports of the Provost Marshal General. Under the first draft of 1917, nearly 10,000,000 men from 21 to 30 years of age were eligible for registration. Of these, 2,510,706 were examined, 1,779,950 (70.89) per cent) were accepted, and 730,756 (29.11 per cent) were rejected.3

Subsequently, between December 15, 1917, and September 11, 1918, 3,208,446 more registrants were examined, of whom about 25

per cent were rejected.4

Recurring for a moment to the voluntary enlistments which preceded the enrollment, it is evident that a considerable force of ablebodied Americans (1,438,901 men) had already been inducted into the service in anticipation of the draft, or at a period antecedent to the registration. In some places (as in Portland, Oreg., and Portland, Me.) the quotas were filled by volunteers, and there was no draft. "In Massachusetts 52 per cent of the quota called for by the draft had been already filled by voluntary enlistments." 5

Obviously, the percentage of acceptances and rejections should not be computed on the basis of the total number of registrants (nearly 10,000,000), but on the number actually examined as to physical fitness. Under the first draft there were examined (according to the report on first draft, cited above) 2,510,706 men. Later, 3,208,446 were examined, making a total of 5,719,152. Of these, 4,186,285 (73.2 per cent) were accepted and 1,532,867 (26.8 per cent)

were rejected.

Considering the somewhat rigid and arbitrary standard of the Army in respect to height, weight, etc., this showing is quite reassuring. At present, data are not available to indicate how many candidates were subjected to a medical examination under the voluntary enlistment plan. Although 1,438,901 volunteers were mustered into the service, the ratio that this number bears to the whole number examined is unknown. This statistical defect, though inherent in the nature of the system, is regrettable.

Twenty-two specific causes (of unequal significance and weight) were recognized as disqualifications for Army service. The tabulated number of rejections for all causes from February 10, 1918, to October 15, 1918, was 467,694. Of these causes the seven most important

represented 63.02 per cent of the rejection cases, as follows:6

Diseases of the heart and blood vessels.	Per cent.	
Diseases of the neart and blood vessels	. 13.07	
Bone and joint defects.	. 12.35	
Eve detects	70 65	
Tuberculosis of the lungs	8 67	
Developmental delects (height, weight, chest, measure, etc.)	8 37	
Hernia.	. 6.04	
Flat foot	387	

Report on First Draft under the Selective Service Act, p. 44.
 Bulletin No. 11, Office of the Surgeon General, entitled "Physical Examination of the First Million Draft Recruits," p. 15.
 Boston Medical and Surgical Journal, Nov. 18, 1920, p. 590.
 Table 60, p. 165, Second Report of the Provost Marshal General.

Let it be noted that the disabilities above enumerated were not incurred in camp life, but were found as preexisting disqualifications for military service among civilians in the prime of life and available for national defense had they been men of normal physique.

Military Disqualifications as Applied to Industrial Pursuits.

IF SUCH defects unfitted them for the duties of the soldier, to what degree are similar disabilities a handicap in the activities of industrial pursuits? That depends mainly upon the nature of the occupation. Among the employments of peace there are many trades for the successful prosecution of which a standardized physical

development is not essential.

In some civilian employments a diminutive stature (which is made by Army Regulations a ground for exclusion from the military service) may be a positive advantage and even a prerequisite instead of a disqualification, as in the vocation of a jockey. In like manner, a heart lesion that absolutely disqualifies a man for the strenuous life of a soldier may not be incapacitating in a sedentary pursuit like

that of a compositor or tailor.

In a report compiled from the draft records of the Surgeon General's office, under the title, "Defects found in drafted men" (1919), foot defects are said to have been "the most important of all defects found in the population of military age." Of flat foot, 301,146 cases were recorded; "approximately 12 per cent of the full population here considered" (p. 71). But of this number, 264,287 were not disqualified for general military service; and only 27,801 were rejected for this defect as unfit for any kind of military duty. "The general average for the entire United States for flat-foot cases was 177.45 per 1,000." In Illinois the ratio rose to 216.91 per 1,000;

and in New York it reached 217.80 per 1,000.

It must be borne in mind that the Negro is physiologically flat-footed, so that in him this peculiarity does not constitute a defect, since it is no more to be accounted an abnormality than the pigmented skin of the colored race. Of the 301,146 flat-footed white registrants, 27,801 (about 1 per cent of the men examined) were held to be incapable of military service; and it is probable that in civil employments the proportion of those who are disqualified for useful vocations by the same cause may not be any greater. Yet in industrial life this defect seriously curtails the worker's productivity. Blacksmiths, carpenters, floorwalkers, messengers, letter carriers, and men of other ambulatory trades who have flat feet suffer acutely from the infirmity and fall short of the maximum of efficiency. Fortunately the deformity is generally amenable to corrective treatment; and, better still, the wearing of properly-constructed shoes avails to prevent the malformation.

Every 100 per cent American rejoices in the policy of the Government which provides for the rehabilitation of United States soldiers disabled in the war. An extension of this equitable plan would meet the exigencies of the conditions in the industrial world. Under the provisions of such a system workmen injured in the performance of

⁷ University of Texas Bulletin, No. 1913, Mar. 1, 1919, p. 10.

their occupational duties might be restored to usefulness at public cost. Enlightened political economy regards it as a legitimate function of the Government so to safeguard and reconstruct its citizenship. Funds invested in such an enterprise would return large dividends to the social stockholders.

As to other lesions which were disclosed by the physical examination of registrants for the selective draft, bone and joint defects (ununited fractures, locked knee or elbow joints, etc.) are reported as very common, aggregating 12.35 per cent of the total disabilities.

These impairments of function often limit the earning and productive capacity of the workman in the constructive occupations as much as they restrict the destructive capabilities of the soldier similarly crippled. In such a case the workman is entitled to the same consideration as the fighter, since his efficiency depends on the restoration and maintenance of bodily vigor.

Eye defects, which comprised 10.65 per cent of the disabilities discovered in the registrants examined, are not incapacitating in civil life to the same extent as in the military service. Proper lenses may be worn by a seamstress, a student, or a proof reader to correct the faults of vision; but a soldier requiring spectacles would become helpless and a menace to his comrades if his glasses were lost or

broken.

Tuberculosis of the lungs (present in 8.67 per cent of the men that underwent examination) is responsible for much of the incapacity encountered in industrial occupations. It is an indoor infection, and in dusty trades the death rate from this disease exceeds that of any other cause of mortality. But, apart from the injurious effects of too strenuous exertion and exposure to inclement weather, the open-air life of the soldier is conducive to the healing of tuberculous lesions. Accordingly, under equal conditions, the infection is more formidable in civilian than in military life.

Conclusion.

ON THE whole, an impartial analysis of the selective draft records points to the conclusion that American young manhood is not constitutionally unsound or physically inferior to the ancestral stock. Bunions and hammer toes are not signs of racial degeneracy, but the effects of wearing ill-fitting shoes.

The defects revealed by rigorous medical examination are for the most part local, functional, remediable; and nearly all of them are preventable by the ordinary agencies and means of public sanitation and by the continuous training of individual patients in the

observance of the laws of health.

Beyond controversy, the promotion of public and personal hygiene is at once a humane undertaking and a patriotic duty. It should be universally understood that there is high recompense in store for every one that yields intelligent obedience to the laws of health and that heavy penalties will be exacted for violating them. There should, however, be practical instruction. There must be one code of hygiene for the home; another specially adapted to the requirements of the school; a sanitary regimen for the workshop; and

personal supervision of all exercises in the gymnasium and games in

the playground.

The physical instructor and teacher of hygiene must condescend to homely details and concrete examples. Youths must be drilled, for instance, in the lost art of sitting properly with both feet resting squarely on the floor, so as to support the weight of the legs and prevent dragging upon the muscles of the back, causing curvature of the spine and inducing the habit of crouching over one's task to the detriment of the heart and lungs. Of course the height of desk, seat, and workbench should be adjusted to the occupant's stature and length of limb. When all necessary conditions of this sort are provided for, and light, heat, and fresh air are adequately supplied in shop and schoolroom, nearsightedness among pupils and apprentices will disappear and the incidence of tuberculosis will become less frequent.

Responsibility for Industrial Accident Prevention: The Wisconsin System.¹

ACK of direct contact with them makes it difficult for the average person to realize the ravages in human life caused by accidents of various kinds. Statistics show that approximately 80,000 deaths result from such causes every year in the United

States alone, an average of about 222 per day.

In 1919, according to data prepared by the National Safety Council, more than 22,000 persons were killed and over 500,000 injured as a result of accidents in American industries. In comparison with these data casualties in the World War are interesting. It has been shown that 77,118 of the American Expeditionary Force lost their lives, while a total of 302,612 casualties of all kinds was reported. For the period of American participation in the war the yearly average of deaths in the force was 49,000, while that of casualties reached 190,000. It is apparent from a comparison of these figures that twice as many deaths are being brought about through industrial accidents—three-fourths of which are avoidable—than were caused on the average during the World War.

As for the State of Wisconsin itself, while the total number of accidents is not known, 18,441 compensable accidents were reported to the industrial commission during 1919. "This," continues the author, "means an average of 1,536 per month, 60 per working day, 6 per hour, or one every 10 minutes." Of these accidents, 14,995 cases settled under the compensation act showed a time loss of more than 2,870,438 days and a financial cost to employers in compensation and medical aid of \$2,163,354. In a consideration of these statistics attention is called to the facts that only accidents causing disability for more than seven days are compensable, and that the minor injuries are probably twice as numerous as the compensable accidents. For this reason, it is believed that in Wisconsin the total financial loss to employers and employed from industrial accidents in any year exceeds \$10,000,000.

 $^{^1\}mathrm{Summarized}$ from a statement by George P. Hambrecht, chairman Industrial Commission of Wisconsin, Jan. 3, 1921.

Responsibility for Industrial Safety Placed upon Employers.

IN VIEW of the large number of compensable accidents with their resulting loss of time and money cost, the necessity for a definite fixing of responsibility for safety in industrial establishments is apparent. This need is further emphasized by the receipt on the part of the industrial commission of letters from employers asking for the commission's O. K. on their safety appliances. These letters, which for several reasons the commission never grants, come from employers who have taken the required precautions in safety arrangements, and also, in some instances, from those who have not, and seem to be based upon the hope that such an endorsement by the commission will protect said employers against the payment of the 15 per cent additional compensation allowed a workman injured through the failure on the part of his employer to comply with the State law or the orders of the commission.

The chairman of the commission states plainly that the legislature of Wisconsin has adopted a very definite policy of placing the burden of complying with the safety statutes and orders of the industrial commission upon the employer, except in cases of certain

safety practices placed upon employees.

Each accident to a working man must be viewed and disposed of in the light of all the surrounding and relevant facts and circumstances. If the event shows that the accident occurred through failure of the employer to comply with any statute of the State or any lawful order of the industrial commission, the injured employee is eutitled, as a matter of law, to the 15 per cent additional compensation. This is true, even though the failure of the employer be from lack of knowledge, oversight, inadvertence, negligence, or from any other cause. A previous compliance letter from the commission could not relieve an employer in such circumstances. On the contrary, a letter of the tenor suggested might work great harm to him by giving him a false sense of security, which might result in dangerous relaxation of safety vigilance on the part of any one within the employer's organization.

The commission furnishes employers with copies of safety codes and State laws and is ready at all times to send out safety deputies to advise and assist them; but the Wisconsin statutes regarding compensation are such that even in the event that the industrial commission failed to call employers' attention to violations of the safety laws and orders, workmen injured through failure of the employers to take required precautions for the safety of their employees are entitled to the 15 per cent additional compensation allowed in such cases. "This provision of the statutes," says the chairman, "is a recognition of the equity of the proposition that the injured workmen should not suffer in his rights by reason of the mistakes or failures of other parties."

The law of Wisconsin places upon the commission the duty of reporting to the attorney general all violations of the State safety laws, and they may be punished by fines of from \$10 to \$100 a day for each violation, for every day the violation continues. But the statement adds that recourse to law for the collection of statutory penalties is had only when other means have failed and that is seldom

found necessary.

Poisoning by Zinc Chloride in a Wood-Preserving Plant.1

HIS report of an outbreak of poisoning among workers in a wood-preserving establishment is of interest since this is a relatively new industry and one in which the trade processes are subject to frequent change, particularly in the chemicals employed. The establishment reported is engaged principally in treating railroad ties to render them water and weather proof, for which purpose tars and creosotes were used and zinc chloride to render them less liable to the action of fungous growths and to fire. The wood treatment is carried out in air-tight cylinders under pressure and the exposure to the poison does not occur until after the completion of the process when the ties are loaded and stacked

by hand.

Skin troubles were present among all employees handling these ties. Among 17 patients examined 4 types of skin lesion were noted. Three of these—tar dermatitis, tar acne, and tar cancer—are well known as prevalent among all workers in tar, but in addition all these workers were found to have multiple lesions of fingers, hands, forearms, and rarely of the legs and thighs. In every case there was a history of some slight injury such as abrasion, splinters, burns, or crevices from chapping, and the burn corresponded in size and shape usually to the primary injury. There was a considerable area around the lesion in which the skin was readily removable and the underlying tissues white and bloodless. In the center there was a circular section of escharotic tissue, the depth depending upon the duration of the lesion. These lesions, which in some cases were very painful and in others were entirely painless, showed no evidences of infection and there was little or no swelling.

Although the zinc chloride solution was too weak to cause these burns it was discovered that after exposure of the ties to the air for several hours sufficient evaporation took place so that when they were handled the ties were covered with treating fluid in which the zinc chloride approached saturation. It was found that repeated exposure to the zinc chloride solution increased the severity of the lesion and that irritation from the tar in the treating solution also was a factor in its severity. Treatment consisted of removal of the escharotic tissue and application of sodium bicarbonate alone or in

combination with petrolatum.

The constitutional effects of zinc were not present in any of the cases due to the fact that there were no zinc dust or fumes. Various experiments to prevent contact between the bodies of the workers and the treating solution were made. Leather and rubber gloves and garments were found to be impracticable because of shrinkage of the leather and the expense and lack of durability of the rubber. An acid and waterproof canvas overall and flexible "linoleated" canvas gauntlets were found to be satisfactory. The use of these garments and the prompt treatment of all trivial injuries resulted in the disappearance of all zinc chloride burns from the plant.

¹ Zinc chloride poisoning, by Carey P. McChord, M. D., and C. H. Kilker, M. D. The Journal of the American Medical Association, Feb. 12, 1921, pp. 442, 443.

Hazards from Arsenous Oxide in Copper Smelting.

A N article on "Perforations of the nasal septum due to inhalation of arsenous oxide" by Dr. Lawrence G. Dunlap, in The Journal of the American Medical Association, February 26, 1921 (pp. 568, 569) gives an account of the hazard from arsenous oxide to which many workers in copper smelting plants are exposed. Volatile gases, principally arsenous oxide and sulphur dioxide, are given off in the process of copper smelting. When Cotrell treaters are used for recovering the arsenic about 75 to 90 per cent of the recovered precipitate is arsenous oxide. If a higher proof arsenic is required this 75 to 90 per cent arsenic is treated in a refining furnace and the fumes are deposited in arsenic kitchens where at about 420° C. the arsenic is deposited in a fine white powder which is 99 to 100 per cent pure, although there may be lumps which require grinding. The men at the treaters, the loaders, railway crews, dumpers, furnace men, refiners, kitchen wheelers, and men barreling all come in contact with tons of the arsenous oxide daily.

This arsenic dust is breathed into the nose and, coming in contact with moisture, forms arsenous acid, which causes necrosis of the septal mucosa at Kiesselbach's area. The traumatism of the air currents alone often keeps this portion of the septal mucosa irritated, especially if there is a deflection or ridge of any sort. A white, slightly elevated area about 5 mm. in diameter develops. If proper care is taken to protect this area with a camphor-menthol-liquid petrolatum mixture on cotton, the condition will resolve to normal. However, most workmen neglect the condition till there is a perforation of from 7 to 10 mm. through the mucosa and perichondium down to the cartilage on one side. Even at this stage the process can be controlled by persistent local medication. If this is not done, the other side of the septum undergoes a similar process of necrosis and the cartilage disappears from distrophy. The 7 to 10 mm. area of cartilage rarely comes out en masse.

Some cases, it is stated, present a spontaneous physiologic cure, that is, the cartilage around the perforation thins out by absorption with no crusting. The cartilage in front of the perforation heals in the space of a few weeks but with the remainder it is a matter sometimes of 30 years before the process of absorption is completed. Failing this spontaneous cure the case becomes one for surgical attention. In regard to preventive measures the writer states that prophylaxis by wearing a gas mask is not feasible for workers on an 8-hour shift and nose guards and respirators result in a severe dermatitis by causing an accumulation of moisture where they come in contact with the skin, while cotton plugs in both nostrils cause pharyngitis and laryngitis. Camphor-menthol ointment and "bag-house" salve (ferri hydroxidum cum magnesii oxido) are said to be efficient prophylactics if used constantly.

WORKMEN'S COMPENSATION.

Report of Minnesota Commission on New Workmen's Compensation Legislation.

by resolution for the appointment of a commission or committee to inquire into the desirability of new legislation for compensation, particularly with regard to the establishment of a State accident fund. Separate bodies were appointed under these resolutions, consisting of five members of the senate and of the house, respectively. Though there was no legal interrelation between these bodies, they worked together in taking a large part of the testimony secured, and "also conferred for the purpose of reaching, as far as possible, an agreement in their conclusions, so as to facilitate the adoption of any proposed legislation." The house committee made personal visits to several States in which State funds, either competitive or exclusive, are in existence, visiting also the Canadian Province of British Columbia.

The report of the senate commission 1 takes up the history of compensation legislation in the State, with particular attention to the method of administration. The Minnesota law provided for administration by the courts, settlement agreements where made between employer and employee to be filed with the commissioner of labor, who was also charged with the duty of assisting employers and employees in adjusting any differences that might arise. The commission was unanimous in strongly recommending the creation of a State board of three members to administer the compensation law, the same board to have charge also of the administration of labor laws

The principal discussion related to the subject of State insurance. The senate commission of five members submitted majority and minority reports, signed by three and two members each, respectively. The first recommended the establishment of no State fund, but that insurance be compulsory with the privilege of self-insurance for approved employers. The minority report favored a compulsory and exclusive State fund without the privilege of self-insurance. Each group made considerable citations from reports of commissions and of investigators of the subject, the most numerous citations referring to the investigation of Mr. Carl Hookstadt, of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, relative to different methods of carrying insurance for compensation in use in the United States. Taking the sum of these citations together, and reverting for verification to the complete report of Mr. Hookstadt, the finding is inevitable that the majority report made selections and omissions of a nature tending to support the thesis that an exclusive State fund is

¹ Report to the Legislature of Minnesota by the Interim Commission on Industrial Accident Compensation and State Industrial Insurance. St. Paul [1921]. 63 pp.

undesirable. The minority, reaching the contrary conclusion, was able to support its position by a full adoption of the entire body of data collected by Mr. Hookstadt and by adopting his conclusions as to the nature and tendencies of exclusive State funds.

Besides the bill for an industrial commission, an entirely new compensation measure was drafted. Another measure would create a rate-making bureau and an insurance board to supervise and regu-

late insurance and rates.

The compensation measure proposed is elective, but election is presumed in the absence of an express rejection. Compensation is on a basis of 66\(^2_3\) per cent of wages with a weekly maximum benefit of \$18 and a minimum of \$8. A schedule of mainings is provided for. Death benefits are limited to 300 weeks except in the case of a widow or dependent children, compensation to them continuing until dependency terminates. Insurance is compulsory, and medical, etc., benefits must be provided during the first 90 days up to \$100 in cost.

The report of the house committee 2 is briefer and treats of the bills only by way of discussion, comparing their proposals with the existing law. As in the senate report, stress is laid largely on the subject of State insurance, the majority report signed by four members being opposed, while the remaining member submitted a minority report favoring an exclusive State fund, though "not entirely free from doubt" as to the desirability of competitive mutual companies, strictly regulated. Findings of fact are submitted, the first two of which are suggestive of the very considerable difficulty that has attended unification of systems and the establishment of common standards. The first is that "every State visited by the commission is satisfied with its own workmen's compensation law and the present method of its administration." The second is suggestive of both cause and effect for the first, since "no State visited by the commission seemed to have any definite knowledge of the law or method of administration in any other State, so as to give it a basis for making an intelligent comparison between its law and system of administration and the law and system of administration in any other State."

Recent Reports on Operation of Workmen's Compensation Laws.

United States.

THE fourth annual report of the United States Employees' Compensation Commission for year ending June 30, 1920, is devoted almost entirely to a statistical presentation of its work, with some statements by way of summary, recommendations, and a few pages devoted to the interpretation and application of the act. Since the act under which the commission operates became effective September 7, 1916, the report presents data covering an experience of 49 months, from its inception to September 30, 1920. During the first 16 months, or to the end of 1917, there were 16,076 accidents reported, for which

² Workmen's Compensation Majority and Minority Report of Special Interim Committee of the House of Representatives. [St. Paul], 1921. 18 pp.

6,656 claims were submitted. During the next year there was a decided increase in the number of accidents, the total for the 12 months being 24,118, for which 12,621 claims were submitted. The large increase in the number of accidents reported is attributed to both an increased acquaintance with the law and a large accession of employees in establishments working overtime on war production. It is notable that the number of claims in 1918 was more than onehalf the number of injuries reported, while in 1916-17 the number of claims was but little above one-third the number of injuries. The increase in the number of accidents continued during 1919, the total for the year being 25,670 with 13,924 claims. As compared with the prior year the number of accidents increased 6.4 per cent and the number of claims 10.3 per cent—evidence of a better understanding on the part of workers of their rights under the law. During the first 6 months of 1920 the number of accidents amounted to 11,238, a falling off of 13.2 per cent as compared with the corresponding period in 1918; the number of claims was 6,404, or 11.5 per cent fewer. During the remaining 3 months covered by the report, July, August, and September, 1920, there was a decidedly larger reduction in both

the number of accidents and of claims.

The number of injuries, by extent of disability, is given for each important bureau or establishment separately for the calendar year 1919. The total amounts to 19,354, of which 587 were fatal; 30 caused permanent total disability, 607 permanent partial disability, and 18,130 temporary total disability. Naturally the War Department with its arsenals, engineering plants, and quartermaster service furnished the largest number of accidents, the total being 8,579. The Navy Department ranks next with 6,288, the Post Office following with 2,555. In view of the fact that no compensation is payable unless the disability continues beyond three days, and, further, that most employees in the civilian service of the United States have a certain amount of annual and sick leave, during which full pay may be received, the reports for short-time injuries are felt to be deficient in completeness; thus of the 18,130 cases of temporary total disability, but 2,907 are reported as causing such disability from one to three days inclusive, the number from 4 to 7 days being considerably larger, 3,743. Recoveries during the second week numbered 4,095, during the third week 2,182, during the fourth week 1,340, while 3,863 cases caused disability for more than 28 days. The average duration of disability was 22 days, while compensable cases called for an average award of \$53.23. The duration of these cases averaged 30 days. The award noted does not cover the amount received while the injured person was on sick or annual leave. It is noted that 10.5 per cent of the total days lost by injured workers were covered by leave during which the employee received his regular rate of pay; or considering only the compensable cases, 4.2 per cent of the lost time was covered by leave with pay. In 1,225 cases no claim for compensation was filed with the commission, although an average of more than 12 days' pay was lost in these cases. This is said to suggest a continuing need for educating employees and officials in regard to their rights and duties under the law and for making procedure as simple as possible.

Another matter is mentioned by the commission in this connection, and that is the failure of the Government to make adequate provision

for accident prevention. Safety laws are in force in nearly all States. and "are a most important influence in the education of both employees and employers in the value of safety measures. The human and the money costs of accidents are not brought home to the Government official as matters for which he is held responsible. Even the newest buildings erected by the Government (not those erected where war stress is an excuse) lack the obvious safety standards fixed by expe-

rience and required by law."

The commission continues to recommend amendments to the law. though none has been made since its original enactment except an extension to make its provisions applicable to public employees of the District of Columbia. It is urged that the amount of benefits be increased, so that the maximum may be \$100 per month instead The minimum should also be advanced to \$50. The basic percentage would remain as at present, 66² per cent of the pay, but permitting a maximum wage of \$150 to be considered instead of \$100 as at present. A second suggestion relates to the computation of pay, and the third to a system of compensating employees partially disabled. Other recommendations refer to administration and definition, burial expenses, etc. It is recommended that in the event of remarriage of a widow her compensation shall be continued for a period of 24 months instead of being immediately terminated. This will enable the widow on her remarriage to take care of personal obligations which may exist, and will also remove the effect of an immediate stoppage of a sum which is her own and which she may hesitate to surrender. It is regarded as being to the financial interest of the Government to encourage such reduction of its liabilities as would follow the remarriage of its beneficiaries, and also, as in the interest of society at large that there be established a new family relationship and a new home. Payments to dependent parents should continue until death or termination of dependency, instead of the arbitrary limitation of eight years as at present.

A summary in this connection indicated that 535 widows have been granted awards, their average age being 38.6 years; of these, 29 had ceased to be dependent—22 by remarriage and 7 by death. The average age of 158 dependent mothers was 55.1 and of 74 dependent

fathers, 60.2 years.

Carefully classified statistics are given showing the nature of permanent partial disabilities by their location, nature of injury with resulting disability, permanent total disabilities by cause, duration of disability, extent of permanent disability, awards in fatal cases, etc. There is also a comparison of wage loss and compensation paid, from which it appears that instead of the 663 per cent provided by the law, actual benefits are paid averaging 44.5 per cent of the wage loss. In navy yards where 93.7 per cent of the workers received more than \$100 per month at the time of their injury, compensation paid amounted to but 38.9 per cent of the wage loss. "These figures strikingly show the inadequacy of the present scale of compensation. It is below the absolute minimum cost of living for any employee with a family."

Connecticut.

THE Report of the Board of Compensation Commissioners of Connecticut for the years 1919 and 1920 summarizes briefly the activities and recommendations of the district compensation commissioners of Connecticut. During the two-year period covered by this report there was expended by self-insurers in direct compensation payments the amount of \$735,579.44, and for medical, etc., expenses, \$557,885.95. Insurance companies authorized to transact business in the State paid compensation amounting to \$1,956,994.28, and for medical, etc., bills \$1,105,221.13. These figures do not include information from 1 insurance company and 10 self-insurers, which was not available at the time of publication.

The number of accidents reported during the biennium was 71,687, a decrease of 7,497 as compared with the preceding period of 22 months; 2,173 hearings were held and 1,605 findings and awards made. Besides these there were approvals of 21,073 agreements.

Massachusetts.

THE Report of the Massachusetts Industrial Accident Board for the seventh year of the operation of the compensation law, July 1, 1918, to June 30, 1919, covers statistics, recommendations for legislative action, and a report of the medical and vocational training divisions.

There were reported to the board during the year 67,240 injuries causing death or such a degree of disability as to cause absence from work other than for the remainder of the day, shift, or turn upon which the injury occurred. In all, 178,084 injuries of all sorts were reported, but only the above number were tabulatable. Of these, 356 were fatal, 7 caused permanent total disability, 1,750 permanent partial disability, and 65,127 temporary total disability; 5,336 injured workers were not insured, insurance companies covering 92 per cent of the total. Total payments are indicated by reports from insurance companies to aggregate \$5,219,760.74, of which \$1,174,618.73 was for medical attendance, and \$838,468.84 for death benefits. Time lost aggregated 5,080,741 days, 42 per cent being due to death, 26.9 per cent to temporary total disability, 30.3 per cent to permanent partial disability, and 8 per cent to permanent total disability. dependency was found to exist in 244 of the fatal cases, 581 persons being dependent. In 44 cases, 50 dependents were classed as partial, while in 70 cases there were no dependents.

Of the 65,127 cases of temporary disability, 17 per cent continued from 1 to 3 days, 25.2 per cent from 4 to 7 days, 10.5 per cent from 8 to 10 days, 8.3 per cent from 11 to 14 days, and 17.8 per cent

from 15 to 28 days.

The largest number of injuries occurred in the manufacture of iron and steel and their products, 19,948—more than double the number in the next highest group, textiles, in which there were 9,861 injuries. Next comes transportation, roads, streets, etc., with 6,891 injuries and the highest number of deaths, 121. Iron and steel were responsible for 36 deaths and textile industries for 26.

Detailed tables show the severity of injuries by industries and extent of disability, sex and age of injured persons, location of injury

by nature of injury, location by nature and extent of disability, infection, costs of injury by extent of disability, etc. Machinery was responsible for 27 per cent of the injuries, handling of objects for 25.5 per cent, falls of persons 12.7 per cent, and hand tools for 8 per cent; falling objects not being handled by injured workmen are responsible for but 3.6 per cent, which forms a striking contrast with the North Dakota report on page 114.

Injuries due to machinery were responsible for 33.6 per cent of the total number of days lost, vehicles 19.4 per cent, falls of persons 14.3 per cent, and handling objects 11.9 per cent. Cases of longest duration were due to poisonous and corrosive substances, the average being 277 days per case; injuries caused by vehicles average 217 days per case, those due to animals 137, and those to explosions, electricity

etc., 114.

The medical expense represents 22.5 per cent of the total payments under the compensation law for the year. The board has dealt specifically with 284 persons in its vocational training work, a number of whom have been placed in employment subsequent to training.

The board recommends an amendment to the law so as to permit injured workers to give oral notice of their injuries as an alternative to the written notice now required by the law, or to make knowledge of the injury on the part of the employer or insurer sufficient prerequisite for a claim; also that claims may be brought after six months if it appears that the insurer has not been prejudiced by the delay. Another amendment is recommended to meet constructions placed by the court on the provisions relating to the computation of wages.

Minnesota.

THOUGH the Minnesota workmen's compensation law is to be administered chiefly by the courts, a limited power of supervision is given to the department of labor and industries. An account of the operation of the law is therefore given in the seventeenth biennial report of the department (pp. 9-63). The figures given cover the period from July 1, 1918, to June 30, 1920. For the fiscal year 1919 there were 55 fatal cases compensated, payments therefor amounting to \$91,483; 4 cases of permanent total disability called for \$14,563 in benefits; 751 cases of permanent partial disability, \$325,034; 7,492 cases of temporary total disability, in which payments amounted to \$354,191-in all 8,302 cases with \$785,271 in benefits. The second year of this biennium involved larger numbers in every respect, 201 fatal cases calling for \$228,101; 7 permanent total disability cases, \$27,667; 1,176 permanent partial cases costing \$610,893; 11,354 cases of temporary total disability with payments totaling \$594,222-in all, 12,738 cases involving payment in the amount of \$1,460,893. For the year ending June 30, 1919, the gross wage loss for cases of temporary total disability was \$904,615; deducting the compensation paid indicates a net wage loss of \$550,424, or 61 per cent of the total loss, which was borne by the workman. The previous year compensation paid amounted to 48 per cent of the wage loss, leaving 52 per cent to be borne by the worker. This difference is clearly traceable to the higher wage levels paid in 1919, the effect of which on compensation was restricted by the fixing of a

maximum weekly benefit. The gross wage loss for the year ending June 30, 1920, was \$1,454,019; deducting the compensation noted above leaves a net wage loss of \$859,797, which is 59.2 per cent of the total. This is slightly less than for the year 1919 (61 per cent), the change being attributable to an amendment of the law which advanced the basic rate for compensation from 60 per cent to 663 per cent of the wages, and the weekly maximum from \$12 to \$15. Such figures clearly indicate that the naming of a two-thirds basis as a rate of compensation falls far short of guaranteeing that amount to the injured worker, even where the waiting time is but one week, as is the case in Minnesota.

Of the 8,302 closed cases of accidents reported for the year ending June 30, 1919, 1,679 were caused by machinery, 747 by vehicles, 1,039 by falls of persons, and 2,242 by objects being handled. Injuries due to vehicles caused the longest period of temporary total disability (calendar days), the average being 47 days; falling objects come next with 45 days, falls of persons 44 days, and injuries due to

machinery 40 days. The average in all cases was 35.8 days.

For the next year the total number of closed cases was 12,738, of which 2,475 were due to machinery, 1,351 to vehicles, 1,769 to falls of persons, and 3,192 to objects handled. The average duration of disability in all cases was 36.4, the highest rate being 48 days, this being the period under three headings—vehicles, animals, and falling objects. Falls of persons averaged 45 days disability, and ma-

chinery 35 days.

The average compensation paid for fatal cases in 1919 was \$1,663, for permanent total disability \$3,854, for permanent partial disability \$432.80, and for temporary total disability \$47.27. For 1920 the average death benefit was \$1,134, for permanent total disability \$3,953, for permanent partial disability \$519.46, and for temporary total disability \$52.33. Medical expenses could not be distributed and amounted to \$309,868.29 in 1919, and \$457,638.04 in 1920. Other tables show dependents, compensation by nature and location of injury, medical expenditures by nature of injury based on 4,309 cases closed in 1920, infected injuries, permanent partial disability, sex and age of injured persons, and their occupation. Of the medical cases studied the average cost for the total was \$38; fatal cases cost an average of \$88 each, permanent total disability \$175, permanent partial \$81, and temporary total \$32.

A separate report is made on the subject of occupational diseases, showing 146 cases classifiable as such discovered in the State within "the year immediately following the legislative session of 1919." This is not regarded as a complete account, but as indicative of the wide variety of diseases due to employment, for which no compensation is as a rule possible under the existing law. Their inclusion is recommended without a limitation by enumeration. "If, however, an enumeration can be made which will reduce litigation and cover the ground pretty broadly, the same end will be attained as by the other [generally inclusive] method, and there could be no

objection to it.

Nevada.

THE Nevada law on workmen's compensation provides an elective system, requiring positive election by the employer; if he elects he is thereby obligated to make contribution to a state insurance fund, no self-insurance being permitted. The law has been in effect since July 1, 1913, superseding an earlier act of 1911. The biennial report for 1918–1920 therefore covers the sixth and seventh fiscal

years of the present law.

During the first three years of the operation of the act there were 1,565 employers who accepted its provisions, with an average of 11,306 employees. The highest number for any single year was in 1917 when 1,037 employers with 13,410 employees were under the act. For the two years covered by the present report the number of employers was 798 with 10,495 employees in 1919, and 948 with 10,610 employees in 1920. The aggregate pay-roll exposure for these years was \$17,572,017.46 and \$18,837,809.61, respectively. Earned premiums in 1919 amounted to \$330,191.58, against which compensation was paid, awarded, or estimated in the amount of \$266,152.94, 846 claims being filed during the period. In 1920 premiums amounted to \$338,183.50, and benefits to \$272,337.29, 784 claims being filed. Administrative expense for the earlier year was 9.67 per cent of the premium income, while for the second year it was 10.01 per cent.

The number of injuries reported for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1919, was 1,212, of which 1,038 were temporary, 138 permanent, and 36 fatal or permanent total. In 1920 the total number was 1,176, of which 1,030 were temporary, 113 permanent, and 33 fatal or permanent total. Of the 846 claims for 1919, 92 were suspended or rejected, while the number in 1920 was 84. Much the largest single cause for such action was the fact that disability continued less than 7 days, there being 36 such cases in the earlier year and

46 in the later.

Total receipts from premiums from July 1, 1913, to June 30, 1920, amount to \$2,289,052.06, and additions from interest to \$72,332.98. From this, compensation amounting to \$1,316,772.74 has been paid, \$131,316.26 refunded, and \$216,834.89 expended for administration. Administration is a charge on premiums collected and not on the general funds of the State. On June 30, 1920, the insurance fund showed total assets of \$703,706.62, assets in excess of liabilities being \$111,946.78.

Besides the State insurance fund, to which all employers electing the law must contribute, there is a State accident benefit fund provided for by an amendment of 1917, maintained by contributions from employers who do not undertake to furnish their own hospital treatment. During the three years of the existence of this fund \$98,654.55 has been collected and \$46,071.06 expended. Of this, \$36,857.07 was in benefits and \$9,213.99 administrative expenses.

Tables are given showing the costs of accidents by classes, of which there are 7, for each year covered by the report; the number of fatalities; the frequency of accidents by industries and extent of dis-

¹ Biennial Report of the Nevada Industrial Commission, July 1, 1918, to June 30, 1920. Carson City, 1921, 32 pages.

ability, and severity of injuries by industries and extent of disability. The last two tables show for the year 1920 a frequency rate of 111 accidents per 1,000 full-time workers and 6.24 per \$100,000 pay roll. For the same year there were 28,661 days lost per 1,000 full time workers or 1,614 days lost per \$100,000 pay roll.

New Hampshire.

THE workmen's compensation law of New Hampshire is administered by the courts, but the reporting of accidents to the State commissioner of labor is required from every employer subject to the provisions of the act. A report of these accidents is presented in the Thirteenth Biennial Report of the State Bureau of Labor, for the year ending August 31, 1920, with some comment as to the law. During the two years covered by the report 3,425 accidents were reported, in which 40 were fatal, 1,418 caused disability for two weeks or more, 1,762 for less than 2 weeks, and of 205 the results are not known.

The commissioner urges a complete accident-reporting system, and an amendment of the compensation law "to meet present day conditions and provide adequate compensation to injured workmen." Obligatory insurance and an administrative board are recommended as well as a very decided increase in the amount of benefits provided.

New York.

THE Industrial Commission of New York presents in its annual report for 1919 the Fifth Annual Report of the Bureau of Workmen's Compensation, covering the year ending June 30, 1919. During that year 288,444 accidents were reported, 21,657 claims submitted, and 28,448 agreements arrived at. There were 1,815 fatalities, being the largest number reported for any year covered by the bureau reports.

During the five years 1,388,925 industrial accidents have been reported to the commission, of which 255,484 have developed into compensable cases. No analysis whatever is given of the cause,

nature, duration, or other effects of these accidents.

The industrial commission has an excellent statistical bureau under very capable direction, but it has not at its command a clerical force adequate to the need of the hour, and hence there remains locked up this weath of material which contains the answers to the thousand questions which employers and publicists are asking every day.

The two primary questions of how to prevent accidents and what is the cost of compensation insurance could largely be answered if the material were tabulated, but this has been found impossible up to date for the lack of an appropriation in the estimated amount of \$100,000.

A report of the State insurance commissioner contains information supplied by the various carriers who conduct the compensation insurance business for profit. It shows not only millions but tens of millions expended by employers over and above that received by claimants. It loudly proclaims the fact of economic loss. There are other States in which as generous a compensation law obtains as in New York, and at a much less burden upon industry.

Information as to the actual causes and results of industrial accidents, if available, could be so used as "to arrest attention and so continuously and insistently make itself felt that the end would be a marked diminution in accidents."

The report is taken up chiefly with a discussion of problems, the largest being that of direct settlements and modes of securing correct adjustment of claims. The lack of an adequate inspection force leaves many employers untouched who should be visited and the requirement of insurance brought home to them so as to safeguard the interests of their workers. Additional appropriations are therefore urgently recommended, together with a number of changes in the law.

Among the changes recommended is one to increase compensation benefits to 75 per cent of the wages, the experience under the present (662 per cent) basis showing that workmen do not receive more than 50 per cent of wages actually lost. The wage basis per month should also be increased from a maximum of \$100 to \$150, the weekly maximum benefits made \$20 instead of \$15, and the minimum \$10 instead of \$5. A reduction of the waiting period from two weeks to 10 days; the inclusion of industrial or occupational diseases; a more just provision regarding eye injuries; power for the commission to certify unfair practices and failure to cooperate on the part of any insurance company, securing the cancellation of its certificate by the State insurance department; severer penalties for noninsurance, and a relaxing of limitations with regard to notice are some of the other amendments urged. Besides these it is recommended that accidents be compensable if they arise "in the course of employment" and not necessarily "out of" the employment. The rule that an injury must flow from the employment is said to be too narrow, and the courts have pointed the way to a more liberal construction. It may be noted that the legislature of 1920 adopted the proposed weekly maximum of \$20, but advanced the minimum to but \$8; occupational diseases were also included and some of the other recommendations adopted, but not the broad one regarding injuries "in the course of" employment.

Another section of the report is made by the legal bureau, one function of which is to secure the payment of delinquent awards, \$40,306.46 having been thus collected during the year. Prosecutions for noninsurance also devolve upon this bureau, and the importance of more drastic legislation and closer inspection is emphasized, the suggestion being made that officers and directors of corporations who fail to carry compensation insurance as required by law should be made personally liable for awards made against the

The State insurance fund is reported to have written premiums amounting to \$3,409,982.12 in 1919—a net increase over the previous year of \$77,140.24. There was also an increase in the reserves for losses, the surplus and the total assets; the number of policy holders grew from 8,782 to 9,949, the largest number ever insured in the State fund. The administration cost for the year was 11.3 per cent, which is identical with that of 1917, though for 1918 it dropped to 7.5 per cent.

North Dakota.

THE Workmen's Compensation Bureau of North Dakota came into existence under the provisions of an act of March 5, 1919, the law being immediately effective. Its first annual report, for the year ending June 30, 1920, covers the operations of the State fund, which is the exclusive method of insuring its system of compulsory compensation, for a period of 15 months in so far as administrative expense is involved, other receipts and disbursements being for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1920. Premiums received amount to \$534,466.23 with \$4,751.93 interest. Claim payments amount to \$69,388.01, refunds to \$2,439.87, and administrative expenses to \$49,083.32. The total estimated liabilities were \$317,000, the statutory surplus \$52,106.88, and the estimated general surplus \$48,509.19. An actuarial survey made for the fund shows its complete solvency and the great economy of administration. The report of this survey was noted in the Monthly Labor Review for December, 1920, pages 157, 158.

Accidents for the period July 1, 1919, to June 30, 1920, on which awards were made were 723 in number, the awards totaling \$159,941.56 for compensation and \$21,473.74 for medical, hospital, funeral, etc., services. The largest number of compensated injuries was due to machinery (21.85 per cent of the total); falls of persons came next, 17.57 per cent; falling objects, 16.18 per cent; objects being handled,

15.77 per cent.

The law provides that where an employer has failed to pay his premium into the State fund and the workman is injured during the time of such default, the injured man, or his dependents in fatal cases, may submit a claim to the workmen's compensation bureau which will determine their rights as prescribed by the act. However, payment in such cases is to be made by the employer directly and not from the State fund. Fifty-six such cases have been submitted to the bureau for action, of which 25 have been dismissed, 16 of them for want of prosecution, 5 were amicably settled, and in 4 cases there was no disability. The total amount of awards made or approved by the bureau in these cases is \$14,805.48, to which claimants are entitled without deduction of legal costs or expenses.

Oklahoma.

THE State Industrial Commission of Oklahoma, administering the compensation law of the State, in its report for the year ending August 31, 1920, shows that 5,821 awards were made during the year. This is a large increase over the preceding year when 3,812 awards were made, the increase amounting to 52.7 per cent. The compensation during the year amounted to \$729,870.73, an increase of 32.2 per cent over the preceding year. Medical service including hospital bills directed by the commission to be paid totaled \$236,202.33. Tabulatable accidents passed upon by the commission numbered 22,714, as against 14,009 for the year previous. Tables show the number of permanent partial disability cases by industry and nature of injury. Of the total number of accidents reported 16,793 caused disability for seven days or less, 357 caused permanent partial disability

ability, and none permanent total disability. Other tables show the number of injuries by part of body affected. The report comments on recent amendments, notably the increase in the weekly maximum from \$10 to \$18 and the decrease in the waiting period from 14 to 7 days. Other amendments are recommended, as a percentage compensation proportioned to the loss of use of a member, awards for injuries regardless of their origin, i. e., whether accidental or not, the inclusion of vocational diseases, and compensation for the period between an injury and a subsequent death before the claim of the injured man is adjusted. Stricter enforcement of awards and further relaxation of the weekly maximum limitation are also recommended, as is a provision for the rehabilitation of injured workers.

Tennessee.

THE administration of the workmen's compensation act of Tennessee devolves upon the bureau of factory and workshop inspection. The report of this office for the calendar year 1920 covers the first 18 months of the operation of the compensation act, July 1, 1919, to December 31, 1920. The legislature gave the bureau no additional funds, nor does the law provide for an adjuster of compensation claims. The result is that the bureau is greatly hampered in its efforts to administer the law, and is unable properly to make use of the statistical data needed both for "a correct record of compensation and also for statistical purposes." The lack of an adjuster makes it impossible to secure accurate and prompt settlement of many cases, "thereby being the cause of much correspondence, and in the end not always accomplishing the desired results."

The number of cases reported from July 1, 1919, to December 31, 1920, is 17,564. Of these, 14,811 have received final disposition. There were 109 fatalities; the total wage loss reported in nonfatal cases being \$421,468.39. Compensation was found to be available in 2,945 nonfatal and 109 fatal cases. Compensation paid up to December 31, 1920, amounted to \$277,823.54. Tables show the number of accidents by occupation and result, by industry and cause, and by industry and location of injury.

Amendments to Workmen's Compensation Law of New Zealand.

CCORDING to the New Zealand Employers' Federation Industrial Bulletin of January 6, 1921, several important amendments to the workmen's compensation law of New Zealand came into effect on January 1, 1921. Coverage is extended to include workers earning up to £400 (\$1,946.60, par) per annum instead of £260 (\$1,265.29, par) as formerly. The amount of compensation payable in any individual case is advanced from £500 (\$2,433.25, par) to £750 (\$3,649.88, par). The waiting time is reduced from one week to three days, and compensation, where payable, dates from the day of injury. The percentage basis is increased from 50 per cent of the employee's average weekly earnings to 55 per cent, and weekly bene fits may amount to £3 15s. (\$18.25, par) instead of £2 10s. (\$12.17, par) as formerly.

LABOR LAWS AND DECISIONS.

Federal Labor Legislation.

By LINDLEY D. CLARK.

PRIOR to the Civil War there was no Federal legislation that could be classed as labor legislation, with the exception of a few laws governing the employment of seamen, and laws giving the preference to articles of American manufacture for the use of the Houses of Congress, for furnishing the President's house, and for naval supplies. A law prohibiting the coolie trade was enacted in 1862 (R. S., secs. 2158–2163).

The first enactment since the Civil War was in the form of an amendment (No. XIII) to the Federal Constitution, prohibiting slavery and involuntary servitude. The fourteenth amendment has had a large effect on labor legislation, chiefly by reason of the clauses relating to due process of law and equal protection of the laws. It

can not, however, be classed as labor legislation.

In 1867 two laws were enacted which remain on the statute books and may be classed as labor laws, one abolishing peonage (R. S., sec. 1990), and the other directing that employees in the Government navy yards shall not be solicited for political contributions or dis-

charged for political reasons (R. S., sec. 1546).

In 1868 the first eight-hour law was passed (R. S., sec. 3738), making eight hours a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics employed by or on behalf of the Government of the United States. This act was directory only and not penal, and had little value. Laws of 1888 directed the Public Printer strictly to enforce the provisions of this law in the work under his charge (25 Stat. 57), and fixed an eight-hour day with extra pay for overtime for letter carriers (25 Stat. 157). A later law (1900) directs that but eight hours, as nearly as practicable, shall be required of letter carriers, and but 48 hours for the six working days of the week in any event; though additional hours not exceeding eight may be required on Sunday if necessary (31 Stat. 257). In 1911 (36 Stat. 1327) payment of salaries to letter carriers for more than eight hours per day was forbidden, and compensatory time off was directed when Sunday labor was required. (See also, 37 Stat. 539.)

A new eight-hour law was passed in 1892 limiting the hours of labor and providing a penalty for exacting or permitting overtime work (27 Stat. 340). A workman laboring in violation of this law can recover nothing for overtime. The law applies to laborers and mechanics employed by the Government of the United States or by the District of Columbia, or by any contractor or subcontractor on any of the public works of the United States or the District of Columbia.

This act was amended in 1913 (37 Stat. 726) so as to make it applicable to the work of laborers and mechanics in connection with dredg-

ing or rock excavation in river and harbor work, concerning which disputes had arisen under the earlier act. A closely related law was enacted in 1912 (37 Stat. 137). An eight-hour law of limited application fixes a basic eight-hour work day for persons actually engaged in the operation of trains on railroads (39 Stat. 721). War-time waivers of the laws relating to public works are provided for by an act of 1917 (39 Stat. 1168).

The so-called Carey Act of 1902 (32 Stat. 388), providing for irrigation works by joint State and Federal action makes eight hours a day's work on such undertakings. The construction of the Isthmian Canal is exempted from the provisions of the eight-hour law in so far as unskilled alien laborers and the foremen and superintendents of

such laborers are concerned (34 Stat. 634).

In 1871 a law was enacted calling for the inspection of steam vessels and the examination and licensing of engineers thereon (R. S., sec. 4426). While this is primarily a public-welfare law, it has considerable effect on the employment conditions of seamen, as it secures their safety as well as that of passengers and freight. Amendments were made to this act from time to time, notably in 1890 (26 Stat. 692), 1905 (33 Stat. 1029), and 1906 (34 Stat. 193).

In 1872 the seamen's code was revised and extended so as more adequately to protect the hiring and discharge of seamen, to regulate the payment of their wages, their food, quarters, and treatment generally, and to secure their legal rights both at home and in foreign ports (R. S., secs. 4290 et seq.). Amendatory and supplemental acts were passed at various times, a very extensive revision and liberalization of the law being made in 1915 (38 Stat. 1154). The shipping of seamen under false inducements or "shanghaiing" is prohibited by an act of 1906 (34 Stat. 551) amended in 1907 (34 Stat. 1233).

In the same year (1872) it was provided by statute that employees in the navy yards should be selected because of their skill and effi-

ciency and for no other reason (R. S., sec. 1544).

In 1882 the first Chinese exclusion act was passed, suspending the coming of Chinese laborers into the United States during a term of 10 years (22 Stat. 58). Further restrictive and amendatory acts were passed in 1884 (23 Stat. 115), 1888 (25 Stat. 476), 1902 (32 Stat. 176), and 1904 (33 Stat. 428), etc. These laws have practically eliminated the Mongolian from competition in the labor markets of this country.

The immigration act of 1885 contained a prohibition of the importation of alien laborers under contract (23 Stat. 332). This act was strengthened by acts of 1888 (25 Stat. 566) and 1891 (26 Stat. 1084) and its provisions in this respect have been carried forward into the immigration acts of 1903 (32 Stat. 1213), 1907 (34 Stat. 898), and

1917 (39 Stat. 874).

Statutes of 1885 (23 Stat. 516), and 1887 (24 Stat. 644) granted certain holidays with pay to per diem employees of the Government, i. e., New Year's Day, Washington's Birthday, Decoration Day, the Fourth of July, Thanksgiving Day, and Christmas. Labor Day was made a holiday in the District of Columbia in 1894 (28 Stat. 96). Employees in the Bureau of Engraving and Printing were granted leaves of absence by acts of 1887 (24 Stat. 607), 1892 (27 Stat. 87), and 1896 (29 Stat. 275); in the Government Printing Office by an act of 1896 (29 Stat. 453); railway postal clerks by an act of 1899 (30

Stat. 964); employees in the navy yards by an act of 1901 (31 Stat. 746); and in mail-bag repair shops by an act of 1912 (38 Stat. 539).

In 1886 Congress authorized the incorporation of national tradeunions, the headquarters to be located in the District of Columbia (24 Stat. 86). Labor organizations are exempt from excise tax on corporations (1909, 36 Stat. 11), and from income tax (38 Stat. 114). An act of 1914 also exempts them from action under the antitrust laws, declares labor not a commodity, limits the issue of injunctions, authorizes strikes, picketing, boycotts, and the payment of strike

benefits (38 Stat. 730).

The year 1888 was marked by the formation of a Department of Labor as an independent office under a commissioner directly subordinate to the President (25 Stat. 182). A Bureau of Labor in the Department of the Interior had been created in 1884 (23 Stat. 60), and the department was in effect a continuation of the former office. This department was later (1903) made a bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor (32 Stat. 825). Its functions include investigations into wages and hours of labor, means of promoting the welfare of laboring men and women in all its aspects, controversies between employers and employees, and the diffusion of information on subjects connected with labor, in a general and comprehensive sense of the word. Annual reports are contemplated in the organic statutes, and the publication of a bulletin is authorized by an act of 1895 (28 Stat. 805). In 1913 (37 Stat. 736), this bureau became a part of the then created Department of Labor with various bureaus and charged with the administration of a number of laws, as well as the investigative and educational functions of the older office. Women's Bureau was added in 1920.

The antitrust law of 1890 (26 Stat. 209) while not apparently intended to apply primarily to labor has been found to have extensive application to certain combinations of workmen, notably in the way of boycotts. (Modified by Clayton Act, etc.; see above as to

labor organizations.)

In 1891 a mining code was enacted to govern employment in mines in the Territories and to provide for their inspection until suitable provision should be made therefore by local legislation (26 Stat. 1104). This law provides for escape shafts, safety cages, ventilation, the sprinkling of dusty mines, and other safety provisions for miners. The investigation of mine explosions was authorized in 1908 (35 Stat., 226), and a Bureau of Mines was created in 1910 (36 Stat. 369).

In the same year (1891) a law was enacted favoring American labor in so far as the composition, plating, engraving, etc., of material for the manufacture of books offered for American copyright is concerned

(26 Stat. 1107).

Laws Affecting Interstate Carriers, Child Labor, Etc.

IN 1893 was the first enactment of a law requiring the installation of safety devices on railroad equipment (27 Stat. 531). Power brakes, automatic couplers, and drawbars of uniform height were provided for by this statute. This law was made more exact and effective by an act of 1903, and a minimum of 50 per cent fixed as the number of cars in a train that must have the required equipment

(32 Stat. 943). Tests and reports by the Interstate Commerce Commission as to safety appliances are authorized by an act of 1908 (35 Stat. 325). The same act authorized the inspection of mail cars. In this year also locomotives used in interstate commerce were directed to be equipped with ash pans that can be dumped or cleaned without the necessity of employees going under the locomotive (35 Stat. 476). By an act of 1901 accidents on railroads must be reported to the Interstate Commerce Commission (31 Stat., 1446).

Employment in the Government Printing Office is regulated by acts of 1895 (28 Stat. 607), 1896 (29 Stat. 453), 1900 (31 Stat., 643), 1912 (37 Stat. 482), and 1918 (40 Stat. 836). These laws relate to rates of wages, night work, the employment of apprentices and skilled workmen, holidays, the 8-hour day, and leaves of absence.

In 1898 a law was passed providing for mediation and arbitration in labor disputes affecting interstate common carriers by rail. Mediation was to be attempted by the chairman of the Interstate Commerce Commission and the Commissioner of Labor. If arbitration was desired, a board was to be chosen, one member by the employer interested, one by the labor organization or organizations representing the employees, and the third by these two. The law also contained a provision against discrimination by employers on account of membership in labor organizations (declared unconstitutional), a provision against forced contributions to benefit funds, against contracts limiting the employer's liability, and against blacklisting (30 Stat. 424). A new law on this subject was enacted in 1913, providing for a commissioner and assistant commissioner (38 Stat. 103). Two officials of the Government may be designated to act with these, while they have certain functions acting alone. Provision is also made for boards of arbitrators. Action is to be taken on the request of either party, and the commission may proffer its services. The Esch-Cummins Act of 1920, while not formally repealing the act of 1913, created a "railroad labor board" of nine members equally representative of labor, management, and the public, charged with the duty of seeking to adjust all disputes between railroad companies and their employees. It may, on petition of either party to a dispute, or on its own motion in serious cases, fix just and reasonable rates of wages and standards of working conditions, the same to be made a matter of record and to be published.

In 1906 Congress enacted a law fixing the liability of railway interstate carriers for injuries to their employees (34 Stat. 232). This law abrogated the defense of fellow-servant, modified that of contributory negligence, and declared contracts exempting the employer from liability invalid. This law was held to be unconstitutional on account of failure to distinguish adequately between interstate and intrastate commerce, but is valid in the District of Columbia and the Territories. A new law was enacted in 1908 (35 Stat. 65), and amended in 1910 (36 Stat. 291), with the purpose of meeting the criticisms as to constitutionality. The essential provisions are

practically the same as in the law of 1906.

In 1907 a law was passed limiting the hours of labor of employees engaged in the operation of interstate railways, the limit for trainmen, etc., being 16 hours and for train dispatchers 9 hours (34 Stat.

1415). The establishment of the basic 8-hour day by the Adam-

son law has already been noted.

The same Congress provided for the incorporation of a national child-labor committee (34 Stat. 914) and of the foundation for the promotion of industrial peace (34 Stat. 1241). The latter body

never functioned and was dissolved in 1918 (40 Stat. 899).

In 1908 a compensation law was enacted for laborers and artisans employed by the United States in manufacturing establishments, arsenals, navy yards, in the construction of river and harbor and fortification work, in hazardous employment in the construction or management of work in the reclamation of arid lands or under the Isthmian Canal Commission (35 Stat. 556). The maximum compensation allowed, whether for death or disability, is the amount that would have been received if the employee had continued to be employed for one year after the injury. A much more efficient and inclusive law on this subject was enacted in 1916 (39 Stat. 742). This act is administered by a commission and ranks well among laws on the subject.

In 1910 additional safety provisions for railroads were prescribed (36 Stat. 298), supplementing the earlier laws; and a new law was enacted as to the reporting of accidents (36 Stat. 350), repealing the

act of 1901.

The same Congress at a later session (1911—36 Stat. 913), provided for the inspection of locomotive boilers, creating an inspection force covering the United States. This act was amended in 1915 (38 Stat. 1192), extending the powers of the inspectors to the tender

and to all parts and appurtenances of the locomotive.

The Sixty-second Congress established the Children's Bureau in the Department of Commerce and Labor (1912—37 Stat. 79) and taxed out of existence the poisonous white-sulphur match (1912—37 Stat. 81). It also gave postal employees power to form or join unions for bettering their conditions of employment on condition that no strike would be engaged in (1912—37 Stat. 555).

The creation of the Department of Labor in 1913, with a Cabinet officer at the head (1913—37 Stat. 736), has already been noted, as well as the enactment of a new law for the arbitration of disputes of

railroad employees (1913—38 Stat. 103).

The Clayton Act has been noted also, and is the only law classed as a labor law enacted at the second session of the Sixty-third Con-

gress (38 Stat. 730).

In 1915 efficiency tests and the payment of bonuses were forbidden in navy yards (38 Stat. 953) and in arsenals (38 Stat. 1083). Important legislation as to seamen (38 Stat. 1164) and the amendment

to the boiler inspection law were noted above.

In 1916 an attempt was made to restrict the employment of young children in industry by preventing the shipment of the products of their labor in interstate commerce (39 Stat. 675). This act was held unconstitutional, and a law taxing the products on entry into interstate commerce was enacted in 1919 with the same end in view (65th Cong., 3d sess., Pub., No. 254, sec. 1200). The 8-hour standard workday law of 1916 has already been mentioned.

The immigration law of 1917 (39 Stat. 874) retains the provisions as to contract labor, previously mentioned, and provides a literacy

test for immigrants above 16 years of age. War conditions are reflected in authorizations of waivers of the 8-hour law and in providing for the commandeering of factories for the production of

war materials (39 Stat. 1192, 1193).

The Sixty-fifth Congress at its first session undertook to amend the judicial code so as to give maritime workers the power to elect compensation under State laws, in case of injury (40 Stat. 395), but the act was declared unconstitutional (40 Sup. Ct. 438).

Legislation During the War Period and Subsequently.

THE labor legislation of 1918 mainly sprang from war-time conditions, one act (40 Stat. 533) providing penalties for sabotage or defective production or damage of war materials. Another (40 Stat. 550) arranged for a provision of housing for workmen engaged in war production. A third (40 Stat. 617) looks toward the rehabilitation of wounded or otherwise injured soldiers and sailors with a view to their return to gainful occupations, while a fourth (40 Stat. 696) made appropriations for greatly enlarging the functions and personnel of the United States Department of Labor for war emergency service.

The action of this same (Sixty-fifth) Congress in 1919 in enacting a tax law for the products of child labor (40 Stat. 1138) has received mention above. The use of the fund for vocational rehabilitation of injured soldiers and sailors was extended by an act of February 26,

1919 (40 Stat. 1179).

The Sixty-sixth Congress in extra session in 1919 extended the compensation law for injured civil employees of the United States so as to grant its benefits to employees of the District of Columbia (41 Stat. 104). The vocational rehabilitation act for soldiers and sailors was further amended, chiefly in administrative details.

At its regular session (second session) Congress restored the railroads to private ownership (41 Stat. 456), the same act establishing the Railroad Labor Board, already noted. The status of claimants for damages for death on the high seas due to wrongful act, neglect, or default is fixed by a law (41 Stat. 537) allowing for the recovery of "a fair and just compensation for the pecuniary loss sustained." Under the maritime law no action would lie for the death of a person killed by a maritime tort (The Harrisburg, 119 U.S. 199). Another act of the same Congress (sec. 20-41 Stat. 988) gives to seamen suffering injury the same right of action as is granted railroad employees by the liability acts of 1908 and 1910, and provides for the survival of the right of action to the personal representative if the injury is fatal. The same act amends the seamen's payment-ofwages law of 1915 (38 Stat. 1168) by making a provision declaring the payment of advances illegal, whether made within or without the United States.

The retirement of civil-service employees of the United States at the ages of 62, 65, and 70, according to occupation, after 15 years of service was provided for by an act of May 22, 1920 (41 Stat. 614). Increased allowances for longer terms of service up to 30 years are

available; also retirement for incapacity.

Of more direct industrial significance is the act (41 Stat., 735) establishing a system of vocational rehabilitation for workers injured in industry. Cooperation with the States is contemplated. The creation of a Women's Bureau in the Department of Labor (41 Stat. 987) has already been noted.

Conclusion.

THE foregoing comprises an enumeration of the legislation of a national scope classifiable as labor legislation. Congress legislates also for the District of Columbia, but these laws are of course of local effect only.

Among these are an act of 1906 (34 Stat. 304) regulating employment offices; one of 1908 (35 Stat. 420) regulating the employment of children; an act of 1914 (38 Stat. 291) limiting to eight per day the hours of labor of females; and one of 1918 (40 Stat. 960) creating a minimum wage commission for women and minors. The inclusion of public employees of the District under the Federal employees' compensation act (41 Stat. 104) has been noted.

In most cases the laws passed are within a field not covered by State laws, though in some the States might act if the Congress had refrained from action, as in case of injuries to railroad employees; while in the case of the law taxing the products of child labor, the Federal Congress has sought to render uniform desirable conditions already secured in some States by action of the State legislature.

The need for national legislation exists particularly as regards a compensation for injuries law for employees of common carriers, while in the States having minimum wage laws for women there is considerable feeling in favor of a national law on this subject.

Recent Decisions of the Kansas Court of Industrial Relations.

THE widely known Court of Industrial Relations of Kansas, created by an act of a special session of the legislature early last year, has recently given down a number of rulings, which are noted below. An account of the law is given in the March, 1920, Monthly Labor Review, page 219. Decisions by this court are briefed in the issues for May (p. 52), June (p. 106), and August (p. 142), 1920.

The Joplin & Pittsburg Railway Co. and its Employees.

THE Joplin & Pittsburg Railway Co. is an electric line doing a passenger and freight business, mainly in the State of Kansas. The employees had secured from the court an award fixing the wages in February, 1920. (See Monthly Labor Review, June, 1920, pp. 106, 107.) Their present complaint included a request for an additional increase of wages and the adjustment of a collective agreement relative to train crew, hours of labor, and days per week.

The court gave its decision on December 9, 1920, and declined to increase wages on the ground that there was a general tendency toward a decrease in living costs, and while it had not yet materially affected the ultimate consumer, there had at least been no advance.

As to the matter of crew, the men wished the contract to require three men on their trains that handled three or more cars at the same time. The court's view of this point was, that considering the nature of the work done upon the freight trains usually handled by this company, the third man would add an unjust burden to costs of operation without public benefit—a result which would ultimately be reflected in lower wages to the men or poorer service to the public.

The next point related to the employment of extra men, the complainants desiring that a minimum of four hours should be paid for for each day that the extra man is called and works. This the court regarded as reasonable and recommended the insertion of such provision in the contract. The employees also wished regular runs to pay at least 8 hours a day, to be completed in 9 consecutive hours, with time and one-half for work over 8 hours. Train service continued throughout 18 hours per day, two shifts being employed, but with delays of starting and getting into the barn it sometimes happened that an excess of 9 hours was worked. The court therefore recommended a provision making a minimum of 8 hours' work per day on regular runs to be completed in 9 hours and 30 minutes, with time and one-half for work over 9 hours.

The next matter discussed was rates for Sunday work. Passenger trains were regarded as a necessary part of the operation of the road, and the court did not regard it proper "to penalize the company for Sunday work which is absolutely necessary." However, no mechanical work should be required on Sunday unless absolutely necessary

for full operation on Monday morning.

Another point related to the establishment of an 8-hour day. A method of working an 18-hour shift on an 8-hour basis was worked out by the chief accountant of the court, but it was computed that this would add \$25,000 to the annual operating cost—an amount that the company could not pay without subtracting from its depreciation fund or failing to pay interest due. The court maintained its view that "wages must come before dividends, and a business which can not pay a fair wage and at the same time earn a reasonable return must eventually liquidate"; however, taking into consideration the nature of the employment in which the men were engaged, it was felt that the mental and physical strain were not severe, and that a 9-hour day does not unduly deprive the worker of a reasonable time for rest, recreation, self-improvement, social diversion, and the family circle. It therefore declined to institute an 8-hour-day system. However, the time worked by the freight train crews was found to be excessive, being between 12 and 13 hours, during which a regular working period of 11 hours was counted on. This day was said to be too long, being very trying upon the physical strength of the men and encroaching unduly upon their social rights. "This court can not sanction so long a work day." A 10-hour maximum was therefore recommended, a 9-hour minimum being the basis, with time and one-half after 10 hours, a lunch period in the middle of the day being included.

The court concluded by stating that if its suggestions should be incorporated into the contract and properly signed by a representa-

tive of the workers, the court would approve it.

Flour Milling Industry.

ON DECEMBER 20, 1920, the court reached a conclusion with regard to regulating the production of the flour mills of Topeka. The companies had been called to appear to answer inquiries as to a reduction of output, following the receipt of information which had come before the court in an informal way. Managing officers of all the companies of the city appeared without counsel and submitted themselves to the jurisdiction of the court for the purposes of investigation, and were "apparently very frank with the court and supplied

all the information called for without protest."

The production of flour is one of the industries which is declared by the industrial court act to be "affected with a public interest," so that it was subject to the control of the court, and liable to be taken over for operation if such steps should seem necessary. The act contemplates reasonable returns, continuous operation, and a fair wage and healthful and moral surroundings for workers. Seasons and market conditions are to be taken into consideration. It appeared that the normal course of operation involved 24 hours' work, but that the market conditions of the world were such that the price of flour was falling, as well as the price of wheat; that there was an abundant supply of both flour and grain on hand, and that supplies were being shipped out promptly, as rapidly as orders could be obtained, but that orders were small on account of an apparent expectation of further reduction in prices. Not more than 5 or 10 per cent of the product of the Kansas mills is consumed within the State, the remainder going into the world market in general competition. conditions of this competition were then recited, and the partial reduction (from a 24-hour day to about 60 per cent capacity) was found to be a practical necessity due to circumstances beyond the control of the mills. However, as the act provides for a fair wage at all times, the court regarded it as necessary, in reducing the hours of operation, that "the millers should be very careful and solicitous concerning the matter of labor."

The evidence before us shows that in the Topeka mills skilled men in the milling business are being paid a monthly wage, and are therefor drawing pay whether the mill is running or not. So far as it is possible to do so, this rule should be recognized in all mills of the State, for it is necessary in the promotion of the general welfare that skilled and faithful workers should always be available for these essential industries which so vitally affect the living conditions of the people.

At the conclusion of the trial a committee was appointed to formulate such rules as might seem necessary to enable the court to keep in close touch with the milling industry and aid it in making necessary adjustments from time to time. These rules were established on the 24th of February, 1921, and in brief require all milling companies in the State to make such reports to the court of industrial relations as it may prescribe; and that companies finding it necessary to run at less than 75 per cent production must apply to the court, setting forth their reasons, and such other information as the court may require to enable it to properly pass upon the application. Local market conditions must be understood and cared for, and "in so far as it is reasonably possible, head millers, chief engineers, and all other skilled workmen" in mills in the State should either be paid on a monthly basis or given other employment so as to be readily available when resumption of full production is possible. Notice should be

given to all employees of contemplated cessation or limitation of work, in order that they may secure other employment.

Fort Scott Sorghum-Syrup Co.

THE Fort Scott Sorghum-Syrup Co. manufactures sirup from sorghum cane, and furnishes for the most part only seasonal employment. The grinding of the cane and the first preparation require something more than 100 men from 50 to 90 days in the fall of the year, running the plant 24 hours per day. During this time from 5 to 7 steam boilers and engines are in use. After that the process of mixing and refining the sirup and preparing it for table use and for shipment calls for but a few men and only one steam boiler.

On July 15, 1920, the company made an agreement with the International Brotherhood of Firemen and Oilers in the nature of a closed shop contract. There was no controversy except as to the number of men employed after the heavy fall campaign was over. During previous years two engineers and two firemen had been required to run the necessary boiler and engine, but in the autumn of 1920 the company found itself doing only about 4 or 5 per cent of its average business. The company, therefore, sought to reduce expenses by discharging the two firemen, two engineers working alternate shifts and firing their own boilers. This the engineers were willing to do in view of the small amount of work required, saying that to fire the engine would not require to exceed two hours of time per day. The Engineers' Union refused to permit this, as it would violate the "one man one job" policy of their union.

Unless some concession could be made it would result in requiring the company to pay \$12 per day for men to perform two hours' work. Though the amount was small it would simply increase the deficit of a company operating under very adverse conditions. A general representative of the International Brotherhood of Firemen and Oilers, who was present at the trial, thought that the concession ought to be arranged, and expressed his belief that local officers had made a mistake in insisting on the "one man one job" idea. The court wished to waive decision until the unions could make their own arrangements, but both parties stated that they had agreed to abide by the order of the court and insisted upon an immediate and authoritative decision. The Kansas industrial law recognizes the closed shop where instituted by mutual agreement, but does not countenance strikes, boycotts, intimidation or "economic pressure." The present agreement was satisfactory to the court, being freely arrived at; but inasmuch as it was unfair to require the employment of two men to do the work of one, the contract should be modified so as to permit one man to work at two or more jobs not requiring excessive periods of time, in which case his union membership might be transferred without cost to any party so long as the necessity for thus working should continue. An order to that effect was issued accordingly.

Transportation Companies Handling Nonunion Goods.

ASES have been noted under the above heading in the Monthly Labor Review for September, 1920 (pp. 173, 174), and November, 1920 (pp. 197–199). The later of these cases was that of Buyer, a manufacturer and dealer resident in New York

City with factories at Norfolk, Va., and Norwich, Conn. Buyer was in the habit of employing a nonunion trucking company, and the checkers and weighmen at the wharf of the steamboat company operating between New York and Norfolk refused to handle his goods. The agent of the company, Guillan, refused to discharge the workmen who declined to handle the goods, thus making transportation impossible. The United States District Court declined to issue an injunction against the workers and the transportation company, and suggested that Buyer seek relief by means of an action at law. Buyer thereupon appealed to the circuit court of appeals which gave its decision February 2, 1921, reversing the court below and directing it to issue a preliminary injunction in the case.

In the hearing before the court of appeals the representatives of the unions admitted the existence of an agreement that their members will not handle Buyer's shipments unless he sends them to the wharf by a transfer company operated entirely by union men; and the Old Dominion Transportation Co. admitted that it would not transport his shipments until its employees consented to handle them. This made the transportation company in effect a party to the combination, though it professed its desire to receive and transport all goods offered, and was only deterred by the refusal of its employees, members of unions, to handle goods delivered by nonunion workers. The court found that the circumstances were such as to cause Buyer to sustain, as he had sustained, damage of a special and irreparable nature, for which he has no adequate remedy at law, both on account of the uncertainty of the amount of the damage and the necessity of bringing a multiplicity of suits. The court acknowledged that its earlier views had been against the granting of an injunction in such a case, citing its conclusion in the case of Duplex Printing Press Co. v. Deering, 252 Fed. 722, when an injunction against a secondary boycott was refused. It had there assumed that the Clayton Act, section 20, had legalized such conduct, but its decision has since been reversed by the Supreme Court of United States (See Monthly Labor Review, February, 1921, pp. 165–168). It now appears that section 6 of the Clayton Act protects only such organizations as lawfully carry out legitimate objects and does not permit violations of the antitrust laws or illegal combinations in restraint of trade; while section 20 only restricts the issuance of injunctions in cases of dispute between the employers and employees. In the present case there was restraint of trade, and there was no dispute existing between Buyer and any person in his employment; the restrictive provisions were therefore found inapplicable under the construction placed upon the law by the Supreme Court. Under the circumstances the injunction was necessarily of a mandatory nature, "rarely granted on affadavits," but in view of the nature of the question it was found desirable both in the case of the public and for the clarifying of the situation between the parties in interest that a preliminary injunction issue at once. A direction therefore was accordingly issued to enjoin the transportation company and its men to accept and transport goods offered by the plaintiff.

HOUSING.

Notes on the Housing Situation in Northern Europe.

Denmark, 1919.1

A STUDY of houses and apartments in Danish cities made at the end of 1919 showed that the type of accommodation in most general use was the two-room apartment, constituting 39.2 per cent of the 330,119 studied.

The following table shows average yearly rent for 1918 and 1919.

AVERAGE YEARLY RENTS IN DANISH CITIES IN 1918 AND 1919, BY SIZE OF DWELLINGS.

[1 crown at par=26.8 cents.]

Size of dwelling.	Average yearly rent in—			
	Capital.		Provincial towns.	
	1918	1919	1918	1919
1 room and kitchen. 2 rooms and kitchen. 3 rooms and kitchen. 4 rooms and kitchen. 5 rooms and kitchen. 6 rooms and kitchen. 7 rooms and kitchen. 8 rooms and over and kitchen.	Crowns. 138 290 415 544 780 1,065 1,369 2,103	Crowns. 148 304 434 566 828 1,117 1,464 2,328	Crowns. 85 179 271 379 502 632 766 1,013	Crowns. 99 198 301 420 557 706 851 1,151

Since 1916 rents were found to have risen on an average 16.4 per cent in Copenhagen, and 32.9 per cent in the smaller cities. In Copenhagen the increases ranged from 13 per cent in the case of apartments of one room and kitchen to 22 per cent on apartments of eight or more rooms. In the smaller cities the lowest increase was 30.3 per cent in the case of apartments of two rooms and kitchen, and the largest 38.4 per cent in the case of six rooms and kitchen.

Finland.2

A CCORDING to a survey made in 1919 there was a shortage in Finnish cities and towns of some 50,000 rooms, or between 16,000 and 17,000 apartments of the two-room and kitchen type. It was proposed that the building campaign of 1920 should be restricted to providing about one-tenth of these, the limitation being due partly to the cost of building, and partly to the labor situation.

¹ From Sociale Meddelelser utgitt av Departementet for Sociale Saker, Christiania, 1920. No. 9, pp. 980-981.
² From Sociale Meddelelser utgitt av Departementet for Sociale Saker, Christiania, 1920. No. 9, pp. 983-984.

There was a shortage of building labor in the cities, and it was felt that any attempt at an ambitious building program would tend to draw in labor from the country districts, thus increasing the urban

congestion and intensifying the housing problem.

To meet the needs of the situation the State and the municipalities are cooperating, the State having appropriated 20,000,000 marks (\$3,860,000, par) in March, 1920. Building costs have risen to about ten times what they were before the war. It is expected that when prices reach their new permanent level they will be about 45 per cent below the present figures. On dwellings put up in 1920, therefore, a loss of 45 per cent might reasonably be anticipated, and of this loss the State undertakes to bear two-thirds on condition that the municipality assumes the other third and in addition provides the site for the building. Aid is to be given in the form of noninterestbearing loans running for 10 years, at the end of which time they are to be adjusted according to the cost of building at that date. Grants are to be made only to building enterprises carried on by municipalities themselves, or by public utility companies under municipal control. State-aided building is to be confined, for the most part, to the production of apartments not exceeding two rooms and kitchen in size.

Norway.3

HE housing situation in Norway presents a puzzling problem. Christiania alone some 6,000 families, numbering from 17,000 to 18,000 persons, were registered with the municipal housing bureau as in urgent need of accommodation, which the bureau was unable to supply. As a result a number of families have been temporarily broken up, individual members seeking shelter wherever it could be found, while numbers of others are crowded together in inadequate and insanitary quarters. For Norway as a whole it is estimated that at least 30,000 new dwellings are needed, while the number built

during the last year amounted at most to 3,000.

Building activities, however, have been retarded because of steady increase of prices and wages. Rapid increase in Christiania is shown from the fact that during January 1,000 bricks cost 66 crowns (\$17.69, par), and half a year later cost 115 crowns (\$30.82, par); lime rose from 82 (\$21.98, par) to 115 crowns per ton; cement from 21.80 to 36 or 37 crowns (\$5.84 to \$9.65 or \$9.92, par) per barrel; and iron materials, beams, etc., from 550 to 850 crowns (\$147.40 to \$227.80, par) per ton. In 1914 a single new-built room cost 1,800 crowns (\$482.40, par), 4,000 crowns (\$1,072, par) in 1917, 6,000 crowns (\$1,608, par) at beginning of 1919, and according to a later report now costs between 8,000 and 8,300 crowns (\$2,144 and \$2,224.40, par), making a two-room apartment with kitchen cost about 25,000 crowns (\$6,700, par) in a three-story commune building.

To help the situation the municipalities are carrying on a building program. So far Christiania has appropriated 89,000,000 crowns (\$23,852,000, par) to be used either for the erection of houses by the municipality or for loans to private builders, and other cities appropriated varying sums, according to their size, for similar purposes.

From Sociale Meddelelser utgitt av Departementet for Sociale Saker, Christiania, 1920. No. 9, pp. 1212. Lecture at Nordisk nasjonaløkonomisk meeting, Stockholm, Aug. 31, 1920, by Direcktør Iv. Rummelhoff.

An effort is being made to promote cooperative building enterprises, and the Christiania Garden City Society has been formed, with plans for a garden city of 650 dwellings, of which 240 are already completed. In 1919 the State appropriated 5,000,000 crowns for housing purposes, and in 1920 doubled this appropriation. More than this, its budget will not permit, but in view of the crying need the Government is considering a comprehensive plan for aiding housing production. It is suggested that a housing department be formed, with a minister at its head who shall be responsible to Parliament, and that a special tax shall be imposed for the purpose of providing a national building fund. In connection with this, there is a proposal to reorganize the whole building industry under State control, to make a comprehensive survey of the situation, and then to direct both building capital and building labor steadily to the production of what this survey shows is needed, in the order of its importance. By these means it might be possible to regularize employment in the building trades, and to prevent the use of workers upon luxury building while housing is urgently needed.

Sweden.4

A RECENT investigation into municipal housing in Stockholm showed 8,286 dwellings either owned or managed by the city. Among these small apartments predominated, 25.5 per cent consisting of one-room apartments, 41.6 having one room and kitchen, and 15 per cent having two rooms and kitchen.

House rents in municipal dwellings compared with average rent in

all dwellings are shown in the following table:

AVERAGE YEARLY RENTS IN SWEDEN IN 1919, BY SIZE OF DWELLING.

[1 crown at par=26.8 cents.]

Size of dwelling.	Average rent per apartment without central heat.		Per cent average municipal rents are of
	Municipal dwellings.	All dwellings.	average rents for all dwellings.
One room without kitchen. One room and kitchen. Two rooms and kitchen. Three rooms and kitchen.	Crowns. 170 295 358 516	Crowns. 242 359 577 880	70. 2 82. 2 62. 0 58. 6

The house rents in commune apartments show a difference of 20 to 45 per cent compared to average for whole of Stockholm. In a survey of housing conditions of commune functionaries and workers the one-room and kitchen apartment was the most common type, and 85 per cent of their dwellings were small apartments of up to two rooms and kitchen. Thirteen and one-tenth per cent of the apartments, housing 24.7 per cent of total persons in small apartments, were overcrowded, an apartment being considered overcrowded when there were more

⁴ From Sociale Meddelelser utgitt av Departementet for Sociale Saker, Christiania, 1920. No. 9, pp. 981-983.

than two people per room, kitchen included. In 1915–16, 19.1 per cent of the small apartments, housing 31.7 per cent of total persons in small apartments, were overcrowded, these figures being much higher than corresponding figures for commune functionaries.

Housing Measures in Czechoslovakia.

RECENT report¹ on Czechoslovakia contains an appendix, written by the Czechoslovakian minister of social welfare, which gives in some detail the measures by which that country has endeavored to meet the housing situation. When the new Republic came into existence in October, 1918, it found itself facing a serious housing shortage, and as an immediate step, adopted for Bohemia, Moravia, and Silesia the Austrian, and for Slovakia the Hungarian legislation which had up to that time been in effect. This was not extensive. The Austrian laws had offered certain inducements for building, especially for building small houses, and had provided a State building fund, to be used in making building loans to districts, municipalities, and public-utility building societies. It had also allowed some tax exemptions on buildings put up for use as small dwellings, a small dwelling being defined as one in which the floor space, not including such features as halls, bathroom, kitchen, and, in some cases, servant's room, does not exceed 861.1 square feet. These laws had been passed before 1914. When the war broke out, its immediate effect was a reduction in the demand for houses, soon followed by an increased demand for small dwellings, especially in the towns where the war industries were concentrated, and by a rise in rents. To meet this situation, the Austrian Government passed various laws protecting tenants and prohibiting speculation in dwellings. In Slovakia, up to the outbreak of the war, there had been practically no housing legislation, but the last-mentioned laws for the protection of tenants, passed in 1916 and 1917, were made applicable to Slovakia, as well as to the three Czech territories.

The formation of the new Republic, October 28, 1918, was followed by a sharp increase in the perplexities of the housing situation:

The shortage of dwellings which had been felt from the year 1917 on was suddenly manifested, as if overnight, in its full extent. The result of the collapse of Austria and the foundation of an independent state was that a large number of state and other employees and of the civil population arrived in the Republic from the other parts of the former Austrian territories, especially from Vienna, and there were also many families of railway men who came from Poland. All these sought new homes within the territory of the Republic. The hasty demobilization, the return of soldiers from prison, and repatriation from abroad brought additional thousands of citizens into the Republic, and the greater part of these were also seeking houses. There were no dwellings for the people; there were no public buildings for the new offices which had to be speedily organized. These conditions made the house shortage more acute, especially in Prague and in the other large towns of the Republic, which became the headquarters of new official departments.

¹ United States Department of Labor. The Economic Situation in Czechoslovakia in 1920. Washington, 1921; Appendix III—Housing legislation in Czechoslovakia, by Dr. L. Winter, minister of social westers.

Laws Passed to Relieve the Emergency.

ONE of the first tasks was to secure protection for tenants, who found that the lack of houses left them at the mercy of the landlords, who were in some cases disposed to take full advantage of their position. For this purpose a bill was passed in 1918, and additional legislation in 1919 and 1920 strengthened and extended its provisions. These laws deal with the landlord's right to dispossess tenants and to increase rents. The grounds on which notices to quit may be issued are carefully defined, differing somewhat according to the size of the city and character of the dwelling. The most important is the landlord's need of the dwelling to use as a habitation for himself, his relatives, or his workmen. Sanction of a court is required before notice to quit may be given. Subtenants have the same protection as those who rent directly from the landlord.

The landlord has the right to increase the rent of a dwelling up to 20 per cent over what was paid August 1, 1914. An increase greater than this is allowed only for four reasons specifically stated in the law, and only after permission has been given by the municipal rent office,

or, where there is no such office, by the district court.

The increase in rent above 20 per cent is inter alia permissible for reasons connected with periodical or exceptionally urgent repairs or renovations of a house. In such a case the office deciding upon the increase must take into account factors involving the property and earnings of the landlord and the tenant, as well as other circumstances of the case, and, at the discretion of the office, the increase in cost can be transferred entirely or partially to the tenant.

A second emergency measure provided for the confiscation of dwellings by the municipalities. Under regulations passed January 22, 1919, the political authorities of a province can authorize any municipality in which there is a considerable shortage of dwellings to confiscate for housing use all empty or only partially occupied dwellings, as well as spare rooms in the larger dwellings. This authorization is to be revoked as soon as the shortage of dwellings is at an end. By an amendment, made in October, 1919, the right of confiscation can be exercised only in favor of persons who for public reasons are obliged to reside in a given municipality, and it is further provided that an owner threatened with confiscation may escape it by providing new buildings as a substitute. It was hoped that the wealthy would build rather than have their spare rooms taken without their consent, and experience shows that this has actually been the effect. Those who can not build quite generally try to prevent confiscation by filling their buildings voluntarily to their fullest capacity, so that although confiscations have been exceptional, the law has been effective. It was to expire with 1920, but as the dwellings are now fully occupied, its expiration is not likely to affect the

In connection with this, another law was passed, restricting the right to change residences, which also was to be valid only till the end of 1920. Those desiring to move into a municipality were obliged to notify the municipal offices at least a month previously and obtain their permission to do so.

The object of this law was to prevent such frequently occurring cases as where persons who had hitherto lived in the country and during the war had acquired a large amount of property, desired to move from the country into the large towns and especially to Prague.

Measures Designed to Stimulate Building of Houses.

BY THESE measures it was hoped to relieve the temporary emergency, but to remove that emergency the authorities set earnestly to work to promote the building of more houses. For this purpose the State has undertaken measures of five kinds: (1) The expropriation of land for building purposes; (2) provision of credit for municipalities, district authorities, or public-utility societies who will embark in building enterprises; (3) grants to private persons who will build; (4) exemption of new housing from certain taxes; and (5) regulation of the price and production of building materials.

1. In December, 1919, a law was passed, good for five years only, permitting the expropriation of land to be used for building operations carried on by the State, by district authorities, municipalities, or public-utility societies. The land may be used for housing or for public buildings. "The whole management, including the fixing of compensation, is placed in the hands of official administrative depart-

ments."

2. In 1919 the Government appropriated 5,000,000 crowns (\$965,000, par) for housing purposes, and in 1920 an additional grant of 25,000,000 crowns (\$4,825,000, par) was made. These funds were to be used only for building enterprises undertaken by municipalities, district authorities, or public-utility societies, and for these the Government undertakes to guarantee loans made upon the prospective buildings.

The State binds itself to pay the creditor the interest on the loan and to pay off the loan itself if the debtor should be unable to meet his liabilities, and also undertakes to pay that portion of the annual expenses for which the amount derived from the rent is insufficient.

This legislation stirred the public building societies to immediate activity, but at first the municipalities showed little interest in the matter. About the middle of 1919, however, elections were held, and were for the first time on a basis of universal suffrage. This extension of the suffrage led to the election, in many cases, of a new class of municipal officeholders, many of whom had themselves suffered severely from the housing shortage, and who at once bestirred themselves to get the advantage of the new funds for building purposes. The extension of the suffrage, therefore, "had the unexpected effect that the municipalities which theretofore had not devoted the desired attention to building at last entered upon the building of new houses."

3. In March, 1920, another fund of 250,000,000 crowns (\$48,250,000, par) was created, to be used in grants to private persons who before the end of the year 1921 would build habitable houses "containing at least four dwellings, in towns where the housing shortage had not been remedied by the building activities of municipal authorities or building societies." The builder of such houses is given a grant of 40 per cent of the estimated cost of the building, no restriction being imposed upon him in return, except that if he wishes to sell the State or the municipality is entitled to the first option upon the building.

4. The tax exemptions granted in 1920 apply only to houses built before the end of 1921. These are completely exempt from State house taxes for 20 years, and thereafter from one-fifth of these taxes

for as long as the buildings stand. They also receive certain exemp-

tions from divisional, district, and municipal taxes.

5. In 1919 it seemed as though measures belonging to these four groups would be sufficient to renew building and remove the shortage, but by 1920 the situation was less satisfactory. Credit was uncertain, and prices of building materials and wages had risen materially. Wages, it was admitted, had not risen more than the increased cost of living made necessary, but there was much complaint concerning building materials. The Government tried to meet this by arranging "a mutual agreement between producers and consumers, with participation by the Government, to fix the prices of building materials on the basis of an open calculation of expenses of production." This proved unsatisfactory because of uncertainty as to expenses in a time of rapidly changing price levels, and the State therefore adopted drastic and wide-reaching powers in the matter.

The State administration is vested not merely with an influence upon the regulation of the prices of building materials, but also with authority to compel the carrying on of concerns producing, supplying, or transporting building materials in a manner conducive to public interest. In accordance with this law the State administration can intrust the supervision of the business of the concern to a public corporation or to a building society serving the general interests or to an individual whom it appoints especially for this purpose by arrangement with the corporation in whose interests the measures are taken. The person intrusted with the supervision of the business of the concern has in particular the authority to fix the prices of products or of transport in accordance with calculated actual expenses of production, taking into account the items involved by amortization, interest, and profit. He also has the authority to decide which building enterprises must be supplied with building material. Decisions as to compensation will be made by an administrative process.

The result of all these measures, particularly of this latter, is not yet apparent. The State feels that it is doing much to meet the demand for houses, but it also feels that of the many problems facing the new republic, one of the most urgent "still continues to be the building of new dwellings."

Housing Notes from Other Foreign Countries.

England (Liverpool).1

Liverpool has made good progress despite the difficulties encountered by way of men, materials, and money. The results up to the present time as recently summarized by a prominent local labor leader and member of Parliament, are as follows: More than 12,000 acres of land have been acquired. Contracts have been entered into for the erection of 6,289 houses, and further contracts are under consideration. In addition a scheme for the conversion of a large military hutment camp into a village of 484 temporary houses is approaching completion, and 366 of these houses are already occupied. Of the permanent houses 156 are completed and tenanted, while 1,422 are in the course of erection, the cost of the work actually in hand being estimated at about \$38,932,000. The houses are considered to

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ Data from December, 1920, Report on Commerce and Industries, forwarded by the Department of State.

be of good design, and the sites are laid out so as to provide about 10 houses to the acre and good sized gardens, back and front, are attached to each house. Special efforts are made for the preservation of trees, and provision is being made for communal centers, including stores, public buildings, schools, and libraries.

France.2

THE housing of the laboring classes is one of the most serious problems in the devasted regions of France. The comparatively rapid restoration of numerous industrial centers has in no small degree increased the gravity of the situation. In fact in many localities the rebuilding of factories and the installation of equipment have preceded in many cases to a marked degree the construction of dwellings for the personnel. Furthermore it should be noted that many proprietors prefer to utilize the indemnity received from the National

Government otherwise than for the rebuilding of dwellings.

On August 1, 1920, 75 per cent of the damaged industrial establishments were in operation, but only 42.8 per cent of the prewar personnel was employed. Although the lack of adequate housing facilities is not the sole cause of present conditions, yet in many cases it has prevented a larger development of production and the employment of a greater number of workmen. Recently the Office de Reconstitution Industrielle made an investigation in this respect relative to the situation of 1,688 large industrial establishments in different sections of the devasted regions.

Prior to the war these establishments employed 273,195 persons and represented from this point of view 26.22 per cent of the total personnel of the industrial establishments in the devasted regions. It appears from the investigation that housing facilities for about 75 per cent of the absent working classes will be assured, if the rebuilding of dwellings continue at the same rate as in the past. Consequently special measures must be taken for housing the remaining 25

per cent.

It is maintained that, in addition to the dwellings which will be erected in the natural course of events, provision must be made for housing 50,000 families representing an outlay of 1,000,000,000 francs [\$193,000,000, par]. This program is a minimum for it presumes that the 600,000 workmen who have resumed work are housed in a satisfactory and permanent manner. However, this is far from being the case. If the industrial reconstitution continues at the same rate as in the preceding months, it will be necessary to provide for housing 30,000 families at the end of the present year. It is estimated that this will represent an outlay of about 600,000,000 francs [\$115-800,000, par].

The Office de Reconstitution Industrielle has adopted a plan which tends to encourage the formation of building companies (Sociétés Régionales Immobilières). These companies will enjoy in a marked degree exemption from taxes and exceptional facilities for procuring funds. It is expected that these companies, which are to a certain extent under Government control, will be able to erect dwellings at

about the same price as in the prewar period.

² Fron the American consul at Nancy, France, Jan. 24, 1921.

Japan.3

MATTERS of local importance during the year were measures taken to relieve the housing congestion, in connection with which the city borrowed 600,000 yen (\$299,100, par) from the home department at a low rate of interest for the construction of dwelling houses to be rented to the poorer classes. Nineteen of these have been completed and are in use, while 14 more are in course of construction. In all, 154 are to be built on four different sites. Rents charged by the city range from 8 to 20 yen (\$3.99 to \$9.97, par) a month.

A private company with a similar object was established in August, 1919, with a nominal capital of 2,000,000 yen (\$997,000 par)—500,000 yen (\$249,250, par) paid up—secured three tracts of land and has actually built 60 houses, which are at present occupied, others being

in process of construction.

During the year rents advanced 20 to 50 per cent, houses were badly overcrowded, and priests' houses and even Buddhist temples themselves were rented for dwellings.

Netherlands.4

FOR the first time the erection of more or less portable wooden houses for permanent occupancy has commenced in Holland. A building society in Rotterdam (the Heyplaat Building Society) has imported five houses from Austria and has erected them near the plant of the Rotterdam Drydock Co. for the use of the employees of the latter company and has ordered 20 more of a similar kind. The houses erected cost from 3,250 to 3,300 guilders (\$1,306.50 to \$1,326.60, par). The others ordered are to cost from 3,400 to 3,500 guilders (\$1,366.80 to \$1,407, par). Each house contains a sitting room of 16 square meters (172.2 sq.ft.), three sleeping apartments, and is well ventilated and substantially built, the total inside area being 47.85 square meters (514.9 sq.ft.). The houses are arranged for one family each and have been erected in connection with a "garden village" or model tenement establishment owned by the same concern and made up of typical Dutch dwellings.

Practically nothing has been done in the way of the erection of wooden dwellings in Holland, especially buildings of this sort. During the war wooden barracks for soldiers and for interned British and other troops, as well as for emergency hospitals and the like, were constructed from material obtained locally, but practically all buildings for permanent occupancy are constructed of brick, stone, or concrete. This has been due partly to the comparatively high cost of wood, most of which must be imported, as well as to the nature of the cli-

mate and the policy of building authorities.

From American consulate, Nagoya, Japan, Nov. 30, 1920.
 From the American consul general at Rotterdam, Jan. 19, 1921.

Peru.

A CCORDING to the Bulletin of the Pan American Union (Washington) for February, 1921, the President of Peru has promulgated a law authorizing the issue of bonds to the amount of 300,000 Peruvian pounds (\$1,459,950, par), the proceeds to be used for the building of workingmen's dwellings in Lima and Callao. In addition, the municipality of Callao has been given authority to contract a loan of 45,000 Peruvian pounds (\$218,992.50, par) to construct houses for workers in that city.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS AND LABOR CONDITIONS.

Negro Labor During and After the War.

STUDIES of what colored people have done in industry are relatively few, so that a special value attaches to a report recently issued by the Department of Labor on the industrial experiences of Negroes during the war and the reconstruction period. The report contains an account of the formation and work of the Division of Negroe Economics, a discussion of the work of Negroes in the more important war industries, with tables showing how they compared with white workers in various respects, and a chapter upon the work of colored women during the war. In addition, it contains a report upon the race troubles in Chicago, and reports from various States, discussing several aspects of the work of the Division of Negro Economics, and showing the methods adopted to meet the special problems of different localities.

Formation of Division of Negro Economics.

HIS division was formed to meet the situation brought about by the Negro migration from the South, combined with the importance of maintaining a supply of labor for the basic industries during the war. During the years 1916, 1917, and 1918, Negro migrants, their number being variously estimated at from 400,000 to 600,000 or more, left the South and scattered throughout the North, going largely to industrial centers. Some were skilled workmen who formed a valuable addition to the labor force of their new abodes; some were unskilled, but strong and willing workers; some were trifling and worthless or actively detrimental. In the main, the migration was unplanned, and in the cities in which the newcomers congregated highly undesirable conditions of overcrowding and exploitation developed before the community woke up to what was going on. Negro quarters became terribly congested, and efforts to spread out into adjoining neighborhoods aroused alarm and opposition. Organized labor looked doubtfully on the new recruits, many employers feared racial troubles if they should employ them, and politicians and demagogues of both races saw profit to themselves in stirring up and intensifying all the elements of suspicion and distrust. Meantime, the United States entered the war, and there was at one and the same time a great necessity for production and an increasing scarcity of workers. The country could not afford to allow the potential labor power of the Negroes to be wasted by insanitary surroundings, by racial jealousies, or by the failure of employers to see its possibilities. In May, 1918, therefore, the Secretary of Labor

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¹ United States Department of Labor. The Negro at work during the World War and during reconstruction. Division of Negro Economics. Washington, 1920. 144 pp.

created the office of director of Negro economics, and appointed as its first holder Dr. George E. Haynes.

The function of this official was to advise the Secretary and the directors and chiefs of the several bureaus and divisions of the department on matters relating to Negro wage earners, and to outline and promote plans for greater cooperation between Negro wage earners, white employers, and white workers in agriculture and industry.

The outstanding difficulty to be overcome was the suspicion which both the colored and the white people, especially of the South, felt as to the ulterior purposes of the department's efforts to aid in handling the problems of Negro labor. A less fundamental but sufficiently serious difficulty was found in local circumstances which affected the working together of the two races. Cooperation between the races was the underlying need, and to secure it three lines of activity were decided upon:

1. The organization of cooperative committees of white and colored citizens in the States and localities where problems of Negro labor arise, due to large numbers of Negro workers

2. The development of a publicity or educational campaign to create good feeling between the races, and to have both white and Negro citizens understand and cooper-

ate with the purpose and plans of the department.

3. The appointment of Negro staff workers in the States and localities to develop this organization of committees, to conduct this work of better racial labor relations, and to assist the several divisions and services of the department in mobilizing and stabilizing Negro labor for winning the war.

A beginning was made in North Carolina, where, at a conference of white and colored citizens held in the governor's office, a State Negro workers' advisory committee was formed, and plans were laid for organizing local city and county committees. This method of inorganizing local city and county committees. troducing the work by a preliminary conference of leading citizens of both races was found so successful that it was quite generally used thereafter. Within six months from the time of beginning this work, advisory committees by States, counties, and cities had been wholly or partly formed in 11 States, and by the time the armistice was signed a beginning of the work had been made in 3 "In all, 11 State committees, and about 225 local other States. county and city committees, with a membership numbering more than 1,000, were appointed."

The bringing together in this fashion of white and colored citizens to consider industrial problems involving the relations of the two races was perhaps as important a result as any obtained during the period of the division's activities, but naturally their discussions led to and aided in the accomplishment of a number of practical measures. In general, a staff of colored workers was created to serve as intermediary between the different committees, and as executives in carrying the conclusions of the committees into effect, and also, to deal at first hand with difficulties as they arose. The work was carried on in closest cooperation with other branches of the Federal service, especially with the Employment Service of the Department of Labor. The particular work done varied with the conditions prevailing in the different States. Local committees dealt with the difficulties of individual communities, district and State committees gathered data concerning the State-wide problems, and laid plans for meeting them. A campaign was carried on for training in industrial efficiency, in thrift, in care of health, and the like. The teachers and preachers of each locality were enlisted in the campaign, mass meetings were held, the cooperation of employers was secured, pamphlets and addresses were circulated, outside speakers were sent—in short, all legitimate means of working up a public sentiment were employed. The Negro's intelligence, his social instincts, his religious fervor, his patriotism, and his race consciousness were all called into play to make him throw himself, heart and soul, into the production of war supplies or food supplies, and, after the war was over, to prove himself a good craftsman and worker.

Such a campaign was desirable to promote the morale of the colored workers, but to make their work truly effective there was need of patient study and effort to improve conditions of individual plants, the attitude of individual employers, and the relations between specific groups of white and colored workers. Wherever there was trouble in connection with colored workers, an attempt was made to find and remove the causes. The range of work was varied. Thus in one State where there was dissatisfaction, investigation showed:

(1) That many North Carolina laborers had been recruited through employment agencies and in an indiscriminating way many of the "shiftless" and "unstable" had been imported into North Carolina cities; (2) no particular opportunity had been offered to thrifty, dependable workmen to buy homes and to become permanent residents of the State.

Both these difficulties were taken in hand, "and the close of the work found at each particular point but a few scattered persons who might be designated as 'shiftless."

In other places dissatisfaction and labor turnover were traced to insanitary conditions in the plants, which the employers were induced to remedy; or to lack of housing or boarding accommodations, resulting in a degree of discomfort hardly endurable; or inefficiency was traced to a failure to give the worker any opportunity to learn the best ways of doing his work; or, in occasional instances, it was found that the foreman or other person in authority simply did not understand how to manage colored workers, and that it was impossible to obtain good results from them until a different type of supervisor was installed. In some cases it was found that racial troubles were brewing, due sometimes to honest misapprehensions, sometimes to unwise labor policies, and sometimes to political machinations, and much time and effort were devoted to removing causes and preventing the threatened conflicts from materializing. In short, the whole effort of the Division of Negro Economics was to secure the best possible adjustment between the worker and his environment, thereby improving his capacity both as a producer and as a citizen.

Industrial Employment of Negroes.

THE data concerning the industrial employment of Negroes during and after the war are necessarily fragmentary, but they suffice to show something of the extent to which colored workers became factors in production. The wide distribution of their labor is shown by a table giving data for 292 establishments in 26 States and the District of Columbia, which were, in 1918, employing 129,708 white and 62,340 colored workers. Of these, 151 were engaged solely on

war work, 99 reported that from 50 to 99 per cent of their activities was war work, and only 11 reported 25 per cent or less of war work.

Another table gives comparative hours worked and rates of earnings for white and colored workers in 23 establishments covering six basic industries—foundries, slaughtering and meat packing, automobiles, coke ovens, iron and steel and their products, and glass manufacturing. In the 23 plants there were 85 occupations in which colored and white men, each to the number of five or more, were engaged, and as to which, therefore, it was felt that comparisons could fairly be made. Only 8 of these were skilled occupations. In these, the Negroes showed in four cases a greater number of hours worked per week and in four a less, so that apparently honors were easy between the races as to regularity and steadiness of attendance. In two cases the Negroes received higher average hourly earnings than the whites, and in six lower. In the semiskilled occupations, of which there were 25, their average weekly hours of attendance were the same or higher than those of the white workers in 20 cases and lower in 5, while their average hourly earnings were higher in 8 cases, the same in 12, and lower in 5. There were 52 unskilled occupations in which both races were employed in numbers sufficient to justify a comparison. In 23 of these the Negroes showed higher average hours of attendance than the whites, in 13 the same, and in 16 a lower average. In 18 cases their average hourly earnings were greater than those of the whites, in 12 they were the same, and in 22 they were lower.

The significance of these data lies in their bearing upon the relative faithfulness and efficiency of the colored and white workers. The comparison is in each case between white and colored workers employed in the same establishment, at the same occupation, and presumably under the same conditions. This being so, the average number of hours worked per week would be an index to the regularity with which the workers presented themselves and kept at their work without taking days or parts of days off. From the standpoint of time keeping, then, the colored workers surpassed the white in 34 cases, equaled them in 26, and fell below them in 25; or, to put it the other way round, the white workers showed better time keeping than the colored in 25 cases, equal in 26, and worse in 34. Similarly, average hourly earnings would indicate either the rapidity with which the worker turned out piecework or the steadiness with which he kept at his work, or both. In 28 cases the colored had higher average hourly earnings than the white workers, in 24 the same, and in 33 lower; or, again, to reverse the statement, the white workers showed greater earning power than the colored in 33 cases, the same in 24 cases, and less in 28 cases. These showings become doubly significant when the Negro's comparative unfamiliarity with factory

life and routine is taken into consideration.

Another table deals with the employers' views of the opportunities and achievements of their colored as compared with their white workers. Data were secured from 38 employers with a force of 101,458 white and 6,757 colored workers. The first question was: To what extent are Negroes admitted to skilled occupations? Eighteen employers responded that they were admitted to the full extent of their ability, or on the same basis as white workers, or

that no discrimination of any kind was made; 11 admitted them to some skilled occupations, but not to all; 7 definitely excluded them from skilled occupations; and 2 answered the question vaguely or not at all. On the other hand, 32 expressed themselves as willing to promote Negroes to the ranks of the skilled, if they gained the necessary efficiency; most of these claimed to give their colored workmen the same opportunity as the whites for learning skilled or semiskilled processes. Only 3 definitely said they would not give Negroes the same chance as white men, either for learning advanced processes or for employment in them when learned.

To the question, Do the Negro workmen show ambition for advancement? the answers were on the whole favorable to the workers' desire to advance themselves. Two employers failed to respond and four said definitely, "No." Nineteen answered "Yes," and the remaining 13 gave some qualified answer, indicating that some but not all did. Of the 19 who answered affirmatively, 16 were among those who admitted colored workmen to some or all of their skilled occupations, a fact which might have some bearing upon the degree of ambition manifested by the workmen.

Asked whether there was any difference in the behavior of white and colored workers in the plant, 30 employers said "No." Two said "Yes," but did not mention what it was, 4 thought the Negroes did not work as steadily, 1 complained of bad time keeping, and 1 thought they were "not as serious" as white workers, but did not explain whether this was a drawback or the reverse. Asked if there was any difference in the amount of material wasted due to defective workmanship, 2 did not reply, 7 said they kept no record which would permit the comparison, 1 said there was a greater loss with the Negro workers, and 28 said there was no difference. Four employers thought the time required for breaking in a new employee was longer for colored than for white workers, 11 kept no record, 21

Other sections deal with the increase in number of Negroes employed in meat-packing plants during the period covered, and with their work in shipyards, especially the degree to which they were engaged in skilled labor. Over 24,000 were employed during the war in the eight principal shipyard districts, of whom about one-fifth were skilled. In September, 1919, the number had fallen to 14,075, but of these the percentage of skilled was 27.5, showing that the Negroes were holding their footing better in the skilled than in the unskilled occupations.

found no difference, and 2 did not answer.

Negro Women in Industry.

THIS chapter presents a summary of the data secured by the Women's Bureau in a survey made during the period beginning December, 1918, and ending June, 1919. Data were gathered from 152 plants, located in the Middle West and parts of New Jersey, Virginia, and Pennsylvania, employing more than 21,000 colored women. The largest number in any one industry were working upon tobacco, 5,965 being employed at stemming tobacco, and 2,373 in the preparation of chewing tobacco and of snuff. The next largest group, numbering 5,538, was in office work, and the next in the packing industry, where 3,282 were employed in the stockyards and

abattoirs. Other groups were in textile and garment-making industries, in munition works and arsenals, in machine shops, in rubber plants, in power laundries, in transportation, in department stores, in elevator service, in hotel and office building work, and, of course,

in all forms of domestic and personal service.

The working conditions varied from good to extremely bad. In many instances the colored women were brought in, as a matter of war emergency, to fill positions formerly held by men, and no provisions for their health and comfort had been made. In other cases, employers, finding that they would have to make use of women, altered their plants so as to provide all reasonable conveniences, employed a welfare worker, and generally did all they could to make conditions satisfactory. In the tobacco industry conditions were in the main undesirable, which was particularly unfortunate, as a large number of the workers were young girls, in many instances apparently below the legal working age.

Opinions varied as to the desirability of colored women as workers. In general, they had been taken on only because other workers were not available, they were apt to be given the least desirable work, and in a number of cases conditions were not such as to lead to maximum efficiency. Consequently, it is not surprising that some employers

were not satisfied as to their value.

Of 34 employers who expressed a definite opinion on the subject, 14 said that they found the work of Negro women as satisfactory as other woman workers, and 3 found their work better than that of the white women they were working with or had displaced. Of the 17 employers who felt that the work of Negro women did not compare satisfactorily with that of the white women, 7 reported that irregularity of attendance was the main cause for dissatisfaction, and 7 others felt that the output of the Negro women was less because they were slower workers.

One serious lack often found was the absence of any means for training the women to perform their new duties efficiently and rapidly. Such instruction was particularly needed, as often the women had had no previous experience fitting them for their new duties, and where such training was given they seemed to respond well.

As is the case with any group new to a situation, Negro women on entering industry have need of patient, careful training in all processes required of them, and in the use of all machinery employed in the specific work assigned to them. Such training plus the opportunity to advance individually or in groups, as their increasing skill may warrant, has been found profitable by most of the employers who are awake to the possibilities of Negro women as workers. Eighty per cent of the employers interviewed who had given a trial to the training-plus-opportunity method reported little or no difficulty with these workers, while 30 per cent expressed a preference for Negro women because of their cheerfulness, willingness, and loyalty in response to

Concerning the permanency of colored women in industry, the report is somewhat doubtful. They were taken on as a war emergency, and in a number of cases employers had either discharged them soon after the signing of the armistice, or intended to do so as soon as the shortage of labor became less acute. Other employers saw no reason for making any change. There is much need of a further study to show their position now that the stress of the war period has ceased to affect industry.

Eliminating Waste in American Industry.

THE question of deficiency in production—industrial waste in a broad sense—was brought to the attention of the professional engineers of the country at a meeting of the American Engineering Council's executive board and convention of engineers at Syracuse on February 14 by Herbert Hoover, president of the American Engineering Council. From 100,000 to 200,000 professional engineers were represented. Mr. Hoover pointed out that it is possible for engineers to perform a very large service to industry and to the country itself by coordinating industrial activity so as to reach the one objective, namely, maximum production through the elimination of waste in all its forms. He proposes to make a preliminary examination of the volume of waste in certain industries to ascertain the proportion that lies in each field of fault and then to suggest remedies, for "no engineering report is worth the paper it is written upon without constructive suggestions in remedy."

The waste in our production is measured by the unemployment, the lost time due to labor conflict, the losses in labor turnover, the failure to secure maximum production of the individual due either to misfit or lack of interest. Beyond this again is a wide area of waste in the poor coordination of great industries, the failures in transportation, coal, and power supplies which reecho daily to interrupt the steady operation of industry. There are again such other wastes, due to lack of standardization, to speculation, to mismanagement, to inefficient national equipment and a hundred other causes. There is a certain proof of deficient production by comparisons of our intense results in 1918, when, with 20 per cent of our man power withdrawn into the Army, we yet produced 20 per cent more commodities than we are doing to-day. We are probably not producing more than 60 or 70 per cent of our capacity; that is, if we could synchronize all national efforts to maximum production, we could produce 30 or 40 per cent more commodities and service.

Mr. Hoover claims that there is no such thing as the Nation over-producing if it produces the right commodities. "There is no limit to consumption," he declares, "except the total capacity to produce, provided the surplus of productive power is constantly shifted to new articles from those that have reached the saturation point of demand." Increased production would mean a directly increasing standard of living.

Some of the most important areas of waste were suggested. The largest lies in the prolonged periods of slack production and of unemployment, the remedy for which would be for industry to do its capital construction in periods of depression in commodity demand instead of in times of maximum demand, although it is admitted that when productivity is high capital is most easily obtained and the

necessity of increasing the equipment is emphasized.

Another form of unemployment waste occurs in seasonal industries, the bituminous-coal industry being cited as an example. Here men work only about 70 per cent of the time, and mining engineers have pointed out the direction in which the remedy lies—through storage, through railroad-rate differentials, etc. "Through constructive action an army of men could be released from this industry of necessity to convert some luxury into a necessity of to-morrow." The second largest area of waste in productivity Mr. Hoover declares to be "the eternal amount of labor friction, strikes and lockouts." The solution lies in a reorganization of the whole employment relationship, and progress in this matter was suggested as one of the subjects for

consideration by professional engineers. Faulty distribution of the labor supply due to seasonal and shifting demands, which could be largely remedied by a national employment service, and a too high degree of individualism in certain basic products and tools were noted as two other varieties of waste in industry. This latter brought up the question of standardization "of certain national utensils" which it is believed would make for economy in distribution, in operation, and in repairs. The advantage arising from standardization of machinery and parts was demonstrated during the war.

Still another type of waste mentioned is our failure to advance our industrial equipment; for example, the saving of 25,000,000 to 50,000,000 tons of coal annually by the electrification of our eastern power supply, and the saving of 5 to 10 cents a bushel on grain to farmers of the Middle West by unlocking the Great Lakes to ocean-

going vessels.

Nor do we believe it is necessary to effect these things by the Government. The spirit of cooperation that has been growing in our country during the last 30 years has already solved many things; it has standardized some things and is ripe for initiative toward cooperation of a widespread character. The leadership of our Federal Government in bringing together the forces is needed. No greater field of service exists than the stimulation of such cooperation. The first step is sane analysis of weakness and sober proposal of remedy. If the facts can be established to an intelligent people such as ours, action is certain even if it be slow. Our engineers are in unique position for this service, and it is your obligation to carry it forward.

Declaration of Labor Principles by Conference of Representatives of National and International Trade-Unions.

N FEBRUARY 23-24, 1921, 93 officers and other representatives of the national and international trade-unions of America assembled in Washington with the executive council of the American Federation of Labor to consider the present position of the American trade-union movement, assailed, as its leaders believe it is, by reaction on the one hand and radicalism on the other. Stating that it is the unalterable determination of the American labor movement to resist at all costs certain influences believed to be inimical to labor, the conference calls for public support and recognition of the following principles:

The right of the working people of the United States to organize into trade-unions

for the protection of their rights and interests.

The right to, and practice of, collective bargaining by trade-unions through representatives of their own choosing.

The right to work and to cease work collectively.

The right collectively to bestow or withhold patronage. The right to the exercise of collective activities in furtherance of the welfare of

This conference proposes and urges public support for-

Enactment by Congress of legislation which shall protect the workers in their organized capacity against the concept that there is a property right in the labor of a human being. No application of the use of injunctions in industrial disputes where they would

not apply in the absence of such disputes.

Prohibition of immigration for a period of not less than two years.

More general application of the initiative and referendum in the political affairs of the United States and of our several States.

Removal by Congress of the usurped power of courts to declare unconstitutional laws enacted by Congress.

Election of judges.

Immediate restoration of exemption from or the repeal of all anticombination and so-called conspiracy laws.

Restoration of an adequate Federal employment service.

Administration of credit as a public trust in the interest of all the people.

Repeal by the States of all industrial court laws and all restrictive and coercive laws, including the so-called open port law of Texas, and freedom from decisions of courts holding trade-unions and individual members thereof liable in damages for the unlawful acts of others.

Enactment by Congress of a law declaring that labor organizations are not copart-

nerships and shall not be so treated in law or in equity.

Investigation by Congress of the activities of so-called private detective agencies in the field of industrial relations.

We urge upon the unorganized workers the urgent necessity of joining the unions

of their trades and callings, their haven of refuge and protection. We call upon the workers to resist the efforts to destroy trade-unions, whether by the false pretense of the "open shop," the usurped authority of courts through writs of injunction, or otherwise.

We call upon the trade-unions for a closer banding together, a greater solidarity and

unity of purpose.

We call for united support in the protection of standards of wages and conditions already gained and we summon the workers to continued efforts to increase the consuming power, raise the standards, and improve the conditions of life and work.

We call upon the workers and all of our people to give their support, their effort, and their combined strength of righteous purpose to this appeal for the preservation of the spirit and the letter of that great declaration which was written to guarantee to all Americans "the right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness," and freedom from involuntary servitude.

Apprenticeship Council for the Building Trades in Canada.1

THE national joint conference board of the building and construction industry, at a special meeting held in Montreal on January 3, adopted a plan for a national apprenticeship council of the building industry. * * * The report of the apprenticeship committee, as adopted by the board, recognizes the lack of inducements for boys to enter the building trades with any assurance that they will receive instruction that will make them efficient mechanics. The defects of the present system are stated to be neglect of the avenues of technical education; the intermittent nature of the employment of many boys without regard to their welfare; the practice of some employers of using boys only during rush periods, with consequent loss to the boy of opportunity for acquiring adequate knowledge of the trade. The problem was rendered more acute by the wastage of man-power by the war, and its seriousness is held to justify the present solution and to engage the cooperation of the building organization in applying it in practice. While good results are being obtained by various schemes now in operation in a number of trades, the report dwells on the advantages of a new scheme on a nation-wide scale and concludes: "Our hope of meeting the situation lies in the revival of a well-established and defined apprenticeship system, with a very definite objective, under the supervision and joint control of our respective organizations."

¹ Extracted from the Labor Gazette, Ottawa, for February, 1921, pp. 198-200.

The following scheme for a national apprenticeship council was approved:

National Apprenticeship Council.

1. There shall be established a representative body from within the organization of the building industry, charged with the advisory and supervisory functions as set out below, this body to be known as the National Apprenticeship Council of the Building Industry.

2. The national apprenticeship council shall consist of: (a) One employer for each branch of the building trade, (b) one journeyman from each branch of the building trade, (c) two architects and two industrial engineers, who shall be members of their respective organizations and parties to the rules governing the council.

3. The apprenticeship council shall have the power to make such regulations for the conduct of the council and the appointment of such officers as they from time to

time determine.

4. Local councils shall be formed under the authority of the national council, with power to carry out the rules and objects of the council as hereinafter set forth.

5. Local councils shall be constituted on the same basis as the national council, but shall have power to modify the number if in their judgment it is desirable.

6. The national council shall issue forms of indenture for each trade, to be used exclusively by all employers parties to this scheme and apprentices availing them-

selves of its operation.

7. The boys shall be apprentices to the employer, and the employer shall undertake to give every apprentice the fullest opportunity of efficiently learning the trade:
(a) In the workshop and on the job; (b) by attendance at a technical school for about one-sixth of his time, or not less than two half days each week during the employer's time and without deduction from wages; (c) the apprentice shall be bound to attend an evening course at least two evenings each week during school terms.

ployer's time and without deduction from wages; (c) the apprentice shall be bound to attend an evening course at least two evenings each week during school terms.

8. The council shall assume responsibility with the employer for providing appropriate facilities for the apprentice to learn all branches of his trade, and to this end shall become party to the indenture. The responsibility is, however, subject to the right of the council to dissolve the apprenticeship in case of serious default on the part

of either party.

9. The local apprenticeship council shall prescribe the terms and conditions of apprenticeship to the various trades in each area, subject to the approval of the national council. It shall determine the period of apprenticeship, the rate of wages to be paid, the hours of labor, the working conditions, and all other matters relating to the training of apprentices.

10. The local council shall arrange where possible with the local educational authorities for classes for apprentices, and make arrangements for the hours and period during

which apprentices shall attend.

11. Local councils can for cause cancel indentures when considered desirable or arrange for the permanent transfer of an apprentice from one employer to another.

12. An examination board of not less than three members shall be appointed by the council and shall conduct the examination for apprentices at stated periods.

13. The local council shall determine the number of apprentices which may be necessary in their own area to maintain the efficiency, due regard being had to the possibilities for the future expansion or contraction, and it shall regulate the admission of apprentices to the various trades in accordance with these conditions, and subject to the trade agreements existing between the employer and employees.

14. In order that apprentices working under the direction and supervision of the council may have the best opportunity of obtaining a wider knowledge of their respective trades, it shall be open to the council by agreement with the employers to arrange for short periods of transfer or exchange of apprentices where it appears that by such transfer the apprentice shall acquire special knowledge or experience.

15. All complaints or disputes arising between employers and apprentices which can not be settled between the parties in regard to the conditions of work, discipline, wages, or other matters, shall be referred to the local council, who shall have power to adjust such disputes, which shall be binding on all parties, subject, however, to appeal to the national council.

This apprenticeship plan was approved by the Association of Canadian Building and Construction Industries at its annual conference at Winnipeg on January 19–21.

away the pit ponies, leaving miners completely unemployed. According to figures issued by the Belgian National Relief Committee the number of persons receiving unemployment aid three months after the armistice was approximately 2,400,000, or about one-third of the entire population of the country. The task of restoration which Belgium faced included not only rebuilding of factories, which though usually not completely demolished still had to be practically rebuilt, but also the restoration of machinery which had been removed by the Germans on a wholesale scale. Stocks of raw materials had also been generally removed, as well as manufactured articles, horses, wagons, motor vehicles, and locomotive and railroad cars, while bridges, canals, railways, and telegraph and telephone lines had been testroyed, and 68,900 houses were demolished or rendered uninhab-

itable out of a total of 687,500 in the entire country.

In addition to the destruction of railway lines the main branches had been used by the Germans for the transportation of troops, munitions, and supplies, and as a result of the continuous heavy traffic were found to be in a worn-out condition. The entire signal system was taken out at the beginning of the war and replaced by German apparatus and as it was out of the question for the Belgians to use it that too had to be replaced. In about two years after the armistice, however, the railroad systems of the country had been largely restored to their prewar condition of efficiency. The iron and steel industry suffered the most severely of any single Belgian industry, since out of 54 blast furnaces 51 were completely destroyed. In June, 1920, 16 of these had been restarted and 49 per cent of the prewar output of cast iron was being manufactured, while the output of steel and zinc had also attained about this same volume. The cotton goods output in April had reached 82 per cent of its prewarfigure and many other industries were producing as high a percentage as this, while the amount of sugar produced exceeded the annual prewar output by 30 per cent.

A report of the Belgian Ministry of Labor showed that of the workers in undertakings employing more than 20 persons 92 per cent of the number employed in June, 1913, were at work in June, 1920. Early last summer, however, a wave of unemployment induced by the falling prices, scarcity of raw materials, lack of markets, and high rate of exchange began to sweep the country and has continued fairly

steadily up to the present time.

A scheme for unemployment relief was put into effect by the Government in July. The maximum benefit allowed was 2.5 francs (48.3 cents, par) per day, which was raised in September to 3 francs (57.9 cents, par). Whenever possible the unemployment funds created and administered by the unions were the medium through which the relief was paid. The minister of labor planned to do away with free State relief and to substitute a system of compulsory insurance, and for this reason the workers were urged to join the communal unemployment funds, which have increased from 29 funds with 126,000 members in 1913 to 84 with a membership of over 800,000 at the present time. The temporary scheme, which was planned to last only until December, 1920, fixed 60 days as the limit for which a person could receive relief. In August the conditions had grown so much worse that the minister of labor announced that

the payment of the State allowance would be made without limit of duration to all unemployed meeting the conditions requisite for receiving aid. Later in September another decree was issued, however, to the effect that the crisis had passed and that unemployment aid would therefore be discontinued after the middle of November except for certain classes such as widows and orphans of civil and military victims of the war, soldiers incapacitated for work, etc. The improvement proved to be only temporary, though, so that the contemplated discontinuance of aid in November could not be followed out and on December 30 a royal decree was issued extending the

period for giving aid up to March 31, 1921.

A report of the industrial situation in January, 1921, stated that although conditions in the textile industry were very bad the iron and steel industry gave cause for the greatest anxiety. It was believed at that time that the crisis in the textile industry was past as in some places a slight improvement was shown. In the metal industry, on the other hand, it was just beginning and as the largest works had only enough orders to carry them a few weeks the hours of work were cut or there were partial shutdowns with the consequent discharge of large numbers of skilled men. Lack of protection for Belgian industry in competition with that of other countries and the high rate of wages were blamed for the situation. It was stated that the number of unemployed on the first of the year was

approximately 600,000.

The unions took up the question of unemployment at their regular and special congresses. The national committee of the syndical commission blamed the employers for the unsatisfactory condition of affairs and stated that as the workers were not responsible for the capitalist system under which such a chaotic condition was possible they could not be the victims and demanded the requisition of raw materials, factories, etc., in cases where employers refused to work under the orders and control of the Government. They also urged that the national unemployment funds should be completed by the creation by law of a crisis fund which should serve suitably to indemnify those workers who in spite of the application of these measures remained without work. As the amount of the payment was judged insufficient they demanded that the minister of labor should consider the possibility of doubling it.

The cost of living including food, clothing, heat, and light in Belgium, in January, 1919, was over six times as great as in April, 1914. Although there was a considerable decrease in the first half of 1920, in August it was still very high, the index number for the

Kingdom being 463 against 639 for the earlier period.
Wages had not kept pace with the increase in living costs and one factor in the unemployment situation was the refusal of many workers to work for an insufficient wage, preferring instead to depend upon the relief payments. Opposition to increased wages on the part of employers has been met with determination by tradeunionists, who have been assisted to some extent by the civil authorities, who have temporarily suspended the collection of local taxes and other deductions from unemployment allowances. The Department of Labor ruled that no deductions may be made from the relief grants if the employment offered exceeded 9 hours per day or paid less than the minimum wage, which for men was 1 franc (19.3 cents, par) per hour in industrial districts and 0.85 franc (16.4 cents, par) in semiurban districts. While this establishment of a minimum wage was only temporary the principle was, however, widely accepted and it was felt by labor leaders that there would be little difficulty later in securing legal recognition of it.

Manifestations of Labor Unrest.

WHILE in the main Belgian labor has manifested a strong desire to get the country back to a normal state of efficiency and has accomplished wonders in spite of the disheartening obstacles, still there have been many strikes and evidences of unrest among the workers.

A general strike, to protest against the high cost of living and to call for the socialization of the means of production, called for May 1, passed off with no violence, the day being celebrated as a holiday, with processions and meetings in the principal towns. In the spring and summer there were strikes among metal workers and leather workers for the establishment of the eight-hour day, which were successful in gaining the end they were seeking. Increased wages and cost-of-living bonuses were the objectives in strikes among members of the woodworking and furniture trades, gas and electricity workers, tramwaymen, and building trades, and were in most cases successful, while as a result of conferences increases were granted Government employees, railway shopmen, and public works employees, and the principle of the minimum wage was accepted by the National Joint Commission for Mining. Various congresses of different trades held in the summer and fall adopted resolutions demanding the 8-hour day or the 48-hour week.

A two weeks' strike of miners for increased wages took place in November in Charleroi basin, affecting about 66,500 workers. The minister of labor intervened to try to avert it on the grounds that the miners had not kept the agreement concluded in the summer and that any increase in wages meant a corresponding increase in the price of coal, which the country was unable to stand. He was not able to prevent the strike but the miners in other localities refused to go out, as did the Christian unions in the Charleroi district. The minister of labor in conference with the operators agreed to a revision of the scale of wages, with the promise that if the workers were found to be paid less than those in other districts the difference would be made up to them, free coal for November being also promised if the strike ended quickly. A referendum was accordingly

Labor Congresses.

taken which resulted in the abandonment of the strike.

THE annual congress of the Labor Party was held in April and a resolution was passed by a large majority making continuation of Socialist participation in the Government contingent on the immediate adoption by Parliament of such measures for assistance to the working classes in meeting the high cost of living as construction of workers' dwellings, guaranty of liberty to trade-unions,

and a levy on capital. Repeal of the article in the Penal Code relative to picketing and intimidation was also demanded, as it was contended

that it was a class law enacted for the benefit of employers.

The Belgian Trade-Union Congress met in Brussels the 1st of July, with more than 400 delegates present. Resolutions passed affirmed the right to organize and the right to strike, declared against compulsory arbitration, and urged the early enactment of the 8-hour

day and 48-hour week law.

The national committee of the trade-union commission met in August for the purpose of protesting against the postponement by the Senate of discussion of the eight-hour bill which had been passed by the Chamber of Representatives in July. A resolution declaring that war material would not be transported by trade-unionists was also passed. At a meeting in August the general council of the Labor Party passed a resolution against assisting either side in the Russian-Polish war unless its independence were in danger, and also declared that the party would not allow the Senate to bar democratic reforms and warned it of the danger of opposing the will of the people.

The nineteenth congress of the Syndical Commission of the Labor Party and Independent Unions was held at Brussels October 17 and 18. Two questions were scheduled to come before the congress—the socialization of industries and technical education. Socialization, it was agreed, was inevitable and the only point debated was whether it was possible or desirable in a socialist regime to indemnify the owners or whether it was more desirable to gain control and to expropriate without indemnity. The idea of paying only the amount of the capital actually engaged in the industry was the one most favored. Compulsory technical education, with the unions participating in the direction of this education, was indorsed.

A special congress of the Labor Party was held October 30 to November 1, in which, as in so many of the labor congresses in different countries, the question of adherence to the Third International

came up for extended discussion.

Three resolutions were placed before the congress. The first stated that the 21 conditions of the Communist International of Moscow were unacceptable not only because they were directly opposed to the principles which have formed the basis of the labor and socialist internationals but because they tended besides to divide and weaken the labor class in its efforts for liberation in both the political and the industrial fields, the only desirable international being one resulting from the agreement of all the national socialist parties. Another resolution declared that in view of the inaction of the Second International and of the fact that it prefers rather to make war against comrades in the struggle against capitalism than upon the bourgeoisie the Second International should be rejected, and in order to realize unity of revolutionary socialism the union of all parties adhering to the Third International and those which have left the Second International should be accomplished. The third resolution, declaring for adherence to the Third International, stated that the working class could not achieve its aim of general expropriation of the capitalist class without international organization. The inability of the Second International to hinder the war was due, the resolution claimed, to the fact that it was no longer inspired by any except reformist

theories, being preoccupied with reforms within the bourgeois régime and admitting and practicing bourgeois cooperation (notably by accepting ministerial appointments); that it recognized the utility of institutions of a capitalist character such as the treaty of peace, League of Nations, and International Labor Bureau; and that to attain its objects it had recourse to legal and parliamentary action. Furthermore, it admits the principle of payment for socialized property and is in fact totally destitute of all characteristics of the struggle for class revolution. Since, therefore, it was considered that the Second International no longer represented the workers in their march toward social revolution, the resolution called for the withdrawal of the Belgian Labor Party from the Second International and affiliation with the Third International for the purpose of forming a single international which, uniting all socialist revolutionary parties, will enable the working class to attain its aim of complete social transformation.

After extended debate covering the acts and aims of the Russian revolutionists, the two extreme resolutions were united and voted on as one. The vote showed the congress overwhelmingly in favor of the moderate resolution, about 85 per cent of the votes cast being for it. The general discussions of the congress raged about the question of participation in the Government by members of the Socialist-Labor group, M. Vandervelde, minister of justice and state, and M. Wauters, minister of labor, participating in the debate and defending their course of action. The question raised was not one of principle so much as one of policy, since all upheld the idea of the class war and the overthrow of the capitalist system. The so-called "extremists" maintained that socialists could gain nothing by collaboration with the bourgeois government and that they only play into the hands of the capitalists and become responsible with the capitalists for the failure to achieve the demands of the workers. The apologists for government cooperation maintained that reforms had been achieved and that in any event the condition of the country was such at the close of the war that the only possible field of action lay in the cooperation of all parties for the restoration of the industrial life of the country.

The demands of the Labor Party as formulated by the committee on resolutions, and indorsed by about three-fourths of those voting, after maintaining the principle of cooperation with the Government, though without renunciation of any part of the socialist theories or program, called for (1) abrogation pure and simple of article 10 of the Penal Code (against picketing and intimidation), (2) intervention by all means at the disposal of the State to combat the cost of living, (3) integral realization of the program of labor reforms adopted by the preceding Government, (4) application of the law on the eight-hour day as voted by the Chamber of Representatives, (5) military reorganization with a maximum service of six months, and (6) immediate revision of the constitution in accordance with democratic ideas.

In contrast with the aims of the Labor Party and the independent unions is the program of the General Confederation of Christian Unions (Catholic), which calls for the speedy enactment of the eighthour day, unemployment insurance, modification of article 310 of the Penal Code, and reduction of the cost of living, but which also affirms the similarity of interests of workers and employers and disayows socialistic aims and methods.

Economic Gains of Labor.

THE reforms which had been secured since the armistice by organized labor were enumerated at the October congress of the party. They included universal suffrage, old-age pensions, miners' pensions, rent law, and the vote of the Chamber of Representatives in favor of the eight-hour day. One of the greatest gains which Belgian labor has secured and one which is said to have profoundly affected the reconstruction of the industrial life of the country is the establishment of joint commissions or industrial councils. These national joint commissions have been developed in all the principal industries, with district and shop committees to deal with local questions. Other industries are regulated by permanent joint boards of employers' and labor organizations. Although the constitution of each of the joint commissions is drawn up in joint conference of employers and employees, they differ very little. The mines commission is typical of all. It is made up of 10 employers nominated by the operators' association, 10 workers' delegates appointed by the two industrial unions in the proportion of eight Socialist Unionists to two "Christian" Unionists, and a chairman and secretary appointed by the Government. Hours of labor, wage scales, and working conditions for all the mining districts are fixed by the commission, which also has instituted district and local councils and workers' committees for each pit. No strike may take place until these councils have had opportunity to effect a settlement, for which a period of two weeks is allowed. There is no compulsory arbitration.

Conclusion.

WHILE there are strongly revolutionary tendencies among the Socialist and Labor groups in Belgium there is no doubt that their actions have been characterized by a moderation not found in many of the European countries. The elections of November, 1919, deprived the Conservatives of the majority they had held for 28 years, reduced the number of Liberal seats, and gave the Labor Party more than one-third of the total representation, which was more than any one of the groups, Conservative Roman Catholics, the Democratic Roman Catholics, and the Flemish Nationalists. The cabinet which was reconstituted after the armistice to represent the different political groups in proportion to the representation in Parliament consisted of five Conservatives, three Liberals, and four Socialist members and this recognition of the political views of the citizens undoubtedly went far toward uniting the different elements for the work of rehabilitation which the country faced and which on the whole has been so successfully carried out.

Labor Unrest in Germany.

In the present article the endeavor will be made to throw some light on the causes of the unrest among German workers and to show how this unrest manifests itself. The article is based on German official publications, articles in German newspapers and magazines, and on the November, 1920, issue of The Annals, which is entirely given over to articles on "Social and industrial conditions in the Germany of to-day." A number of individual problems that are factors in the great problem of labor unrest, such as the council movement, collective bargaining, wages, hours of labor, etc., have already been dealt with in previous issues of the Monthly Labor Review.

Causes of the Labor Unrest.

THE causes of the unrest among German labor may be divided into two large groups—political causes and economic causes. The council movement, the demand for socialization of production, bolshevist propaganda, agitation of radical national labor and political leaders, and factional differences among the various labor parties fall within the former; the high cost of living, undernutrition, depreciation of the national currency and consequent decreased purchasing power, unemployment, etc., fall within the latter group.

Political Causes.

(a) The Council Movement

Soldiers' and workers' councils.—The council movement is the expression of the determination of the German workmen not to return to prewar conditions but to secure equal political, social, and educational opportunities and some kind of industrial freedom. When the revolution broke out in Germany in November, 1918, there arose in the Republic and on the fronts numerous councils, estimated at 10,000. At first the soldiers' and workmen's councils were completely occupied with speeding the demobilization of the troops and in placing the country on a peace basis. The soldiers' councils desired only peace and the elimination of militarism, without having any particular philosophy, whereas the workers' councils made complete socialization of production the chief object of their activity. The soldiers' councils disappeared gradually with the demobilization of the army, and the workers' councils alone remained. The entire organization of these councils was analogous to the similar bodies which had arisen in the Russian Revolution.

Workers' and employees' committees.—With the first elections to the National Assembly the Government and the National Assembly denied any further recognition to the workers' councils but put in their place workers' and employees' committees (provided for by a law passed December 23, 1918) which were simply representatives of the workers in their relations with the employers for the protection of the workers' social rights. The workers' councils, on the other hand, had had an influence on the supervision of production.

Provision for a councils system in the new German constitution.— In the framing of a new constitution for Germany the idea of a

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councils government patterned after the Russian model was almost universally refused in Germany. In order to appease the radical groups among the workers, however, the National Assembly after serious struggles incorporated the councils idea into article 165 of the constitution which provides:

ARTICLE 165. The workers and salaried employees are qualified to take part with equal rights and in cooperation with the employers in the regulation of wage and working conditions, as well as to cooperate in the entire economic development of the productive forces. The organizations on both sides and the agreements concluded by them are recognized.

The workers and salaried employees shall be given legal representation in the works councils (Betriebsarbeiterräten) as well as in the district workers' councils (Bezirksarbeiterräten) grouped according to economic districts, and in a national workers' council (Reichsarbeiterrat) for the purpose of looking after their social and economic interests.

The district workers' council and the national workers' council shall meet together with the representatives of the employers and of other interested circles of the population in district economic councils (Bezirkswirtschaftsräten) and a national economic council (Reichswirtschaftsrät) for the purpose of carrying out the joint economic tasks and for cooperation in the putting into effect of the socialization laws. The district economic councils and the national economic council shall be formed in a manner that will provide for proper representation therein of all the important occupational groups according to their economic and social importance.

groups according to their economic and social importance.

Drafts of socio-political and economic laws of fundamental importance shall, before their presentation to the Reichstag, be submitted by the National Government to the national economic council for its opinion. The national council itself has the right to propose such bills. If the National Government does not approve of a bill proposed by the national economic council, it shall nevertheless introduce the bill in the Reichstag with an exposition of its standpoint. The national economic council may have its bills represented by one of its members before the Reichstag.

Works councils.—In carrying out the promises made in article 165 of the new constitution the Government in August, 1919, submitted to the National Assembly a bill governing works councils. This bill had the opposition of both workers and employers—of the latter because of the extensive powers granted to the workers and of the former because in their opinion the authority so granted was not extensive enough. The adoption of various amendments favoring the employers developed great bitterness among the workers but the latter failed in their attempts to defeat the bill, partly on account of the energetic intervention of the Government, and partly because the working classes themselves did not present a compact unit behind their leaders.

The works council law, passed on January 18, 1920, is a compromise product of the coalition parties of that time. The principle of the right of comanagement was almost entirely surrendered by this compromise. The powers of the councils contained in it are far inferior to the regulation which had been previously agreed upon in the voluntary agreements of the employers with their workmen and employees.

The 10 months' existence of the works councils has been taken up to a large extent in conflicts over the interpretation of the law and in efforts of the political parties to secure control of the works councils. However, the initial meetings which have taken place between the newly constituted works councils and the employers have been characterized by the utmost friendliness and were not essentially different from meetings with committees of manual and nonmanual workers within the establishment.

¹ See Monthly Labor Review, May, 1920, pp. 172-181. German works council law.

Struggles over the organization of the works councils.—Three separate struggles which contributed considerably to the general unrest of labor in Germany were in progress last year over the organization of the new statutory works councils: (a) Contrary to the wish of the Government, party candidates for membership of the councils were nominated both by the Independent Socialists and by the Social Democrats. (b) There arose a conflict between the old trade-union officials who wish to preserve their own authority and a new school which wishes to assert the independence of the works councils. On this issue the Independent Socialists are divided. (c) The Berlin Trade-Union Commission, which is dominated by the Independent Socialists, is naturally in favor of preserving the authority of the tradeunions; but, in order to win the support of the works council party among the Independent Socialists, it is willing to include political action in the sphere of the Central Works Councils Office. The Berlin Trade-Union Commission thus finds itself in opposition to the Federation of the Free (Social Democratic) Trade-Unions, which wishes to exclude the political element altogether.

First works councils congress.—This congress was in session at Berlin from October 5 to 7, 1920. It was attended by 953 delegates, among whom were only 8 women. All the delegates were either members of trade-unions affiliated with the General Federation of German Trade-Unions or of one affiliated with the Federation of Social Democratic Unions of Nonmanual Workers. A summary account of the proceedings of the congress published in Soziale Praxis 2 points out that two phenomena impressed all persons in attendance at the congress: First, that nearly one-third of the sessions was taken up by the discussions with the opposition which was composed of communists and members of the radical left wing of the Independent Socialists: second, that practical constructive proposals were absolutely lacking. The only positive result of the congress was that the long-lasting dispute whether there should be an independent central organization of the works councils or one connected with the central trade-union organization was definitely settled in favor of coordination of the works

councils with the trade-unions.

The congress adopted a resolution that the Central Works Council Office shall elect an advisory council to advise with the General Federation of German Trade-Unions and with that of the Social Democratic nonmanual workers. Each of the 15 industry groups represented at the first works councils congress is to elect three representatives to this advisory board, of which one must be a nonmanual worker.

The provisional national economic council.—The organization of the council system in Germany, as outlined in article 165 of the German constitution, must be developed from control over an individual industrial establishment to that over all industries in a district and finally to that over the industries of the entire country. Of the works councils, district workers' councils, national workers' councils, district economic councils, and national economic council, only the works councils have been definitely established by law. The other portions

[:] Soziale Praxis und Archiv für Volkswohlfahrt. Berlin, Oct. 27, 1920, pp. 1327-1331.

of the council program, so far as actual legislation is concerned, must

be considered as still in the preliminary stages.

The national economic council, regulating and stimulating all political affairs of an economic or social nature, is to be the crown of the entire council system. Since some time must elapse before this council can be created and can function, the National Government created by the decree of May 4, 1920, a provisional council 3 (Vorbereitender Reichswirtschaftsrat) which held its first session on June 30, 1920. There has been much criticism of the decree because it does not give to this first industrial parliament the right to make a direct decision in matters of a legislative character.

The attempt to establish autonomous bodies for the management of industry with equal representation of workers and employers is regarded by the Independent Socialists as futile; for an employer employing 1,000 workers has as much influence in the governing body of the industry as the whole of his 1,000 workers together. The whole idea, in fact, is denounced as merely a recognition of the property rights of capital and a rejection of democracy in the industrial sphere. Furthermore, they argue that even this so-called "equality of representation" is not really complete; for only certain organizations of workers are included in these schemes, whereas the employers present a united front.

Soziale Praxis considers the above views as proof of the obstinacy and narrowness of the Independents; but declares that Freiheit is not altogether wrong in pointing out that these autonomous industrial bodies will act solely in the interests of producers as against those

of consumers.

Thus it will be seen that the creation of both the works councils and the national economic council has given rise to a vast number of controversies and is no small factor in the present unrest of German labor.

(b) Demands for the Socialization of Production.

Germany was one of the first countries to apply some of the theories of its school of State socialists. All important railways, canals, and waterways are owned by the State, most of the gas works, electrical power stations, traction systems, and slaughterhouses are under municipal ownership, and many coal and other mines are owned by

various States.

When the Socialists took over the National Government in November, 1918, they were immediately met by demands from the working classes for the nationalization or socialization of industry, land, etc. As a result of the investigations of the general socialization commission appointed by the Government in response to these demands, a law was passed on March 23, 1919, authorizing the Government to transfer to the management of the community all such economic undertakings as are adapted for the purpose, more especially such as are concerned in the exploitation of mineral resources and in the utilization of the forces of nature.

On the same day on which the general socialization law was passed the whole coal industry was placed under the control of a national

See Monthly Labor Review, November, 1920, pp. 204-207.
 Soziale Praxis. Berlin, July 11, 1920.

coal council (Reichskolhenrat), composed of 50 members of whom 15 were to be representatives of labor unions, 13 representatives of employers' organizations (proposed by the respective organizations but appointed by the Government), while the Prussian minister for industry and commerce (who controls the Prussian State coal mines) was to appoint two more representatives on the employers' side. The other 20 members were appointed by the National Government and included specified numbers of representatives of consumers, technical experts, the coal trade, etc. The coal council was to control prices and the distribution of coal. Similar laws were enacted on April 24, 1919, for the potash industries and on December 3, 1919, for electrical works. The full text of the general socialization law and digests of the laws dealing with the socialization of the coal and potash industries were given in the November, 1919, issue of the Monthly Labor Review (pp. 71–78).

The large masses of the population who expected to obtain relief by the socialization of industry were disappointed with the provisions and in the effects of the coal socialization law. Socialists contended that the law did not socialize because the instruments of production still remained in the hands of the private owner; neither did it increase production, for production of coal was at its lowest level during the last months of 1919, nor had it lowered the price of coal, which had doubled and trebled during the months subsequent to the enactment of the law. Consequently every congress, conference, or meeting of the socialist labor parties and trade-union organizations held in the last two years adopted resolutions demanding real socialization

of the basic industries.

Thus far the Government has not acceded to demands for extreme legislation on socialization. On the other hand, the present Government is handicapped by the weakness of its parliamentary position. It is made up from the three center or moderate parties, the People's Party, the Liberal Party, and the Catholic Party, which together control only about 40 per cent of the votes in the Reichstag. It therefore must depend for its majority either upon the party of the extreme right, with about 15 per cent of the votes in the Reichstag, or upon the two socialist parties, which about equally divide the remainder of the votes. The majority socialists—the more conservative of the two wings of the Socialist Party—although refusing representation in the Government have so far supported it. In order to hold their support, it seems probable that the Government may amend the coal socialization law in a manner that will take into account the demands of the workers more than did the original law.

(c) Factional Differences Among the German Labor Parties.

There are four labor parties in Germany: the Social Democratic, the Independent Socialist, the Communist, and the Communist Labor Party. The Social Democratic Party founded in 1875 as a union of the followers of the doctrines of Marx and Lasalle is the oldest of the four parties, the other three having been formed by subsequent defections of the radical and ultra radical elements within the former. During recent years the Independent Socialists and the Communists have carried on an untiring propaganda to win over to their political creeds members of the Social Democratic Party,

and the Independent Socialists have been especially successful in winning new recruits from the ranks of the Social Democrats. The strife among the four labor parties and the radical tendencies of the three newer parties have greatly contributed to the unrest of labor in Germany.

(d) Bolshevist Propaganda.

Shortly after the German revolution the Russian Government sent a mission headed by Radek to Germany with the object of converting the German working classes to the doctrines of bolshevism. This mission at first met with considerable success, especially in Bavaria, where a short-lived communist government was established, in Saxony, Brunswick, Berlin, and in Hamburg. However, after the election of the National Assembly and the establishment of a constitutional government, its chance of success became more and more remote and the mission finally left Germany convinced that for the present there is hardly any chance for the establishment of a soviet government in that country, for all classes of the German population and all the political parties with the exception of the communists and the most extreme socialists are strongly opposed to the soviet form of government.

The question whether or not the Independent Socialist Party should declare its adherence to the Third International was the cause of bitter polemics in the German radical socialist press during last summer. A national conference of the officers of the party met on September 1, 1920, at Berlin. Two hundred delegates were present, including nearly all the members of the Reichstag group. Though there was considerable discussion, no vote was taken until the congress of the party convened on October 15, 1920. At that time, in spite of the fact that a majority of the tried leaders of the party were against adherence to the Third International, the congress voted by

235 to 156 to support the international.

The Communist Party in the middle of September last took the name of "Communist Party of Germany, section of the Third International." Freiheit considers that this change of name is designed to show that the section of the Independent Party which accepts the Moscow conditions must enter the Communist Party.

The Communist Labor Party, however, withdrew its proposal to join the Third International, stating that parliamentarism and centralization were contrary to communist opinion, and dictatorship

from Moscow would not be tolerated.

In this connection it should be stated that a "League for the Protection of German Culture" has been founded in Germany which is described as the central organization of all anti-"bolshevik" unions. It issues brochures and films designed to show the havoc wrought by Spartacists and "bolsheviks," and trains speakers for work in the factories and for street speaking.

Economic Causes.

(a) Unemployment.

The population of Germany within its new frontiers is about 60,000,000. Among them are about 19,000,000 workers with 21,000,000 members of their families. Accordingly 40,000,000 Germans, or

two-thirds of the total population, are affected by the movement of the labor market. Since the armistice in 1918 the German labor market has been exposed to violent fluctuations. The sudden termination of the war resulted in a necessary change from wartime to peace time production. Factories employing hundreds of thousands of persons closed down overnight. Furthermore, the terms of the armistice agreement required speedy demobilization of Germany's armies; consequently in the space of a few weeks a steadily swelling current of discharged soldiers made the unemployment situation very acute. The situation was aggravated by the unsuccessful outcome of the war and the grave political crisis which followed in its course. Thus, there began to develop a vast army of unemployed persons which at the end of 1918 and during the early part of 1919 aggregated several million persons.

Since November, 1918, in order to relieve the distress caused by unemployment, unemployment relief has been granted by the municipalities, the cost of which is borne, one-half by the national treasury, one-third by the Federal State, and one-sixth by the municipality. The rates of relief originally fixed were very low, but owing to the rapid rise in the cost of living they have had to be increased repeatedly during the course of the last two years. It should, however, be noted that the maximum daily allowance of a head of a household for himself, his wife, and five or more children, may not exceed 20 marks (\$4.76, par), which at the present rate of

exchange is equivalent to only 32 cents.

Unemployment reached its highest level in January, 1919, when 1,100,000 persons were in receipt of unemployment relief from the State. Beginning with February of that year unemployment decreased gradually owing to improved industrial conditions. On June 1, 1920, the number of persons receiving unemployment relief had fallen to 270,451. (See Monthly Labor Review for March, 1921, pp. 148–152 for detailed data as to the state of unemployment.) The improvement in the labor market during the first half of 1920 was not a lasting one, however. An economic crisis due to the rise in the exchange rate of the mark and to high prices caused a marked falling off in the German export trade and a decrease in home demand. Large numbers of factories shut down entirely or were operated on short time. The decline in industrial activity was reflected in increased unemployment. Trade-union reports show that the percentage of unemployment among their membership varied as follows during 1920:

	P. ct.		P.			P. ct.
February	2.9	June	3. 6.	9	September October November December	3. 9

On January 1, 1921, the number of persons receiving unemployment relief was 408,768, or 17 per cent over the figure for December 1,

1920 (349,382).

That the outlook for an improvement in the present state of unemployment is not favorable may be seen from the latest official report of the ministry of commerce and industry ⁵ on the industrial

⁶ Quoted from the Economist, London, Feb. 12, 1921, p. 280.

situation, which states that production is being injuriously affected by coal shortage, by a decline in purchasing power at home, and by reactions from the world crisis. The decrease in home purchasing power has seriously affected the retail trade, large stocks of ready goods being unsalable. The supply of pig iron, for the first time since the conclusion of peace, exceeds the demand. Abundant ore is on hand, at prices lowered by the fall in freight rates, but smelting continues limited owing to fuel shortage. The demand for finished iron goods has fallen off badly since the middle of January of the present year, one cause being the expectation of a further price cut on March 1, when the present maximum prices will be reconsidered. The home and foreign demand for machinery is declining; prices are going down, and some works have partially stopped production. Railroad car and locomotive works are working on old orders; but few new orders are being received. The luxury tax has affected the demand for cutlery, and export has been injured by the crises in neutral countries. In the electrical industry some large foreign orders have been received, but owing to the stoppage of building and to the electricity socialization law, which has frightened electric power companies out of giving orders, the home demand is small.

(b) High Cost of Living and Undernutrition.

One of the principal causes of the present discontent and unrest of the German working classes is the high cost of living. The cost of food and all other necessaries of life increased considerably during the war, but the rise in prices since the termination of the war has assumed a phenomenal character. Up to the close of 1920 this rise continued steadily from month to month.

Dr. R. Kuczynski, director of the statistical office of Berlin Schöneberg, states that ⁶ in Greater Berlin milk and gas cost nine times as much in October, 1920, as in October, 1913; bread 10 times, briquets 12 times, butter 13 times, potatoes 16 times, margarine 18 times, rice 30 times, sugar 32 times, and lard 38 times, without even considering prices in illicit trade (Schleichhandel). Prices of rationed foodstuffs increased on an average 13 times during the same period.

The following table shows the comparative cost of specified minimum weekly budgets in October, 1913, and October, 1920:

Size of family.	October, 1913.	October, 1920.
Single man	Marks. 16. 90 22. 45 28. 95	Marks. 156. 00 232. 00 317. 00

Measured by the above budgets the purchasing power of the mark had fallen in October, 1920, to about one-tenth of its prewar purchasing power.

These budgets would require annual earnings in 1920 of 8,150 marks (\$1,939.70, par) for a single man, of 12,100 marks (\$2,879.80, par) for a childless couple, and of 16,550 marks (\$3.938.90, par) for

⁶ Allgemeine Steinsetzer-Zeitung. Berlin, Nov. 21, 1920.

a married couple with two children. Wages have also experienced a steady and rapid rise during the last two years, but still there are very few workers who make annual earnings of 16,550 marks. Owing to unemployment, short-time and half-time employment most workers' earnings fall far below the minima set up by Dr. Kuczynski. Since April 1, 1920, also, the difficulties of the workers have been increased by a tax of 10 per cent levied on all wages over certain specified amounts. This tax was deductible by the employer and led to a number of strikes, as a result of which the amounts of exemption were increased in establishments regularly employing 20 workers.

On the whole it may be safely asserted that wages in Germany have lagged far behind prices, and the high level of prices is, as in other countries, due only partly to increased wages, and largely to profiteer-

ing and speculation.

Still worse off than the manual workers are the private salaried employees, the vast army of Government employees, teachers, and all the immense range of persons living on fixed incomes. These classes whose average annual earnings are now much lower than those

of manual workers can barely buy the ration.

Rises in the cost of living not compensated by increased wages, and scarcity of foodstuffs, especially fats, during a period of years have resulted in an undernutrition which in itself is a serious cause of unrest. Since the lifting of the blockade and the resumption of imports conditions have improved somewhat. In 1918 public rations were one-half the minimum for an adult as to calories, and about onefifth as to fats. As the result of the distribution of flour and fats from foreign countries, there was a temporary improvement in the summer of 1919, but the only difference between Government rations in the first half of 1920 and the period before the lifting of the blockade was a greater supply of fats. Even at the present date the food situation is still very serious in Germany. While there is sufficient food among the peasants as a class, there is undoubtedly a great shortage of food among the urban and industrial populations. There is little actual starvation, but there is a vast amount of underfeeding in the cities and industrial centers.

The results are manifest not only in universal loss of weight, but also and more especially in loss of health and increased mortality, par-

ticularly among the children.

Germany is thus in a fatal circle, lack of food causes insufficient production and a steady increase in wages, the result of which is few and dear products from the factory; and high prices of manufactures retard agricultural production, so that prices keep on rising constantly unless this circle is broken somewhere. And this can be accomplished only with the aid of food from other nations.⁷

(c) The Housing Problem.

The housing problem is gradually producing a critical situation in Germany. Before the war the yearly increase in population was about 800,000, involving a need for 200,000 dwellings. This demand was actually met each year. During the war, however, building practically ceased. Even now little construction is being done, due

Annals, Philadelphia, November, 1920, pp. 134-136.

to the increased prices of wages and materials. At the present cost of building it is impossible to build a house without fixing a prohibi-

tive rental.

Though more than 1,500,000 lives were taken by the war and more than twice that number as a result of undernourishment, disease, etc., this has had little effect on the housing situation. The demand for dwellings is determined not by the population figure but by the number of households and this number has been greatly increased by marriages during and since the war. Also, the death on the battle field of the father of a family did not, in most instances break up the home.

The situation has been made more difficult by the immigration from Alsace-Lorraine, Poland, Galicia, and the Baltic Provinces. Finally, the situation in Berlin has become still more serious because of the concentration there of Government officials, the establishment of new offices, dozens of entente commissions, etc., involving a need

for offices and homes.

Thus not only is the housing situation very serious in Germany but, owing to lack of capital, no immediate improvement of the situation is possible. On the other hand, until the problem of shelter, along with that of food, is settled in a manner which is at least to some extent satisfactory there can be no hope of an improvement in the present state of unrest of the working classes.⁸

How the Unrest Manifests Itself.

(1) Wage Demands, Strikes, and Lockouts.

THE flood of demands for wage increases which swept over Germany subsequent to the outbreak of the revolution was due largely to the fact that because of the phenomenal and continuous rise in prices during 1919 and 1920, if the German workman wanted to feed and clothe himself and his family he was compelled to see to it that his wages kept step with the steady rise in prices. In spite of frequent and large wage increases secured by strikes, however, he succeeded only partly in this aim, for wages always lagged behind prices.

It is greatly to be regretted that no official statistics are available as to industrial disputes (wage demands, strikes, and lockouts) in Germany during the last two years. The only unofficial attempt at compiling statistics of this kind has been made by the General Federation of German Trade-Unions which in the Korrespondenzblatt (Berlin, 1920, No. 51) publishes statistics as to the number, extent, and result of wage demands, strikes, etc., during the year 1919 in so far as unions affiliated with the federation were affected by them and reported them. Only 32 of the 52 federations affiliated with the General Federation sent in reports.

These statistics show that the disputes in which members of affiliated unions took part numbered 26,433 in 1919, and covered 42,249 localities and 349,166 establishments employing 7,986,515 persons. The number of persons directly engaged in the disputes was 7,435,709, of whom 1,442,115 (19.4 per cent) were women. Of the entire number of disputes, 22,769 (86.1 per cent) with 6,671,249 participants

s Laporte, Walter de. The housing problem in Germany. The Annals, Philadelphia, November, 1920, pp. 137–141.

(89.7 per cent) were settled amicably, while 3,664 (15.9 per cent) disputes led to strikes or lockouts affecting 764,460 persons. Of the disputes settled amicably, nearly all were caused by demands for wage increases or improved working conditions, only 237 having a defensive character, being waged to prevent wage cuts or the intro-

duction of more onerous working conditions.

Of the 3,664 disputes leading to strikes or lockouts, 3,378 with 636,665 participants developed into strikes of an aggressive character. In 2,899 instances, demands for wage increases were the cause, in 300 instances demands for wage increases and shorter hours of labor, and in 33 instances demands for shorter hours of labor only; 146 strikes were initiated for miscellaneous reasons. That demands for shorter hours of labor caused only a relatively small number of strikes is due to the legal introduction of the 8-hour day. Two hundred and twenty-six strikes with 59,787 participants had a defensive character, 80 of them being caused by disciplinary measures, 60 by wage reductions, 13 by lengthening of the hours of labor, 2 by demands for severance of affiliation with trade-unions, while miscellaneous reasons were the cause in 68 cases.

The same statistics report 60 lockouts affecting 68,008 workers; 31 of these lockouts were caused by demands of the workers, 13 by nonacceptance of working conditions of a lower standard, 9 by

strikes, and 7 for other reasons.

The labor disputes to which the above statistics relate caused to the participating unions a total outlay of 38,882,375 marks (\$9,254,005.25, par). In this connection it should not be forgotten that the above figures do not cover 20 central organizations, including those of the printers, miners, railroad, and agricultural

workers, with a membership of 1,500,000.

The success of labor disputes is as a rule dependent on the general economic situation. In this respect the year 1919 forms, however, an exception to the rule, for the economic situation was the most unfavorable possible. The conditions of the armistice led to extensive shutdowns in war industries, the readjustment of the industries to peacetime production was greatly hampered by the lack of raw materials, and the demobilization of the returning soldiers increased the vast army of the unemployed. If, nevertheless, the outcome of the great majority of the labor disputes initiated by the workers during 1919 was favorable to the workers it must be ascribed to the unprecedented growth of organization of labor. At the end of 1919 the "free," Christian, and Hirsch-Duncker trade-unions together with the organizations of salaried employees had a combined membership close to 10,000,000.9 Thus organization of manual and nonmanual workers has proceeded to such lengths in Germany that the unorganized worker is the exception rather than the rule. The labor movements of 1919 for wage increases were mass movements in the fullest meaning of the word. The employers did not dare to oppose energetically the demands of such large organized masses. The readiness of the employers to compromise disputes was without doubt also due to the reason that they did not wish to destroy completely by serious labor struggles the limited possibility

See article on "Organization of employers and workers in Germany," in MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, March, 1921, pp. 129 to 136.

of reconstructing and rehabilitating German economic life. Another noteworthy fact is that the decisions of arbitration boards invoked

in labor disputes were nearly always favorable to labor.

Thus the above statistics show that, of the total of 26,433 labor disputes covered, 21,591 (81.7 per cent) resulted favorably for the workers and 4,413 (16.7 per cent) terminated partly favorably for them, while the number of disputes in which the workers failed of success was only 171. In the remaining 258 disputes the result was not known at the end of the year. The settlement of the disputes resulted in wage increases and improved working conditions for 7,257,036 persons. On an average the weekly hours of labor of each person affected by the disputes were shortened by 7¾ hours and his wages increased by 22.31 marks (\$5.31, par) per week.

Statistics for the year 1920 are not yet available. There are,

Statistics for the year 1920 are not yet available. There are, however, unmistakable signs that demands for wage increases are meeting with greater resistance on the part of the employers. The time seems to be approaching when the German workers and employers, both of whom are to-day more strongly organized than ever before, will meet in a serious struggle, the outcome of which will

be of far-reaching importance.

In view of the numerous general strikes in Germany during the last two years, which often threatened the supply of gas, water, and electricity to the populations of large cities, the German President in November, 1920, issued an order prohibiting strikes or lockouts in these public services until three days after the publication of an

award by a competent conciliation board.

A bill for unifying and regulating procedure for conciliation in industrial disputes has been drafted by the German ministry of labor. According to this bill it is proposed to make recourse to conciliation compulsory, and to make the decisions of the conciliation boards obligatory (a) in public services where they are established by law, and (b) in industries where they exist by virtue of a collective agreement; in other cases a strike or lockout may be called in spite of a decision of a conciliation board, if a ballot is taken and a two-thirds majority is secured in favor of a stoppage. This bill, in its present form, is opposed by the General Federation of German Trade-Unions.

(2) Decreased Production.

During the first year after the termination of the war one of the most striking phenomena in German economic life was the great decrease in industrial production. In addition to transitory difficulties, such as a change of production, lack of raw materials, shortage of railroad equipment, etc., the German industries had to face a general falling off of production by about 20 per cent as a consequence of being unprepared for the introduction of the eight-hour day, and a further deficiency of production of from 20 to 40 per cent owing to labor unrest, bad work, or lack of efficiency of the workmen.

Another noteworthy cause of the decrease of production is to be found in the physical and mental change which has taken place in the German workman. A general aversion to work ascribable in part to long malnutrition, but in part, however, to the influence of the war and the revolution was the principal cause for the serious

decline of German production during 1919. This decline of production could be noted in all fields of labor. The mason who before the war set 600 bricks a day, working at piece rates, in 1919 set only 360. Improvement in production has, however, been noted since the beginning of the year 1920. The old will to work is being gradually restored; wherever work is going on it is being done more cheerfully. Piecework, which had been entirely discontinued during 1919, is being resumed everywhere. Lengthening of the hours of labor is now being seriously considered. It is significant, also, that the trade-unions, among them the radical Metal Workers' Federation, are urging increased production.

(3) Revolutionary Outbreaks, Etc.

During the régime of the soldiers' and workers' councils the unrest of labor manifested itself in revolutionary outbreaks in various parts of the country. Dozens of small shortlived governments were set up wherever the Communists and radical Independent Socialists

had gained the upper hand.

With the meeting of the National Assembly the political activity of the councils came to an end. Political unrest abated somewhat among labor, as the new constitution adopted by the National Assembly held out great promises to labor with respect to the powers to be granted to works councils. It broke out anew when during the several readings of the works councils bill the bill was so amended in the Reichstag as to make it apparent that the Government pledges to the workers of comanagement in industrial establishments were not to be kept. The next political upheaval of labor occurred after the overthrow of the Kapp-Lüttwitz insurrection.

Food riots and demonstrations of unemployed persons have also

been frequent.

Gains of Labor Subsequent to the War.

Economic Gains.

THE gains made by labor subsequent to the war may be classed as (a) economic and (b) political. The economic gains are—

(1) Large increases in wages.—Recent wage statistics and index numbers of wages covering all industries of Germany are not available. Very rough calculations based on the sparce recent data available indicate that the average wages of skilled adult male workers do not exceed 5.50 to 6 marks (\$1.31 to \$1.43, par) an hour. The highest reported hourly rates are those for building trade workers. Tile workers in Berlin receive 7.50 marks per hour (\$1.79, par). Soziale Praxis calls attention to the approximation which is taking place between the wages of skilled and unskilled labor. Unskilled workers as a rule are now receiving 90 per cent of the skilled man's rate. The wages of agricultural workers everywhere compare badly with those of industrial and urban labor. German miners, for instance, appear to receive nearly three times as high wages as farm laborers.

On an average, the German worker now earns more in an hour than in a whole day before the war. When it is considered, however, that the purchasing value of the mark has fallen to one-tenth of its prewar purchasing value and that millions of workers are at the present time either unemployed or working short time, the mere rise of wages especially when accompanied by a still greater rise of prices represents a negative gain.

(2) Shorter hours of labor.—The 8-hour day was generally estab-

(2) Shorter hours of labor.—The 8-hour day was generally established by a Government order issued November 23, 1918. The effects and possibility of continuance of the 8-hour day have been already

discussed.

(3) A remarkable increase in collective bargaining.—To such an extent is this principle now accepted that during the past two years collective bargaining has become the rule in German industry and the conclusion of individual labor contracts the rare exception. The only drawback at the present time is that owing to the continuous rise of prices and the cost of living workers' organizations are disinclined to enter into long-time wage agreements. Most of the recent agreements have been concluded for periods of two or three months, those

covering longer periods forming the exception.

(4) The creation of works councils and joint industrial councils.— Although the works council law came into being in its present form against the will of the majority of all organized workers, the creation of works councils must be considered as economic gain of labor. To be sure, the law did not recognize the right of the workers' and salaried employees' representatives to a voice in the management of the establishment. It opened, however, the way toward giving these representatives an insight into the management of the establishment and thus placed them legally in a position to support the policy of the management in bringing about the highest efficiency and the greatest possible economy in the operation of the plant. The law, moreover, gives the works council a deciding vote in all questions relating to labor conditions, especially in the formulating of shop regulations, a voice in the discharge of workmen, and a voice in the suspension of work to the extent that general lines of conduct governing the procedure of suspension are to be agreed upon between the works council and the employer.

Equipartisan joint industrial councils of employers' and workers' organizations have also been provided for and 14 such councils have already been established, with a joint central committee as a superstructure. The central committee has for its purpose the joint solution of all economic and socio-political problems affecting the trades and industries of the entire country as well as the proposal of labor laws and administrative measures relating thereto. The functions of each of the 14 industrial councils are simply the settlement of labor questions affecting the trades and industries for which they

were established.

Political Gains.

The political gains comprise—

(1) The securing of greater representation in legislative bodies. The following table shows the party representation in the former National Assembly and in the new Reichstag:

PARTY REPRESENTATION IN THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY AND IN THE NEW REICHSTAG.

Party.	National Assembly.	Reichstag.
Communists. Independent Socialists Majority Socialists Democrats Center Party. Christian Federalists Bavarian Peasants' League. German Hanoverian Party. German People's Party. German National Party.	22 163 73 75 5 3 22 42	88 111 4 6 2 6 6
Total	405	461

As the above table shows, the three labor parties combined have a total representation of 193 seats. The Independent Socialists, however, refused to collaborate with the Majority Socialists or any other party, and the Majority Socialists would not join with the conservative People's Party. So it was not until June 24, 1920, that a new Government, comprising the Center, the Democrats, and the People's Party was formed under Herr Fehrenbach. Thus it is due to discord among the labor parties that they are not represented in the Government.

The recent elections for the Prussian Diet also showed large gains

for the Independent Socialists.

(2) The granting by the new German constitution to every German citizen of the right of freedom of speech, press, assembly, association.

and migration within the German Republic.

(3) The revival of protective labor regulations suspended during the war, the extension of the social insurance laws, the enactment of rent and housing laws, and the subsidizing of construction of workmen's dwellings. The housing measures, however, have proved ineffective remedies to the housing situation.

(4) The introduction in the Reichstag of bills regulating conciliation and arbitration, public employment offices, and compulsory unemployment insurance. The national ministry of labor is also engaged

in drafting a general labor code.

LABOR ORGANIZATIONS.

Types of Labor Organizations in Turkey.1

Syndicalism is unknown in Turkey. Christian workmen have, during the last 10 years, gone through an encouraging evolution, which has already given satisfactory results. Christian workmen are beginning to join together, and are making praiseworthy efforts to imitate their occidental comrades. Their organization, based on the model of European workmen's federations, is at present in an embryonic state. The present crisis in the market and lack of work brought about a temporary disorganization, but the chiefs of the labor movement are still very optimistic as regards the future of their federations. On the contrary, unlike their Christian comrades, Turkish workmen show no tendency to form syndicates; they are apathetic and desperate, without knowing themselves the reason for their despair.

Workmen's Organization During War Time.

MOST of the workmen's organizations were dissolved by decision of the Ministry of the Interior. The workmen of Government factories paid a fee varying between one and half a Turkish pound [\$4.40 and \$2.20, par] to an emergency fund. When a workman was sick a subscription was made among his fellow workmen to collect a certain amount of money. The same was done when a workman died. Besides, the factory granted the widow one and a last gratuity of 10 Turkish pounds [\$44, par]. This amount was sometimes made 25 pounds [\$110, par] when the deceased left a large family. The associations of Christian workmen came to an automatic dissolution, on account of lack of members, most of them having gone as soldiers and the rest having hidden to escape military service. the armistice was concluded the rôles were entirely changed. distinct associations of workmen were created by the initiative of a few broad-minded Turkish pedagogues. These two associations were created in Stamboul. They are functioning at present. One is the Socialistic Turkish Party (Turkia Socialist Gerkassi), and the other the Ottoman Agricultural Party (Osmanli Tschiftschi Derneki). These two associations have established branches in Pera, Galata, and the outskirts. The center is in Stamboul.

Corporations of small artisans have always existed. The principal Turkish corporations are those of arsenal workmen, founders (Kalafat Yeri—the owners of foundries are almost all Maltese and Italians), tanners, and shoemakers. Their salaries in peace time varied from 30 to 100 piasters silver [\$1.32 to \$4.40, par]. These salaries were

¹ Translation of an article dealing with the labor movement in Turkey forwarded to the Department of State by the United States High Commissioner in Turkey, under date of Jan. 12, 1921. The original source of the article is not given.

raised during the war from 60 to 300 piasters [\$2.64 to \$13.20, par]. The workmen are paid every week and live just on their salaries. They are directed by their foremen (ousta bachi), who is responsible for the work they produce. They have organized a committee in charge of assisting the workmen in case of accident or sickness, and have an emergency fund. Every factory or workshop possesses a similar organization, with the difference that in the Government factories the workmen's funds are badly administered, and wasted by the foremen conjointly with the directors, while in private institutions the workmen are assisted and receive an indemnity when they reach the age limit. Some months ago the Turkish Socialistic Party had united together all the dispersed elements and had begun to treat them well. In return the workmen had to pay a fee. The party has assumed the task of defending the rights of workmen. The Socialistic Party also undertakes to intervene in conflicts between employers and workmen and to carry on, in the name of the latter, negotiations with the Government. During the strike of the tramway employees the said party played but a little rôle. The party is collecting money to publish a socialistic paper.

Turkish women are not admitted in the workshops. Eight hundred and fifty women workers are employed in a military cloth factory in Defterdar. Women are also employed at the tobacco regie (*Djibali Factory*), and the sack factory in Stamboul. They have, however, no organization. Their salaries vary from 50 to 75 piasters [\$2.20 to

\$3.30, par] per day.

Types of Workers' Associations.

THE system of Turkish corporations is really like a system of the Middle Ages. The associations of coachmen, boatmen (sala-pouriadjis), porters, lightermen and boatmen, tailors, hairdressers, bakers, joiners, waiters, and undertaker's men are the best organized. The members of these associations are mixed. Each association has a center composed of eight members. The president is elected among the most influential members of the association, workmen having no right to vote. Money and propaganda play the chief rôle in the

election of the president.

Association of coachmen.—All coachmen of carriages are syndicated; otherwise they could not exercise their profession. Each coachman must pay to the cashier of the syndicate a sum of Ltq.¹ 250 [\$1,099, par]. He gets a registered personal dossier, and can apply to the association if his interests are wronged. Each district has its chief (kehaya), named by the central committee. The association of coachmen of transport vehicles is not so well organized as that of carriages (phaeton). Its center is in Sirkedji. The members pay a sum of Ltq. 150 [\$659.40, par] to enter the association. The president of the association (Bash kehaya) receives the fees for all trips, and is in charge of the payment of salaries to the coachmen employed. (The kehaya having earned a lot of money, possesses about 20 vehicles which he works around the customhouse of Stamboul.)

Association of salapouriadjis (small lighters).—This association has its center in Kabatache. It possesses branches in Oun Kapan,

¹ Ltq.=Turkish pound or lire=\$4.396, par.

Emine Eunu, and Galata. The members of this association are most of them Lazes and Greeks. Most of them are people who made money during the war in contraband in the Black Sea ports. These owners, who are relatively limited in number, keep a large staff. The latter get, besides their salaries, a percentage of profits, when it is a question of making a "coup." For lack of bonded stores, goods are deposited in small lighters (salapourias) and covered with tarpaulins, and the charge for the boat is Ltq. 15 [\$65.94, par] per day and ton. The profits made by the owners are in this way enormous.

Association of lightermen and boatmen (large lighters).—This association has neither a president nor a committee. Each district acts for itself. Thus, the boatmen of the Golden Horn have no connection whatsoever with those of Karakeuy, Emine Eunu, or Yenikapou. The boatmen have a kehaya who acts as adviser and to whom they apply for the settlement of differences. The kehaya gets the profits made during the day and distributes them among the lightermen (mahounadjis), keeping for himself the largest portion. The boatmen possess a small boat or a lighter and are not allowed to work at any station but the one where they have their kehaya. There are frequent quarrels between the boatmen of Sirkedji and those of Karakeuy when the former transport goods or passengers from the landing station of Karakeuy.

Association of porters.—The association of porters is divided into wo groups. The customhouse porters' corporation and the railways' porters' corporation. They are two well organized bodies, since they form part of the personnel of these two institutions. The president of the corporation is elected by direct vote, and his nomination is communicated to the said institutions by a tezkere signed by all the associates. The other porters have also an association, the center of which is in Balouk Bazar. Each porter has to be a member of this corporation. The kehaya is named by the oldest porter. Each porter works in a definite district, and can not change it unless he gets a tezkere from the chief of the corporation. The kehaya disposes of a definite number of porters and can employ them as he sees fit. In general he does the bargaining with the customers and gets the fees for the work. The accounts are settled every night, and the chief of the corporation keeps the lion's share. The kehayas abuse the ignorance and good faith of these poor men, who are shamelessly exploited.

Association of tailors.—The association of tailors (workmen) is well enough organized. It has a few thousands of members. It consists of a president, counselors, and secretaries. The administrative council consists of 10 members. The association possesses statutes containing the conditions of work. The association has also fixed a price for the working up of various clothing articles which are consigned by the tailor merchants and cutters to the tailor workmen (kalfas). Recently the tailor workmen had a strike and asked the employers for an increase of 50 per cent on their salaries. The strike lasted many days and ended after the employers acceded to the workmen's request. The association binds itself to procure work for the members who pay regularly the usual fee.

Association of bakers.—This association has its center at Taxim. It includes kneaders, bakers' employees, and bread distributors.

Their number reaches 1,000 and most of the members are Greeks and Armenians. The association of bakers is one of the oldest corporations of Constantinople. There is also an association of bakery owners.

Association of joiners.—This association, composed of joiners, cabinetmakers, carpenters, modelers, and polishers, forms one of the most important organizations of workmen in Constantinople. It has more than 5,000 active members and disposes of important funds. There are no Turks in this group. The administrative committee is composed of a president, elected by direct vote during a general assembly, of three counselors, and two secretaries. Its center is at Kaloindji Koulouk. The yearly fee is Ltq. 5 [\$21.98, par].

is at Kaloindji Koulouk. The yearly fee is Ltq. 5 [\$21.98, par].

Association of waiters.—The association of hotel, bar, and coffeehouse waiters counts more than 3,500 members. Its center is in Pera,
ex-Katakloum, opposite the British embassy. The yearly fee is Ltq.
2 [\$8.79, par]. The president, before organizing a strike, succeeded in
improving the situation of waiters by forcing employers to institute an
obligatory gratuity of 10 per cent on bills. Thanks to this measure,
the situation of waiters is somewhat improved. At present the administrative committee of the association is in pourparlers with the
other corporations for a fusion of all corporations into one body.
Cooks and pastry cooks have already joined the movement.

Association of hairdressers.—The association of hairdressers counts about 1,000 members, most of them Greeks and Armenians. The hairdressers (calfaz) pay a monthly fee of one-half a Turkish pound (\$2.20 par). They had a recent strike and insisted on the Sunday rest, besides an increase in their salary. During the negotiations between the syndicate and the employers it was agreed that the hairdressers would have half Sunday off. An obligatory tip was

also instituted.

Association of goldsmiths and jewelers.—The goldsmiths of the Grand Bazar (Kouyoumdji alfassi) have a special organization with an administrative committee elected every two years. The right of registration is fixed at Ltq. 6 [\$26.38, par], plus a monthly fee of one-half a Turkish pound (\$2.20 par). The center is at the Grand Bezesten.

Association of druggists and assistant druggists.—It is one of the few associations that counts Turkish members. The center is in Pera. The administrative committee is composed of a vice president, two counselors, three secretaries, and a treasurer. This committee is extremely well organized. Recently they were on the point of striking, when the employers consented to grant an increase of 25 per cent to their employees, as well as the Sunday rest by turns.

Association of typographs.—The printer workmen for the papers edited in town have a syndicate. Those of printing offices and lithographies, as well as all typographs of Greek and French newspapers, have joined into an association called the Book Association. The center is in Rue Yazidji. The association organized a strike recently and succeeded in having the workmen's point of view accepted. The number of syndicated workmen reaches more than 5,000. These latter pay a yearly fee of Ltq. 12 [\$52.75, par]. There is a strong spirit of fellowship in the association. If a workman is discharged without the knowledge of the association, his colleagues stop working.

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS.

The Adjustment of War-Time Controversies.

AR TIME Strikes and Their Adjustment is the title of a new account of labor controversies during the war period, from the pen of an employer, Mr. Alexander M. Bing.¹ The book is based upon the writer's personal experiences in Government work during the war, as well as reports of the various adjustment agencies and of the Department of Labor. In the industrial background for his study the author discusses the evidences of labor unrest, the industrial unpreparedness of the country at the outbreak of the war, and the inadequacy of machinery of prewar mediating agencies to handle labor dissensions which naturally arose during the readjustment from a peace to a war time basis.

Each of the war-time agencies is discussed, the industrial conditions which made their creation necessary, the principal controversies which they handled and the principles underlying their decisions. An account of the reorganization of the Department of

Labor for the war emergency has also been included.

There follows a discussion of the principles adopted in common by all of the boards, their interpretation and the difficulties in their enforcement. These principles were in the main those adopted by the War Labor Board. The most important question considered by the war-time boards, both in its immediate influence upon the industry and upon the workers' welfare, was undoubtedly that of wages. Mr. Bing considers that a study of the work of the adjustment boards will show the following considerations to have been the most potent in influencing their decisions upon the question:

1. A minimum living wage. The one principle which stands out most prominently and on which there was a general agreement was the desirability of the payment to all workers of at least a minimum

MOOR

2. Increase in the cost of living. It was generally felt by both employer and employee that although not necessarily the determining factor, the percentage by which living costs had increased had always to be given the fullest consideration before a wage award was made. There were few hearings at which evidence was not offered on this question.

3. Standardization, both within a given industry and over a given territory. The tendency toward uniformity in wage rates was one

of the most definitely marked phenomena of the war.

4. Increase in productive efficiency. Except in relation to the minimum wage the question of productive efficiency seems to have received little attention of the adjustment boards. This fact the

¹ Mr. Bing gave his services to the Government during the war and took an active part in the settlement of labor controversies, first in the Shipping Board and later in the Ordnance Department.

author attributes to the difficulty of determining just what the effects of wage increases upon efficiency were and to the fact that the power of the men to enforce their demands made wage increases necessary irrespective of their effect upon the efficiency of the workers.

In fact, toward the end of the war the problem of promoting production involved not so much a question of giving the workers more pay, but rather the fear that high earnings were lessening efficiency, and here we must distingush between wage rates and earnings. The increase in wage rates was in most industries no greater than the increase in the cost of living. Earnings, however, and especially those of the entire family, did show a much greater increase. This was due in part to the elimination of unemployment, in part to overtime, and in part also to the ease with which all members of a family could get work at high wages. The large amounts which the men themselves were earning were in many cases much more than they had ever been accustomed to and these were often substantially increased by the unprecedented earning power of other members of the family. Unfortunately this prosperity had one very bad effect. It led to inefficiency and to an attitude on the part of some of these workers of absolute indifference as to whether or not they kept their job.

5. The effect of overtime in increasing weekly earnings. The author says:

During the war it [overtime] became in most industries a regular practice. As a result weekly earnings were increased by amounts varying from 40 to 100 or more per cent. It was psychologically impossible to ignore a factor which so potently influenced the actual earnings of the men. Consciously or unconsciously these large amounts of pay due to overtime were taken into consideration and wages were fixed at rates lower than would otherwise have been the case.

To substantiate his statement that real wages did not rise in most industries above the cost of living, the author presents wage charts showing money wages and real wages based on the cost of living figures of the Bureau of Labor Statistics. These charts cover the period from December, 1914, to December, 1919. They show that while money wages of marine employees rose 145 per cent, the real wage went up less than 30 per cent. In the case of the railroads the real wage actually decreased almost 10 per cent. Real wages in the iron and steel industry, in the shipyards, and the boot and shoe industry rose from 10 to 30 per cent, while real wages of navy-yard employees, building-trades employees, printers and electrotypers, and all employees in the metal trades actually decreased from 3 to 30 per cent.

Part 3 of the book is devoted to the psychological background of industrial unrest, in which the author discusses the attitude of employer and labor toward each other and toward the Government, and the attitude of the public toward all three. Examples of extreme

antagonism are included.

An appendix contains strike data from 1914 to 1919.

In his conclusion the author says:

Among the many hopes raised by the war was the hope that never again would we go back to the old days of unregulated industry. The practicability of arbitration seemed so conclusively demonstrated that it was widely believed that industry would never again exist without adequate provision for the avoidance of industrial disputes. But this hope proved illusory.

Nor is it difficult to see why arbitration in a great emergency was more successful than in normal times. War psychology gave to all members of the community the impulse to make sacrifices for the common good. Capital and labor both consented to waive certain controversial demands for which representatives of each side fight bitterly in times of peace. Some of the chief sources of present-day conflict were thus

removed. What remained was the difficult, although comparatively simple, task of applying the rules that had been agreed upon.

But the moment the war was over each side was eager to reassert the rights which it

had temporarily waived.

The success of arbitration under [war-time] conditions made us too sanguine. The implications of a continuous use of arbitral processes were not generally realized. We overlooked the very important fact that the submission of industrial controversies to judicial settlement meant the relinquishment of an attempt by one or both sides to achieve its own way by force; that it meant the substitution of the judgment of the arbitrator for the will of the parties to the dispute. But the same factors which, through the centuries, have kept nations from settling their disputes in a peaceful manner are at work to destroy industrial peace—the unwillingness of the individual or the group to substitute arbitration for force.

Another difficulty is the absence of any agreement upon a set of principles as a basis for the adjustment of disputes. A code may be improvised in an emergency and imposed on each side by the power of a Government, but the acceptance of Government-made standards can be procured only for the period of the emergency. Just as soon

as it has passed, neither side will continue to accept compromises.

During the war itself, progress was made toward securing a broader spirit of cooperation. But today we are more than ever in need of a better understanding between employer and employee. It is imperative that present feelings of hostility be replaced by a mutual desire to cooperate. This can not come unless the very real improvement which has already been made in the conditions of many wage-earners be further extended and unless the workers be gradually given a substantial share of the control of industry.

Fortunately both employer and employee are here and there showing the workings of a new spirit. The idea of service is beginning to take its place in the new conception of industry. Some employers are endeavoring to give their workers a larger share of control. They are groping their way toward organization on the basis of cooperation and service. Some of the workers also see that if they are to share in this control

they, too, must develop a new conception of cooperative efficiency.

Strikes and Lockouts in Canada in 1920.

REVIEW of strikes and lockouts in Canada in 1920 appears in the Labor Gazette, Ottawa, for February, 1921 (pp. 164–189). There were 285 of these disturbances in 1920, 14 being carried over from 1919. The number of employees involved was 52,150 and the number of employers 1,272. The report estimates a total time loss of 886,754 working days, or an average of 3,260 days for each strike or lockout, counting only those which began in 1920. Many strikes of short duration are not counted by the Canadian Department of Labor; that is, to be included in the statistical summary a strike must have involved six or more employees and have lasted not less than 48 hours. There were 47 such disputes involving 4,759 work people which for the reasons given have not been counted in the 1920 returns. The following table distributes the strikes and lockouts by industry:

STRIKES AND LOCKOUTS IN CANADA IN 1920, BY INDUSTRY.

Industr y.	Disputes.		Number	Time loss.	
	Number.	Per cent.	employ- ees involved.	Working days.	Per cent.
Lumbering	33	11.5	3, 852	79, 054	8.9
Mines, smelters, quarries, clay products, etc	45	15.8	11, 790	165, 509	18.
Railway, canal, and harbor construction	3	1.1	235	3, 707	20.
Building and construction.	34	11.9	4, 840	72, 878	8.2
Metals, machinery, and conveyances	65	22, 8	13, 250	349, 295	39,
		2.9	1, 344	24, 137	2.3
Woodworking Pulp and paper	4	1.4	1, 151	12,090	1,
Printing and publishing	7	2.4	1, 151 353	2, 026	
Clothing		3. 2	1. 271	20, 520	2.3
Pextiles	4	1.4	1, 271 755	4, 673	
Food, liquors, and tobacco	22	7.7	3, 221	43, 695	4.5
Leather	3	1.1	63	1, 519	. 2
Steam railway service	2	.7	265	4,780	
Electric railway service	4	1.4	3,094	14, 347	1.6
Miscellaneous transport	7	2.4	1 994	7,590	. (
Navigation	9	3. 2	1, 224 1, 832	21, 819	2.
Public utilities	6	2. 1	2, 253	38, 902	4.
Municipal employment	7	2. 4	397	8, 448	1. (
Miscellaneous	13	4.6	960	11, 765	1.8
Total	285	100.0	52, 150	886, 754	100.0

Trade Disputes in Great Britain in 1920.

THE British Labor Gazette for January, 1921 (pp. 2, 6, and 7) reports the number of trade disputes in that country, giving a table showing by trade groups the number of disputes, the number of work people involved, and the number of days lost in 1920, as compared with 1919. This table is as follows.

LABOR DISPUTES IN GREAT BRITAIN IN 1919 AND 1920, BY GROUPS OF TRADES.

	1919			1920		
Groups of trades.	Number of dis- putes be- ginning in 1919.	Number of work people involved in all dis- putes in progress.1	Aggregate duration in working days of all disputes in progress.		Number of work people involved in all dis- putes in progress.1	Aggregate duration in working days of all disputes in progress.
Building Coal mining. Other mining and quarrying. Engineering and shipbuilding. Other metal.	150 212 32 188 126 61	25, 000 906, 000 5, 000 309, 000 83, 000 490, 000	578,000 7,441,000 138,000 10,012,000 1,813,000 8,167,000	247 210 32 230 114 127	47,000 1,414,000 5,000 152,000 75,000 79,000	896, 000 17, 424, 000 108, 000 2, 540, 000 843, 000 1, 441, 000
Clothing Transport Woodworking and furnishing Other trades Employees of public author-	77 129 62 277	29, 000 574, 000 25, 000 119, 000	245, 000 3, 883, 000 988, 000 1, 381, 000	74 149 100 306	38,000 72,000 31,000 78,000	749,000 578,000 978,000 1,205,000
ities	99	21,000	257, 000	126	28,000	249,000
Total	1, 413	2, 586, 000	34, 903, 000	1,715	2,019,000	27, 011, 000

¹Work people involved in more than one dispute during the year are counted more than once in the totals for the year. The extent of such duplication is not very considerable except that in the coalmining group in 1920 about 314,000 work people were involved in more than one dispute.

Strikes and Lockouts in Public Utilities in Germany.1

S THE outcome of a strike of electrical workers in Berlin in the early part of November, the presidential order summarized below was issued on the 10th of the month.

Lockouts and strikes in establishments which supply the community with gas, water, and electricity are permissible only after the issue of an award by the competent conciliation committee, and when three days at least have elapsed since its publication.

Persons who incite to a strike or lockout prohibited under this order, or who, in order to bring about such a strike, perform acts in regard to workshops, machinery, or equipment by which the regular carrying on of the undertaking is hampered or rendered impossible are liable to imprisonment or of fine up to 15,000 marks (\$3,570, par). A like penalty will be imposed upon any one who proclaims a lockout in the circumstances defined above.

If establishments of the said nature are brought entirely or partially to a standstill as the result of a lockout or strike, the minister of the interior is empowered to insure emergency work and an emergency supply and to take all administrative measures for securing the maintenance of supplies for the population or the continuance of the undertaking. This includes the satisfaction of justifiable demands made by the workers. The cost of putting such measures in operation shall fall upon the owner of the establishment.

Manual and nonmanual workers and officials who continue to carry on work in the establishments referred to, or who carry out authorized emergency work or work for insuring the necessary supplies, shall not suffer loss of any kind as the result of such action.

This order entered into force on November 10.

Strikes in Poland During the First Quarter of 1920.

ATA as to strikes in Poland during the first quarter of 1920 have been forwarded to this bureau by the American consul general at Warsaw under date of January 20, 1921, the material being taken from the official bulletin of the Polish Bureau of Statistics, volume 1, 1920. The following table summarizes the information by industry:

NUMBER OF STRIKES IN POLAND DURING FIRST QUARTER OF 1920 BY INDUSTRY.

Industry or occupation.	Number of strikes.	Industry or occupation.	Number of strikes.
Mining industry Smelting industry Textile industry Clothing manufacturing industry Paper industry Printing industry Constructors Timber industry Machinists Mineral industry Fat products industry	9 1 5 18 3 7 6 6 21 3 2	Food products manufacturing industry. Chemical goods industry. Commerce and transportation. Communication. Government institutions and publicutility companies. Private laborers. Domestic servants, etc. Total.	12 6 1 7 11 11 11 140

Reprinted from the Labor Gazette, London, December, 1920, p. 673.

Details of 90 strikes, giving duration, the demands of the workers, and the results, show that 69 were for raises in wages, of which 55 were granted, although not to the whole extent asked. Of 57 strikes for which duration was reported 35 lasted less than 15 days. Only 7 strikes lasted for one month or more.

Labor Disputes in Sweden in 1918 and 1919.1

IN SWEDEN the last few years have been marked by frequent strikes as well as by occasional lockouts. In 1913 there were 82 strikes and 1 lockout, the greater number of the former having been due to conflicts over the question of wages. In 1918 strikes were more frequent, reaching the number of 668, while there were 10 lockouts. These affected 61,223 working people, each striker losing about 23½ days; the Royal Social Board reported the loss of time as

equal to 1,436,409 working days.

In 1919 there were fewer strikes—414—but the number of employers and working people affected were many more than in the year previous. No less than 2,362 employers and 81,041 working people were involved in these conflicts. The Royal Social Board has estimated the loss of time as 2,295,910 days. Of these strikes and lockouts in 1919, 69 per cent were settled by mutual concessions on the part of employers and employed; 18 per cent terminated in favor of the employer, and in 13 per cent only were the workingmen victorious.

 $^{^{\}rm 1}$ Extract from report on commerce and industries of Sweden for year 1919, forwarded by the Department of State.

MEDIATION AND ARBITRATION.

Adjustment of Dispute Between Packing Companies and Their Employees.

URING the war (on Dec. 24, 1917) the five largest meat-packing companies in the Middle West entered into an agreement with the United States Government, the essential provision of which was that for the period of the war all differences between them and their employees should be submitted to arbitration. The employees signed a similar agreement with the Government; there was no agreement directly between the packers and the workers. On April 12, 1919, the companies voluntarily agreed with the Government to continue the original agreement for a period of "one year after peace is declared," and on June 4 the employees' representatives also agreed to continue the original agreement for a period of "one year after the end of the war." On February 21, 1921, the packers notified the Secretary of Labor of their intention to terminate the original agreement and the extension thereof on the ground that the war had really ended although peace had not been formally declared. This information was communicated by the Secretary of Labor to the employees' representatives and to Judge Alschuler, the administrator.

In pursuance of their announced policy, the packers notified their employees of (1) a reduction in wages effective March 14, 1921, of 8 cents an hour for hourly workers and of $12\frac{1}{2}$ per cent in the rates of pieceworkers; (2) that overtime rates of pay would apply after 10 hours' work daily instead of 8 hours, or after 54 hours a week; and (3) of retention of the guarantee of 40 hours a week. The employees protested to the President against what they considered a violation of the agreement by the packers, and the entire matter was referred to the Secretary of Labor. Representatives of both sides met the Secretary in Washington on March 21. In the meantime a vote by the workers had resulted in favor of a strike. Several meetings of employers' and employees' representatives were held with the Secretary of Labor, and on the 23d an agreement was reached, as follows:

In connection with the matter of labor rates and conditions in the packing houses within the Alschuler administration, and agreeable to the conversations which we have had with you during the past few days, we hereby accept your recommendation covering an amicable adjustment of said matters and an arrangement for the continuation of wages, hours, and working conditions as they existed under the latest Alschuler ruling, subject, however, to the following modifications:

ruling, subject, however, to the following modifications:

First. The wage cuts of 8 cents per hour for hourly workers and 12½ per cent for all pieceworkers shall remain in effect as of the dates announced by the packers and shall not be subject to any further arbitration. If any further reductions are desired, they shall be submitted to the administrator.

Second. The basic eight-hour day and overtime rates as announced in the latest rulings of Judge Alschuler shall be restored, subject, however, to the right of the

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employers or employees to submit to the administrator, if they desire, any question

as to changes therein.

Third. The agreement of December 25, 1917, and extensions thereof and all decisions thereunder (except as herein modified) shall remain in effect until September 15, 1921, at which time the agreement and all awards thereunder and supplemental and renewals thereof and understandings connected therewith shall absolutely terminate.

Fourth. Judge Samuel Alschuler, or his successor, as administrator, shall until said date retain and exercise all of the jurisdiction and authority heretofore existing and the employers and employees shall abide by his decisions in all matters of jurisdiction and powers under the administration and all subjects of hours, wages, conditions, and adjustments thereof, excepting as hereinbefore set out. The employers and employees shall, however, be permitted to put into operation plans whereby they may develop a method to handle between themselves all matters of mutual interest so long as they do not interfere with the administration.

Fifth. Any questions relating to hours or wages that may be submitted to the administrator during the continuance of the agreement shall be submitted on written

briefs, unless otherwise requested by the administrator.

Sixth. We understand and appreciate that this agreement contemplates and covers the exigencies and conditions at this time in the packing houses within the Alschuler administration, without relation to industrial conditions or wages generally.

This agreement was signed by the employees' representatives and also, with the exception of the last paragraph, by the representatives of the five packing companies interested.

Arbitration in Minnesota.

INNESOTA, in common with a number of other States, has a law providing a State board of arbitration for the adjustment of labor disputes; and as in many other States, but little use has been made of this board. However, this latter statement is true only up to the beginning of the year 1918, when war conditions led the governor to emphasize the importance of the adjustment of disputes without protracted delay. The law creating the board of arbitration was enacted in 1895, and for a great many years prior to 1917 there was no business transacted by it. Two members, a quorum, were appointed in June, 1917, but prior to March 30, 1918, it had had but 7 cases before it. This dearth of action is explained by the fact that submissions could be had only upon mutual consent of the parties involved. On March 30, 1918, the governor, impelled by the necessities of full production during the war, requested the commission to take the initiative in securing contacts that would lead to better understanding and amicable adjustments of industrial disagreements.

According to the biennial report of the State Board of Arbitration, 1919–20, from September 1, 1917, to December 1, 1918, there were 45 cases before the board, involving 600 firms and 7,000 employees. There were 14 applications by employers, 24 by employees, and 7 were referred from other sources. Six cases were settled by arbitration, 31 by conciliation, 5 were referred to other bodies, 1 was withdrawn and 2 were pending at the end of the period.

Some 20 additional cases were acted upon during the biennium 1919–20; no summary of numbers or results is given. It is apparent that the activity during these two years is considerably less than that for the year 1918, when there was a stimulated indus-

trial activity. The board regards the State as having been "particularly fortunate in having but few controversies in her industrial field, and of these but one (the coal strike) reached a serious stage." The board feels that the present machinery in that State is adequate, except possibly for some slight changes, and does not believe that "any new legislation looking toward a restriction or avoidance of strikes, lockouts, or other industrial disturbances is necessary."

Report of New York Bureau of Mediation and Arbitration.

S SHOWN in the annual report of the New York Industrial Commission for 1919 (pp. 181–191), the bureau of mediation and arbitration of that State reports for the year ending une 30, 1919, a record of 168 disputes as against 265 for the preceding year. However, the number of employees involved and days lost were much larger in 1919, 208,952 workers being directly involved in the latter year as against 83,650 in 1918. The number indirectly involved was smaller, being 2,006 as against 3,655. The aggregate days of working time lost in 1919 amounted to 11,346,653, while in the earlier year the aggregate amounted to but 1,785,384. The bureau intervened in 74 cases in 1919, intervention being requested in 31 of these; 43 settlements were effected. Of the 168 strikes in 1919, 61 were successful, 48 partially successful, and 59 were lost to the strikers.

The greatest number both of strikers and of working days lost is

The greatest number both of strikers and of working days lost is to be found in the clothing, millinery, etc., trades, the number of days being 7,660,218. The next greatest number of working days lost was in leather and rubber goods, 1,723,622; textiles followed

with 443,360.

The function of the bureau is regarded as purely conciliatory, the suitable time for its activities being before the breaking off of relations between the parties to the dispute. To that end amendments to the law are recommended, one providing that employers of labor and secretaries of labor organizations shall file copies of agreements or contracts regulating wages or conditions of labor, and that the same parties send notice to the commission whenever a strike or lockout occurs or is seriously threatened. A similar requirement of notice is desired where there is a failure of any pending negotiations relative to wages or working conditions, or when a strike or lockout takes place.

WHAT STATE LABOR BUREAUS ARE DOING.

Massachusetts.

THROUGH the agency of the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries and as an outcome of a 1920 investigation made by the department a safety council has been organized with the object of reducing accidents to street railway and steam railway employees, according to a recent announcement by the department. The council is to have two sections—one to deal with steam railway accidents the other with street railway accidents. Safety engineers and other men engaged in accident prevention work will serve on these committees.

As a result of the work of the department of labor and industries instruction in industrial accident prevention has been introduced in the State's public continuation schools. The department's Industrial Bulletin No. 15, 1920, Conserving children in industries in

Massachusetts, will be used in the course.1

The department has made a recent investigation of private employ-

ment agency fees.

At the request of the United States Employment Service the department has begun to collect monthly data as to the number of persons employed in the principal manufacturing establishments of Boston, Springfield, and Worcester.

Nevada.

THE Commissioner of Labor of Nevada, under the provisions of section 4 of the organic act creating his office, is obtaining both medical aid and compensation for an increasing number of injured employees whose employers are not contributors to the State industrial insurance fund, according to a statement in the Third Biennial Report of the Commissioner of Labor, 1919–20. Eight claims were rejected by the Nevada Industrial Insurance Commission during the year ending June 30, 1920, because the employer was not a contributor to the fund, and more than "10 inquiries were received from injured employees, whose employers were not contributors, requesting forms for filing claims." These inquiries were not followed up by the commissioner of labor, so no details can be furnished as to character of the injury, the medical services required and secured, or the amount of time lost.

The usual practice of the commissioner in submitting the claim of an injured worker to the employer is to urge the immediate supplying of sufficient medical and hospital care and then to present to him the compensation schedule which the Nevada Industrial Commission

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¹Cf. article on Child conservation in Massachusetts industries in MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW for December, 1920, pp. 127, 128.

would have awarded had State industrial insurance been provided

in the case.

The report presents a list of uninsured cases handled, the commissioner of labor stating that it is not very encouraging but serves to show the results that might be expected in general practice where no legal responsibilities grow out of industrial accidents, and is suggestive of the need of providing a universal protection to the victims of such accidents.

Among the recent recommendations made by the Commissioner of Labor of Nevada is "that without impairing the service to be rendered employments in which women are engaged should be prohibited from extending the spread of hours beyond 12 in any 24-hour period, and that this should be only permitted to any great extent in restaurants or hotels." Women operators in telegraph offices and telephone exchanges where their services are, in a sense, continuous, should be covered by the provisions of the eight-hour law.

New Hampshire.1

UNDER the factory inspection law of New Hampshire which went into effect June 30, 1917, the commissioner of labor was charged with the duty of inspecting "at least once a year all the factories, mills, workshops, and other manufacturing establishments employing ten or more people," and in 1919 the law was amended to include all plants employing three or more persons. The following figures indicate the activities of the factory inspection force for the past three years:

Year.	Number of plants visited.	Number of recom- menda- tions made.	Number of recom- menda- tions adopted.
1917–18. 1918–19. 1919–20.	435 497 869	2,384 1,982 3,524	1,511 1,169

The results of the recommendations made in the 1919–20 period are not included in the commissioner's report, from which the above figures were secured, but will probably be embodied in a later publication. It is stated that "New Hampshire employers and workers deserve a very high compliment for the fine spirit of cooperation shown in working out the provisions of the factory inspection law."

The commissioner of labor of New Hampshire recommends that there should be several additional free employment offices located at industrial centers and under the supervision of the State bureau of labor. A table showing the work of the free employment office from September, 1919, to August, 1920, inclusive, notes that 579 persons were called for by employers, and that of 469 referred to positions 112 were reported placed.

¹ Source: Thirteenth biennial report of the Bureau of Labor of New Hampshire for the fiscal year ending Aug. 31, 1920. Concord, 1920. 192 pp.

New York.1

THE Bureau of Statistics of the New York State Industrial Commission has been charged with the verification and compilation of the results of an investigation, made by the Associated Industries of New York State in the latter half of 1919, of sickness among New York State factory workers.

The following is a preliminary report on this survey:

The records of 143 manufacturers, with a total of nearly 77,000 employees, were included in the tabulation. The total number of cases of sickness lasting three days to six months was 8,761 for the half year—an average of 114 cases per 1,000 employees covered, or a monthly average of 19 cases per 1,000.

Sixty per cent of all cases reported lasted from three to six days. Only 10 per cent

were of more than three weeks' duration. The amount and value of working time lost on account of sickness, of course, shows a different distribution. The 60 per cent of cases mentioned above involved only 26 per cent of the total loss of working time and of wages. Nearly 50 per cent of the total number of days lost and of the total loss in wages was involved in cases of sickness lasting over 14 days, and 15 per cent in cases of more than two months' duration.

The total loss of working time involved in the 8,761 cases of sickness was 84,665 days and the loss in wages was \$321,815. This makes an average loss of approximately

10 days in working time and \$36.73 in wages for each case of sickness.

The average amount of time lost by each of the 77,000 factory workers on account of sickness was slightly over one day for the six months' period of the investigation; the corresponding average loss in wages was \$4.20. Figures contained in this summary, it should be noted, do not cover sickness of less than three days or more than six months' duration.

The annual loss of time per employee on account of sickness would probably be greater than double the figure given above for six months, as it is usually the case that the prevalence of respiratory diseases and epidemics of the late winter and early spring make the amount of sickness for the first half of the year somewhat greater

than the amount for the last half.

No comparisons can be made with other estimates of the per capita time lost caused by sickness, which range from 5 to 10 days per year, without taking into account the fact that this investigation covered people who were practically all able-bodied adults, whereas most other investigations have covered people of all ages and states of health, and also the fact that cases of sickness of less than three days or more than six months' duration were not reported in this investigation, whereas all duration of one day or over are usually included. The importance of the latter consideration is shown, for instance, in the community sickness survey conducted by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co. in Rochester, N. Y., in September, 1915. In this investigation only about one-third of the total loss of time was involved in sickness of three days to six months' duration.

Oregon.

THE Oregon Bureau of Labor in its ninth biennial report, 1919-1920, publishes an industrial directory of the manufacturers of that State, which is limited to plants using more than 2 horsepower. The bureau plans to revise this list at least every two years, and it is hoped that sufficient funds will be provided to include the agricultural field.

Camp workers are continually calling at the bureau of labor to complain of having to submit to deductions of from \$1 to \$1.50 from their wages to insure them hospital and medical treatment after having already paid the same month for this protection at the camp where they were previously employed. There is resentment among

¹ Data furnished by the New York State Industrial Commission, February 28, 1921.

other workers because they are charged the full fee for a brief period of work.

It is not an uncommon experience for a worker to have a charge of \$1.25 or \$1.50 for hospital and medical service deducted from his pay check when he has worked but a day or less. That they are required to pay hospital and medical fees, even though without any voice in the selection of the physician, is not so objectionable to workingmen as the practice of making men pay the second or even possibly the third time within a month when they are already protected, giving them nothing additional for their money, together with the fact that often a full charge is made for a short period of work, which procedure causes much indignation.

The bureau states that it seldom can give any relief in these cases, although occasionally an employer will make amends in the matter. The need is emphasized for legislation "requiring that the expense assessed against workingmen for this service be based, proportionately, on the number of days the employee actually worked."

Pennsylvania.1

RECENT bulletin of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industries declares that many people are under the impression that the mattress law is entirely for the protection of the manufacturers of the State. A report to the State division of industrial hygiene and engineering, however, states that "it is of greater benefit to the workers in the industry than to the manufacturers."

Mattress-filling materials, especially cotton, which is made from certain forms of cotton waste, is a very dusty product, and like the "shoddy" is a menace to the health of the workers unless they are safeguarded by the installation of proper exhaust systems. Any lessening of the hazard to the health of a worker, who is liable to become the victim of an occupational disease, is one of the first principles of safety. Therefore, the elimination of dangerous materials such as "shoddy" in a bedding factory, is provided for in our mattress law. When it is considered that in the beginning of 1916 approximately 95 per cent of the mattresses sold were illegal from some infraction of the law, and that fully 60 per cent of these same mattresses were made outside of this Commonwealth, that filthy and vile materials were used for filling; there is comfort and cause for congratulation in the great improvement in the conditions surrounding this business through the enforcement of the mattress law. It has redeemed a business which had fallen into ill repute.

The following figures are taken from the report on mattress inspection in Pennsylvania for the year 1919:

Number of inspections and visits made to factories, warehouses, showrooms, and stores	543
Number of new mattresses, mattress pads, davenports, day-beds, and porch hammock pads under inspection	
Number of mattresses rejected and condemned for using illegal materials in	
filling	560
Number of second-hand mattresses for which requests were received for informa- tion relative to their disposition, which in many cases resulted in their con-	
demnation and destruction	990
tories and warehouses	250
Number of samples submitted during the year of raw stock (felt) by cotton brokers and cotton batt manufacturers for classification and approval	
brokers and could have mandacourers for classification and approvar	100

¹Bulletin of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industries. Report of activities of the Division of Industrial Hygiene and Engineering for 1918 and 1919. Harrisburg. Vol. 7, series of 1920, No. 9.

Number of samples rejected as classified above.	325
Number of calls and visits from manufacturers, cotton brokers, and others seek-	320
ing information	135
Number of visits by manufacturers and cotton brokers, etc., from outside of this	
State	43
Number of prosecutions	27
Number of convictions	27
Amount of fines paid.	\$925

Tennessee.

INVESTIGATION by the Tennessee Bureau of Workshop and Factory Inspection has disclosed the fact, as noted in its eighth annual report (1920), that young children are employed as helpers to convicts. Under the child-labor law now in force minors over 14 years of age may be so employed. The report declares that the effect of this work "to say the least, can be only detrimental to the child. The atmosphere surrounding such institutions—the close association with criminals—tends to have a demoralizing effect on the undeveloped mind."

The Tennessee sweatshop law, passed in 1919 (sec. 13, ch. 110)

states that:

No person shall hire, employ, or contract with another to manufacture, alter, repair, or finish any article in any room, apartment, or tenement unless said room, apartment, or tenement shall be well lighted and ventilated and shall contain at least 500 cubic feet of air space for every person working therein: *Provided*, That where childern under the age of 16 years live in such a room, apartment, or tenement, they shall not engage in any work above specified without first obtaining a permit so to do from the Bureau of Workshop and Factory Inspection.

The special inspector of that bureau reports that 13 knitting mills are allowing work to be carried "from their factory proper, into homes for the purpose of looping, knitting, and mending." One middy blouse company has embroidering and finishing done in homes.

The law places on the manufacturers the direct responsibility for

hours of labor, ventilation, and child labor.

The report of the Bureau of Workshop and Factory Inspection declares that Tennessee is far from progressive in the matter of hours for women in industry, permitting women and girls to work 10½ hours a day, while 57 hours constitute a week's work. He states that overtime for women is a grave problem in Tennessee as is also night work, pointing out especially the danger in the latter to the morals of young girls. He adds:

The general indifference of men, who employ girls, to the moral aspect of this condition is astounding, and yet, it is the most important phase of it, to the individual and to the community. It is the consensus of opinion in foreign countries, Belgium, France, England, and others, that a great deal of immorality is the result of night work, and it should be prohibited, as the only safe way.

If the question of "no night work" for women was approached from no other side

If the question of "no night work" for women was approached from no other side than that of the human equation, it would be sufficient argument against it.

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CURRENT NOTES OF INTEREST TO LABOR.

Enlargement of Duties of the Kansas Industrial Court.

THE Industrial Welfare Commission and the Department of Labor of the State of Kansas passed out of existence March 16, 1921, a bill having passed the legislature consolidating these two with the Industrial Court. The organization of the new department has not yet been completed.

Reappointment of W. J. French to Industrial Accident Commission of California.

COV. William D. Stephens of California has reappointed Mr. W. J. French on the Industrial Accident Commission of California for a full-term period of four years. This will give Mr. French continuous service since September 1, 1911, and probably entitles him to be considered the dean of compensation commissioners so far as length of service is concerned.

Nationalities of Skilled and Unskilled Laborers on Hawaiian Sugar Plantations, May, 1920.

THE Report for 1920 of the Governor of Hawaii to the Secretary of the Interior gives a table showing the nationalities of the skilled and unskilled laborers on Hawaiian sugar plantations in May, 1920, as follows:

NUMBER OF LABORERS ON HAWAHAN SUGAR PLANTATIONS IN MAY, 1920, BY NATIONALITY.

Nationality.	Skilled.	Unskilled.	Total.
American Hawaiian Porto Rican Portuguese Spanish Russian Filipino Japanese Chinese Korean All others	774 241 34 511 6 6 56 256 94 47 245	50 873 1, 124 2, 269 268 11 7, 113 9, 900 1, 287 722 67	824 1, 114 1, 158 2, 780 274 17 7, 169 10, 156 1, 381 769 312
Total	2,270	23,684	25,954

Cuban Farm Schools.

SIX model farm schools have been organized in Cuba under the direction of the secretary of agriculture, according to a statement in the Bulletin of the Pan American Union (Washington), for February, 1921. The conservation of forage in hay making and by conversion into silage will be given special attention. The silo is a dominant feature on these model farms. Students will have field practice in operating tractors, plowing, and the construction of vermin-proof chicken houses. The importance of utilizing animal manures is emphasized.

The stables, cattle houses, and piggeries are well ventilated, clean, and constructed according to the best modern usage. There are nurseries of ornamental and useful plants. Free seed distribution to farmers is made. In the laboratories the preparation of preserved products, such as tomato paste, dried bananas and yuca, jerked beef, and salt pork, is taught.

The model farm school course is at present two years. It has been proposed to lengthen the term to three years.

Emigration to Mexico.

THE Bulletin of the Pan American Union (Washington) for February, 1921, states that the Mexican Department of Agriculture is carrying on negotiations with the representatives of 60,000 Russians who are planning to go to Mexico to engage in agricultural work. Announcement is also made in the same publication that 100 German families have recently gone to Vera Cruz with the intention of "colonizing agricultural land in that State."

Progress in Industrial Education in Argentina and Uruguay.

AS SHOWN by the Bulletin of the Pan American Union (Washington) for February, 1921, the First Argentina Congress of Industrial Students held its sessions in Buenos Aires in October, 1920. Among the important matters taken up at this meeting was "the recognition of degrees conferred by the various industrial schools and scholarships abroad for honor students."

The Uruguay Superior Board of Industrial Education is planning to establish industrial schools in various towns in the interior of the Republic. One of these institutions, which is coeducational, opened for classes last October in Cañelones. Provision is made for teaching carpentering, blacksmithing, mechanics, and basket making to the male pupils, and dressmaking, cutting, fitting, trimming, lace work, and basket making to the girl pupils.

Annual Leave for Workmen in Germany.

THE Korrespondenzblatt, the official organ of the General Federation of German Trade-Unions, publishes an article on annual leave for workers. The writer points out that such leave no longer constitutes a subject for debate, but has become a fact. All collective agreements recently concluded in Germany contain a clause which regulates the matter. The manner in which the principle is applied

is, however, open to serious objection.

Annual leave should be granted to workers not as a reward for long and faithful service, and in proportion to the length of the service, but as a means of promoting health and preventing illness. The leave should be sufficiently long to insure physical and mental recuperation. A fortnight should be accepted as the minimum, or at least the normal period. The common practice of granting leave in proportion to the length of service involves gross injustice. some trades men are compelled to change their employers more frequently than in others, and a period of service under one employer may be terminated through no fault of the worker, who has to start all over again to put in the qualifying period. The writer holds that a Federal law dealing with workers' annual leave is necessary. He suggests that a form of "annual leave insurance" might be organized in connection with the old-age and invalidity insurance, and proposes that, if the employer is to bear the full cost of the leave, he should in each of the 50 weeks worked per year pay into the State Insurance Office, or an office set up for the purpose, an amount equal to two hours' wages for each worker employed. If an amount representing 92 to 96 hours' wages be paid over to the worker when the time of his annual leave arrives, the remaining amount would be sufficient, together with the interest on the weekly contributions, to pay for the administration of the scheme.

Mobilization of Employees of Railroads and Mines to Prevent Strikes in Jugo-Slavia.

A DISPATCH from the American consul at Belgrade states that because of a growing tendency on the part of railroad and mine employees to voice dissatisfaction with wages received and to show opposition to governmental measures by means of frequent strikes, the Government of the Kingdom of the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes recently (Dec. 15, 1920) issued two decrees providing for the operation of the railroads and the mines, in case of strike, mutiny, or disorder, by the mobilization into the army of the employees of these two branches of industry. All male employees, including officials, between the ages of 18 and 50 years are affected. Provision is made for no change in the status of the officials of railroads and mines while in military service, and compensation and allowances are provided.

Post Office Life Insurance in Japan.¹

THE post office life insurance project was adopted by the Diet of Japan in the 1915–16 session and went into operation in October, 1916. The business is at present conducted by the bureau of the post office life insurance under the minister of communications. The receiving of contract applications, the collecting of premiums, etc., are taken care of by the post offices, of which there are over 7,000 throughout the country. The age limit of eligibles for insurance is between 12 and 60, both inclusive.

Policies are of two kinds, whole life and endowment. Endowment policies are divided into 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, and 40 year endowments. There are two classes of whole life policies—ordinary policies and limited payment policies, the latter being subdivided into 10, 15, and 20 year payment policies. Policies are issued only for the multiples of 10 sen (5 cents, par), the sums insured thereby being limited between 20 yen (\$9.97, par) and 250 yen (\$124.63, par) both inclusive. Medical examination is not required but in all cases individual applicants must have a personal interview with a post office official.

When 15 or more employees of the Government offices, commercial corporations, factories, etc., apply for insurance as a body, the contract may most simply be concluded without the personal interview of the applicants being made by an official of the post office, provided that their health certificates be supplied by their employers. The premium for each person in such case is to be paid monthly by their representative on a certain fixed date.

From October, 1916, to the close of March, 1919, the total number of contracts was 1,165,615, of which 60.5 per cent were whole life policies and 39.5 endowment policies; 61.8 per cent of the insured were males and 38.2 per cent females. The total premiums up to March 31, 1919, amounted to 470,167.7 yen (\$234,379, par), and the total amount of contracts in force at that time was 105,841,419.5 yen (\$52,761,948, par). By March 31, 1920, the total premiums amounted to 696,278.2 yen (\$347,095, par), and the contracts in force to 153,169,953.5 yen (\$76,355,222, par). Over 58 per cent were whole life policies and 41.6 per cent were endowment policies. The following figures give the total number of contracts in force March 31, 1920, together with the classification of contracts by the occupations of the insured:

otal number of contracts in force March 31, 1920	1, 599, 715
Agriculture.	352, 323
Commerce	236, 031 139, 764
Fishing and hunting	30, 170
Miscellaneous. Central and local government officials and sailors.	105, 844 66, 212
School-teachers	32, 645
Students	35, 944
Workmen and employees. No occupation.	245, 567 350, 413
Occupation unknown	4, 802

Résumé of the Japanese Post Office Life Insurance, Tokyo, 1919, and the annual report of post office life insurance business for the year 1919. Tokio, 1920.

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PUBLICATIONS RELATING TO LABOR.

Official-United States.

ARKANSAS.—Bureau of Labor and Statistics. Annotated digest of the labor laws in force at the close of the legislative session of 1919. Little Rock, 1920. 74, vi, pp.

California.—State Committee on Soldiers' Employment and Readjustment. Report, January 1, 1919, to February 14, 1920. Sacramento, 1920. 16 pp.

This committee was created for the purpose of securing employment for and otherwise looking after the welfare of ex-service men. It succeeded to all the activities and duties of the State council of defense, and cooperates with Federal, State, county, and municipal officials and agencies in its employment and readjustment activities.

— State Land Settlement Board. Report. Sacramento, 1921. 79 pp. Illustrated.

This report is for the two-year period from June 30, 1918, to June 30, 1920. It is stated that the land settlement act has proven a highly successful scheme for enabling farmers to become landowners. The enterprise is entirely self-supporting and proves the advantages of planned community life. It is believed that "this act affords a solution of the growing unrest and discouragement on the part of farm workers and other States are preparing to enact and put into operation laws similar to that of California."

COLORADO.—Bureau of Labor Statistics. Seventeenth biennial report, 1919-1920.

Denver, 1920. 61 pp.

The report on collection of wage claims states that during the biennial period 2,911 claims were filed involving amounts totaling \$161,810.77, and that 2,123 claims were paid, the amount collected being \$79,953.65, or nearly 50 per cent of the amount alleged to be due. One section of the report is devoted to wages, by occupations, in the various industries in the State in 1916, 1918, and 1920. The State free employment offices placed 59,308 persons in positions—approximately 59 per cent of the 101,247 persons who applied for positions.

CONNECTICUT.—Board of Compensation Commissioners. Report for the years 1919 and 1920. Hartford, 1920. 34 pp.

This report is briefly noted on page 108 of this issue of the Review.

Delaware.—State Board of Charities. Annual report, 1920. [Wilmington, 1921.]

79 pp.

Contains the report of the mothers' pension commission, which was established in 1917. During the year 1920 the commission gave 167 pensions, averaging \$18.83 per month per family. The present annual rate of pension grants is \$39,594. The maximum legal pension per month for one child is \$9, for any additional children \$5 each. The commission urges that this rate be increased to \$12 for one child and \$8 for each additional child. At present the appropriation is made by counties and the fact that a surplus in one county can not be diverted to another county in need of more funds works great hardship in the cases of those mothers who can not be pensioned for lack of funds. It is recommended that this condition be improved.

HAWAII.—Governor. Report to the Secretary of the Interior, 1920. Washington, 1920. 101 pp.

A statement of the numbers of skilled and unskilled laborers on sugar plantations is given on page 188 of this issue of the Review.

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the end of 1919 was 213, 12 less than in 1918. The total membership of these unions was 229,071. At the close of 1919 there were 50 cooperative societies on the register. Profits to the amount of £299,723 (\$1,458,602, par) were available for distribution. The dividend on purchases amounted to an average of 1s. 7d. (39 cents, par) on the pound (\$4.87, par).

Australia (Victoria).—Government Statist. Annual report on friendly societies for the year 1919. Melbourne, 1920. 36 pp.

Reports a total of 49 societies with 1,489 branches, 144,280 members, and an annual income of £664,526 (\$3,233,916, par) in 1919.

- Registrar of Friendly Societies. Report, 1919. Melbourne, 1920. 4 pp.

Austria.—Staatsamt für Handel und Gewerbe, Industrie und Bauten. Statistik des Bergbaues für das Jahr 1915. Dritte Lieferung: Die Gebarung und die Ergebnisse der Krankheits-, Mortalitäts- und Invaliditätsstatistik der Bergwerksbruderladen im Jahre 1914. Vienna, 1919. 117 pp.

This volume, forming the third part of the official mining statistics of Austria for the year 1915, contains financial, sickness, mortality, and invalidity statistics of the Austrian miners' funds for the year 1914.

— Statistik des Bergbaues für das Jahr 1916. Zweite Lieferung: Betriebs- und Arbeiterverhältnisse beim Bergbau. Naphthastatistik. Vienna, 1919. 205 pp. This volume contains statistics for the year 1916 of mines and oil wells in Austria, their operation, working conditions, accidents, and miners' insurance funds.

CANADA (ONTARIO).—Department of Labor. Vocational opportunities in the industries of Ontario. A survey. Toronto, 1920. 5 vols. Bulletins 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10.

Denmark.—Arbejderforsikrings-Raadet. Beretning, 1919. Copenhagen, 1920. 230 pp. This is the report of the Workmen's Insurance Commission for 1919. It contains information regarding changes in laws, reports of decisions during 1919, and statistics on premiums and risks in different trades.

— Direktoratet for Arbejds-og Fabriktilsynet. Beretning om Arbejds-og Fabriktilsynets Virksomhed, 1918. Copenhagen, 1920. 41 pp.

Report of the factory inspection service for 1918.

— Sygekasseinspektoratet. Beretning, 1919. Copenhagen, 1920. 59 pp.

Annual report of the sick-fund inspector of Denmark. Membership during 1917 was 990.690; during 1919 it was 1,194,299. Nearly 59 per cent of the adult population are members of sick funds. Special State aid was given because of the influenza epidemic and increased prices. The report includes a statement of the receipts and expenses of sick funds.

EGYPT.—Ministry of Finance. Statistical Department. Report on cost of living (Supplement to Monthly Agricultural Statistics, November, 1920). Cairo, 1920. 10 pp. 10 detached tables.

A brief summary of this report appears on pages 62 and 63 of this issue of the Review.

FINLAND.—Socialstyrelsen. Statistique des Industries. Année 1916. Helsingfors, 1920. 250 pp. Finlands Officiella Statistik, XVIII. A. Industristatistik, 33. Statistics of industries in Finland in 1916.

— Arbetsstatistik. A. Olycksfallen i Arbetet, 1917. Helsingfors, 1920. 68 pp. Finlands Officiella Statistik, XXVI.

Includes tables showing accidents per 1,000 workers, the number of industries whose employees are insured, and accidents on Finland's ships.

France.—Ministère de l'Hygiène, de l'Assistance et de la Prévoyance Sociale. Recueil de documents sur les accidents du travail. Onzième rapport sur l'application de la loi du 9 Avril 1898. Années 1912 et 1913. Paris, 1920. 134 pp.

This report, which was delayed by the war, gives an account mainly in statistical form of the operations of accident and retirement funds in France for the years 1912 and 1913.

Germany (Frankfort on the Main).—Statistisches Amt. Die Besiedelung des Frankfurter Stadtgebiets und die Befriedigung des Wohnungsbedürfnisses der Bevölkerung. Frankfort on the Main, 1919. 201 pp. Beiträge zur Statistik der Stadt Frankfurt am Main. Heft. XI.

A statistical study of building activities and housing conditions in the city of Frankfort on the Main. Most of the statistics are not more recent than the year 1910. According to the data contained in the volume up to the end of 1910 only 12.1 per cent of the total area of the city had been improved by the erection of dwellings and streets. In 1918 the city had a total of 105,842 dwellings, of which only 2,606 were vacant. Of this total number of dwellings, one-room dwellings formed 6.6 per cent, those consisting of 2 rooms 32 per cent, those consisting of three rooms 33.5 per cent, those consisting of four rooms 13.2 per cent, and those consisting of five or more rooms 14.7 per cent. Thus two-thirds of all dwellings were two or three room dwellings. The housing census of 1918 has also shown that of a total of 7,056 one-room dwellings 196 consisted only of a kitchen, 2,476 of one room without kitchen, and 4,384 of one room and kitchen.

- Great Britain.—Civil Service Commission. Women in the civil service. Copy of regulations for competitions governing the appointment of women to situations in the new (reorganization) classes in the home civil service and with regard to the appointment and employment of married women in established situations. London, 1921. 6 pp. Cmd. 1116.
- Civil Service National Whitley Council. Cost of living committee. Report. London, 1921. 5 pp. Cmd. 1107.
- A summary of this report is given on pages 70 and 71 of this issue of the Review.
- Home Office. Committee on two-shift system. Report [and minutes of evidence] on the employment of women and young persons on the two-shift system. London, 1920. 13, 196 pp. Cmd. 1037, 1038.
 - A brief summary of this report appears on pages 93 to 95 of this issue of the Review.
- Ministry of Labor. Directory of joint standing industrial councils, interim industrial reconstruction committees, and trade boards. London, 1921. 31 pp.
- Court of inquiry concerning transport workers. Reports. London, 1920. 498, 194 pp. Cmd. 936, 937.

For a special account of this report see pages 54-62 of the May, 1920, Monthly Labor Review.

— Committee of inquiry into the work of the employment exchanges. Report [and minutes of evidence]. London, 1920–21. 32, 461 pp. Cmd. 1054, 1140.

This committee was appointed in June, 1920, "to examine the work and administration of the employment exchanges in Great Britain and to advise as to their future," and after hearing a very large amount of evidence concluded that the exchanges "must be retained as a national system and are a necessary corrollary to the State system of unemployment insurance." It is urged, however, that certain needed improvements be made at once in order to increase the effectiveness of the system.

- Oversea Settlement Committee. Report, 1920. London, 1921. 15 pp. Cmd. 1134. A summary of the work of this committee in aiding ex-service men and others to emigrate to other parts of the British Empire and elsewhere and there find employment and establish new homes.
- Registrar of Friendly Societies. Reports for the year ending 31st December, 1918.
 Part C. Trade-unions. London, 1920. xxiii, 54 pp.

In 1918 there were 692 registered trade-unions, with a membership of 5,410,236, of whom 692,615, or 13 per cent, were women. Preliminary figures for 1919 indicate a probable membership of over 6,500,000. The most important features of the development and growth of the trade-unions was the rapid recruitment of unskilled and semi-skilled workers into trade-unionism through unions providing for general or miscellaneous labor, and the unprecedented growth of agricultural unions.

In addition to these trade-unions there were on the register, at the close of 1918, 18 federations and 100 unions classed as employers' associations and trade protection societies.

India. - Department of Mines. Report, 1919. Calcutta, 1920. 101 pp.

According to this report, the average number of persons working in and about the mines regulated by the Indian mines act was 249,156 in 1919, as compared with 237,738 in 1918. Of these persons 156,741 worked underground. The distribution according to sex was—151,841 adult males, 89,565 adult females, and 7,750 children under 12 years of age. Over three-fourths of the entire number were employed in coal mines.

During 1919, 252 fatal accidents occurred (43 more than in 1919), involving a loss of 312 lives, an increase of 69 as compared with 1918. The death rate per thousand persons employed was 1.25, while that of the preceding 5 years was 1.02.

ITALY (MILAN).—Commune di Milano. I prezzi dei generi alimentari in Milano dal 1798 al 1918. Milan, 1919. 89 pp. Charts.

A statistical study on the movement of food prices in Milan, Italy, during the period 1798–1918. The study in addition contains statistics of wages and family budgets during the above period.

— Ufficio del Lavoro e della Statistica. Il contratto collettivo di lavoro per le aziende industriali. Milan, January, 1920. 92 pp.

A study by the municipal labor and statistical office of Milan on the development of collective agreements in Milan industries. On the basis of collective agreements actually concluded in 1919 in some of the principal industries the office has drafted a model labor contract in which have been incorporated all the economic and social achievements gained through collective bargaining by the strongest labor organizations of the municipality. In addition the volume contains the text of collective agreements concluded by the building trades, the metal working, cotton spinning and weaving industries, and by theatrical enterprises, tables showing the present and former wage rates in 11 industries, and cost-of-living statistics.

— Le variazioni dei salari in rapporto al rincaro della vita. II edizione. Milan, November, 1920. viii, 143 pp.

A study by the municipal labor and statistical office of Milan on the changes in wage rates in their relation to the increase in the cost of living. The minutes of the statistical conference held at Milan July 7 and 8, 1920, are given in an appendix.

International Labor Office.—The admission of Germany and Austria to the international labor organization. Geneva, 1920. 15 pp.

A brochure showing under what conditions and from what motives the admission of Germany and Austria to the international labor organization was decided upon.

- The Essen memorandum on the socialization of the coal mines in Germany. Geneva, January 28, 1921. 6 pp. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 5.
- The fifteenth congress of the General Confederation of Labor (Confédération Générale du Travail) held at Orleans the 27th September to the 2d October 1920. Geneva, December 23, 1920. 35 pp. Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 14.

A total of 2,225 trade-unions were represented at this congress, which was called primarily to determine the exact position of the General Confederation, to define its general program, and to determine its future action, especially with respect to the situation arising from the strike of the Railwaymen's Federation.

— The growth of trade-unionism during the 10 years 1910-1919. Geneva, Feb. 16, 1921. 8 pp. Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 17.

Gives statistics for 21 countries, the figures being based on returns voluntarily made by trade-unions to their Governments. "They therefore vary both in completeness and accuracy."

International Labor Office.—The socialization of the coal mines in Germany Geneva, January 25, 1921. 22 pp. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 4.

The reports of the second German Socialization Commission on the socialization of coal mines. The commission submitted a majority report by 11 members and a minority report by 10 members. The minority recommended immediate and complete socialization on the lines recommended by the first socialization commission. The majority report advocates gradual socialization without the immediate elimination of capital.

— Tendencies of European labor legislation since the war. Geneva, February 11, 1921. 20 pp. Studies and Reports, Series A, No. 16.

The most striking facts observed in a general review of labor legislation in Europe since the war are said to be "that the workers have practically achieved their long-cherished ideal of an eight-hour day; that progress is being made in the direction of giving the workers a voice in fixing their own conditions of work; that Europe is awake to the need to treat on a scientific basis the regulation of collective agreements and the unemployment problem; that the principle has gained acceptance that wages can and ought to be regulated by bodies having statutory powers, at least in the case of low-paid industries and occupations; and that the problem of employed mothers and their children has been brought into still greater prominence by the war, though there is wide disagreement as regards what is its best solution. It is on these subjects especially that legislation in the various European countries may be expected to develop in the next few years, unless political convulsions should entirely change the angle from which labor regulation is regarded."

— Works councils in Germany. Geneva, January 29, 1921. 28 pp. Studies and Reports, Series B, No. 6.

An account of the works council law in Germany appeared in the May, 1920, issue of the Monthly Labor Review (pp. 172-181).

New Zealand.—Government Statistician. Statistics for 1918. Appendix to Vol. III. Production: Industrial manufacture. Wellington, 1920. 62 pp.

Contains a table showing for the various industries in the Dominion the average number of employees and the total salaries and wages paid during the year ending March 31, 1919. The total number of employees was 66,910 and total salaries and wages £9,475,943 (\$46,114,677, par).

Norway.—Fabrikktilsynet. Årsberetninger fra Arbeidsrådet og Fabrikktilsynet for 1919. Christiania, 1920. 263 pp.

Report of factory inspection in Norway. Contains tables showing causes of accidents in different industries, hours at which accidents occur, etc.

Roumania.—Ministerul Muncii si Ocrotirilor Sociale. Calendarul Muncitorului, 1921. Bucharest, 1920. 97 pp. 2 charts.

A calendar for workmen for the year 1921, published by the Roumanian Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare. An appendix to the calendar contains articles dealing with functions of the Ministry of Labor and Social Welfare, Labor legislation, Cooperative societies, Food consumption, etc.

Sweden.—Socialstyrelsen. Arbetartillgång, Arbetstid och Arbetslön inom Sveriges Jordbruk år 1919. Stockholm, 1920. 68 pp. Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik.

States the result of an official investigation of the labor supply, hours, and wages in Swedish agriculture. A brief summary of this report appears on pages 75 to 78 of this issue of the Review.

Sweden.—Socialstyrelsen. Kooperativ verksamhet i Sverige åren 1914–1916. Stockholm, 1920. 169 pp. Sveriges Officiella Statistik. Socialstatistik.

Shows the number of cooperative societies registered in Sweden and contains information and tables regarding activities of the various societies. Contains a summary, in French, of the activities of these societies.

— Statens Förlikningsmäns för Medling i Arbetstvister. Verksamhet år 1919. Stockholm, 1921. 88 pp.

Reports of conciliation in labor disputes in 1919.

Switzerland.—Verwalterkonferenz schweizer. Arbeitsämter. Protokoll September 1920 im Kasino Winterthur. Zürich, 1920. 31 pp.

The minutes of the sixth conference of managers of Swiss public employment offices.

— (ZÜRICH).—Statistisches Amt. Die Wohnungen in der Stadt Zürich am 1. Dezember 1910. Zürich, 1919. xiv, 184 pp. Statistik der Stadt Zürich. Heft 21.

The results of a housing census taken in the city of Zürich in 1910 in conjunction with the general census of that year. Owing to various difficulties, the results could not be published until the end of 1919 and therefore have now merely a documentary value.

Union of South Africa.—Cost of Living Commission. Interim report. Pretoria, 1920. 14 pp.

The commission in this report dwells somewhat on extravagance and wasteful buying, speculation in wheat, etc., as responsible for the high cost of living, and in the conclusion recommends as a result of its findings "the immediate creation of boards representative of the various industries concerned, who, assisted by expert advisers, should be charged with the duty of making an economic inquiry into cost of production, etc., and fix a price for each commodity that will be fair to all interests." A summary of the commission's recommendations is as follows:

(1) Extended powers for commission and local committees on the lines of the English profiteering act. (2) Education for women and girls in domestic science and the art of buying. (3) Establishment of market bureaus and dissemination of information as to prices, etc. (4) Government to encourage the establishment of consumers' cooperative stores. (5) Rent appeal boards. (6) Government importation of wheat or flour. (7) Fixing of price of butter-fat at 2s. per pound. (8) Legislation to prevent speculation. (9) Boards to regulate and control prices on the lines suggested by the sugar industry.

Unofficial.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR INTERNATIONAL CONCILIATION. The Communist Party in Russia and its relations to the Third International and to the Russian soviets. Greenwich, Conn., 1921. 56, 52 pp. Nos. 158, 159.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR. Florida branch. Proceedings, 1920. Miami, W. P. Mooty, secretary-treasurer, 1920. 100 pp.

— New York branch. Committee on health. Ninth report. Health insurance. Albany, 1920. 19 pp.

This pamphlet contains an address by James M. Lynch before the annual New York City Conference of Charities and Corrections on compulsory health insurance which was adopted by the committee on health of the New York State Federation of Labor as its ninth report on the subject. The report favors adoption of the health insurance bill now before the State legislature, which provides for equal division of the cost between employers and workmen, the funds to be under general supervision of the State Industrial Commission.

Arnot, R. Page. Trade-unionism: a new model. London, The Independent Labour Party, 1919. 16 pp. I. L. P. Pamphlets. New Series, No. 19.

The weakness of organization for fighting purposes under the craft union system is discussed by the author of this pamphlet and arguments are advanced for amalgamation of all workers' organizations in one big union in order to gain industrial control.

BING, ALEXANDER M. War-time strikes and their adjustment. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co. 329 pp.

A brief summary of this volume is published on pages 174 to 176 of this issue of the Review.

California, University of. Division of Vocational Education. Research and service center for part-time education. The work of the director of part-time education. Berkeley, 1921. 27 pp. Part-time news notes, No. 3.

Candelero, Maurizio. Organizzazione del lavoro ed efficienza industriale. Turin, S. Lattes & Co., 1919. viii, 279 pp. Biblioteca dell' Insegnamento Commerciale e Professionale.

This volume contains an exposition of the fundamental principles of new systems of scientific management, with special reference to the methods known as Taylorism, the objections to these systems and the modifications suggested; a detailed description of methods and means that are being used in the application of these principles; a discussion of various wage systems devised to awaken the interest of the workers in greater production and efficiency; and finally a review of the studies on industrial fatigue made by L. M. Gilbreth and the British Government Committee on the Health of Munition Workers.

CHICAGO COMMUNITY TRUST. Americanization in Chicago. The report of a survey. Chicago, 10 South La Salle St. [1920]. 40 pp.

The survey showed that the constructive work of Americanization agencies was reaching less than 8 per cent of the unnaturalized population of the city and recommendations are made for greater activity and closer coordination of the work of the organizations engaged in Americanization.

Clarke, John J. Outlines of local government. London, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons (Ltd)., 1919. 116 pp.

A summary of the duties of the local authorities in relation to housing, town planning, relief, and prevention of poverty, and other matters connected with public welfare. A bibliography is appended.

Consumers' League of the City of New York. Annual report, 1919. New York, 289 Fourth Avenue, 1920. 14 pp.

Tells of the activities of the league such as investigating women's wages and sponsoring legislation designed to improve the working conditions of women.

Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America. The deportation cases of 1919–1920. A study by Constantine M. Panunzio. New York, 105 East Twenty-second Street, 1921. 104 pp.

A study based largely upon official records of the hearings in 200 deportation proceedings which were made available by the Bureau of Immigration of the U.S. Department of Labor. The general purpose of the study was to call public attention to practices that are alleged to be inconsistent with the American tradition of justice and fair play. It is noted that between November 1, 1919, and April 26, 1920, warrants were issued by the Department of Labor for the arrest of 6,350 aliens who were alleged to be in the country in violation of law, and that about 3,000 of these arrests were made. Of these, about 2,500 were alleged members of the Communist Party. After hearings, 762 persons were ordered deported, the actual number deported between the dates named being 271.

A chapter discusses the possibility of immigrants belonging to objectionable organizations without being aware of the principles which these societies represent, indicating that membership in certain organizations does not necessarily condemn. Illus-

trations are given from the 200 cases examined. Of these, only 56 were, by their own admission, members of proscribed organizations. Other chapters deal with "How aliens felt about leaving America"; "How the aliens were treated: At the time of arrest and preliminary examination, and in jails and detention stations"; "How long the aliens were held in prison"; and "How the aliens' families were affected."

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA. What is the Christian view of work and wealth? New York, Association Press, 1920. 94 pp.

Each chapter of this book is headed by a list of questions and followed by a series of quotations from a great variety of sources which relate directly to the questions raised. The book is intended to be suggestive to leaders of groups, classes, or general forums in making a study of underlying principles of labor and social questions and to assist nontechnical laymen to reach a decision as to the moral principles involved in these questions.

Frankfurter, Felix, and Dewson, Mary W. District of Columbia minimum wage cases, Court of Appeals of the District of Columbia. The Children's Hospital of the District of Columbia v. Jesse C. Adkins et al. Willie A. Lyons v. same. Brief for appellees. New York, National Consumers' League, 1921. ix, 453 pp. Sets forth the argument in support of the minimum wage law of the District of Columbia in a case in which the hospital and a hotel employee appealed from a judgment sustaining the validity of the law. Reference is made to numerous decisions, each objection raised against the law being taken up in turn and an answer offered. Citations from reports of commissions, reproduction of existing laws, earnings, wages, cost of living, etc., make up the bulk of the volume.

Gompers, Samuel, and Allen, Henry J. Debate at Carnegie Hall, New York, May 28, 1920. New York, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1920. 105 pp.

This book includes the original speeches in the debate by Mr. Gompers and Gov. Allen on the industrial court law of Kansas and subsequent statements by each of the principals in the debate.

HOUGHTON, E. F., & Co. Research staff. Causes of skin sores and boils among metal workers. Philadelphia, E. F. Houghton & Co., 1920. 51 pp.

A brief summary of this study taken from another source was given in the Monthly Labor Review for March, 1921, pp. 176, 177.

Industrial Relations. Bloomfield's Labor Digest. Methods of compensation for department store employees. A survey. Boston, 6 Beacon Street, 1921. 16 pp.

According to a survey by Industrial Relations conducted during the past year among several hundred retail stores of all sizes and in all sections of the country, nine-tenths of these stores have established a more or less satisfactory bonus or commission system, are conducting experiments to devise a more effective system of compensation than previous flat-wage methods, or desire to adopt some other system if a better plan can be found. Various bonus and commission systems are described.

Jewish Agricultural and Industrial Aid Society. Annual report, 1920. New York, 174 Second Avenue [1921]. 58 pp.

Includes the report on the activities of the farm settlement bureau, the farm labor bureau, sanitation bureau, and farm loan department.

LABOR PARTY (GREAT BRITAIN). Report of the twentieth annual conference, Scarborough, 1920. London, 33, Eccleston Square, S. W. 1 [1920]. 222 pp.

MERRITT, Albert N. War-time control of distribution of foods. A short history of the distribution division of the United States Food Administration, its personnel and achievements. New York, The Macmillan Co., 1920. vii, 242 pp.

MILLER, DAVID HUNTER. International relations of labor. New York, Alfred A. Knopf, 1921. 77 pp.

This is a series of lectures delivered at Harvard University. The author, who was legal adviser to the American Peace Commission, sketches the history of international labor legislation, and reviews the work of the American Peace Commission,

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the Washington and Genoa Labor Conferences, and the League of Nations in the field of international labor relations.

MERCER, T. W. The cooperative movement in politics. Manchester [England] Cooperative Union Limited, 1920. 15 pp.

This pamphlet presents the arguments which have been advanced both for and against the alliance of the Labor Party and the Cooperative Farty, and gives the reasons which have caused cooperators to seek cooperative representation in Parliament.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE. Earnings of women in factories and a legal living wage. [New York] January, 1921. 27 pp.

— Minimum wage commissions. Current facts. [New York] January, 1921. 15 pp. This pamphlet and the one preceding carry statements, arguments, and tabulated data in favor of minimum wage legislation. Budgets, the rates fixed by the commissions in the various States, and actual wage rates elsewhere, as collected and published by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, are the principal features shown.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE AND THE CONSUMERS' LEAGUE OF NEW JERSEY.

Night-working mothers in textile mills, Passaic, N. J.; by Agnes de Lima. New
York, December, 1920. 20 pp.

A nonstatistical study of 100 women, taken at random, who were employed at night in the textile mills of Passaic. For the most part they were married women with children, and the report emphasizes the impossibility of a woman employed at night getting sufficient rest by day and also attending properly to her children. Economic necessity was the usual cause for the employment of the mothers.

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD. Changes in the cost of living, July, 1914— November, 1920. New York, 10 East Thirty-ninth Street, December, 1920. 29 pp. Research report No. 33.

This report is the eighth in a series of studies of changes in the cost of living among wage earners in the United States. It is stated that the figures are general averages, broadly representative of conditions in the country as a whole, but applicable to individual communities only when adjusted to local conditions. Between July, 1914, and November, 1920, the data show that the cost of living increased 93.1 per cent. The period between July and November, 1920, was marked by a decrease of 5.6 per cent for all items, clothing showing the greatest decrease, 14 per cent, and food 12 per cent. During the same period fuel and light advanced 20.5 per cent and shelter 5 per cent. During the year November, 1919, to November, 1920, the average increase in cost of living was 6 per cent, fuel and light showing the greatest increase, 35 per cent, and shelter the next greatest 20 per cent. Food increased only 1 per cent, while clothing showed a decrease of 3 per cent. The following table gives a summary of percentage advances in the budget items in the 6-year period ending November, 1920:

PER CENT OF INCREASE IN COST OF LIVING IN NOVEMBER, 1920, OVER JULY, 1914, BY SEPARATE BUDGET ITEMS.

Budget item.	Relative importance in family budget.	Per cent of increase in cost November, 1920, over July, 1914.	Per cent of increase as related to total budget.
Food. Shelter. Clothing. Fuel and light Sundries.	43. 1 17. 7 13. 2 5. 6 20. 4	93 66 128 100 92	40. 1 11. 7 16. 9 5. 6 18. 8
All items	100.0		93. 1

NATIONAL INDUSTRIAL CONFERENCE BOARD. Health service in industry. New York, 10 East Thirty-ninth Street, January, 1921. 61 pp. Research report No. 34.

This report covers an investigation of 90 industrial establishments in New England which employed altogether 317,000 persons. The study deals with the quarters and kind of equipment provided, the personnel of the medical department, including specialists, physical examinations, and methods of keeping records, and the standardized first-aid treatment and method of physical examination are given. The report emphasizes the lack of adequate records and the desirability of establishing a standard system of recording accident and sickness cases so that it will be possible to determine with greater accuracy the influence of the industrial environment on the efficiency and health of the workers.

—— Problems of labor and industry in Germany. New York, 10 East Thirty-ninth Street, September, 1920. 65 pp. Special report No. 15.

The board, desirous of keeping American industrialists informed on economic conditions in Germany, secured the services of a competent German economist and writer to act as its correspondent. The present report is based on studies made by this correspondent and has been revised and amplified from various sources by the board's staff. It contains a general survey of labor conditions in Germany and deals with the unemployment problem, the works councils movement, the works councils law, the provisional national economic council, the situation following the military insurrection of March 13, 1920, the elections to the works councils and to the Reichstag, the German strike-breaking corps (Technische Nothilfe), and the economic crisis in Germany.

— Should the State interfere in the determination of wage rates? By Harleigh H. Hartman. New York, 10 E. Thirty-ninth Street, August, 1920. 158 pp. Special report No. 12.

Discusses the development of the wage question, the economic features of the wage problem, the basis and aims of government intervention, the minimum wage, mediation, conciliation, and investigation, arbitration, and the industrial court, and submits conclusions and a proposed bill for an industrial commission.

NEW YORK STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS. Report of proceedings of twentieth conference, held November, 1919. Albany, Richard W. Wallace, secretary, 1920. xvi, 299 pp.

Contains discussions of delinquency, home care and relief, mental hygiene, reconstruction problems, and care of children. Perhaps the paper of most general interest is that presented by Mr. J. A. Hamilton, of Buffalo, on housing. After a discussion of the problem, which shows that the situation 15 months ago was practically the same as to-day, he presented the following as a housing program which might "place New York in line with the world movement toward good home surroundings for all."

(1) Local housing boards, whose appointment shall be required by law, and which shall be coordinated under the direction of a central State body. Such boards to serve as centers of information, advice, and assistance in all matters of town-planning and housing, and as administrators of such housing and town-planning legislation as may be enacted. (2) Active State intervention in the present chronic housing situation through the establishment of an institution or an organization for the extension of credits on a large scale and at low interest rates in aid of the construction of moderate-priced homes. (3) A State-wide but classified building code applicable to dwellings only and restrictive in character. (4) A town-planning law. (5) Enabling acts permitting cities to acquire and hold or let adjoining vacant lands, and in general permitting them to engage in such housing activities as their citizens may be willing to sanction.

Parry, R. St. John (Editor). Cambridge essays on adult education. Cambridge (Eng.), University Press, 1920. 230 pp.

A series of essays emphasizing various phases of adult education dealt with in the final report of the committee on adult education (Cmd. 321, 1919) issued by the Ministry of Reconstruction. The subjects treated include in addition to those covering the history and organization of such education work, Democracy and adult education, Labor and adult education, Women and adult education, The tutorial class movement, A student's experience, and others.

Piok, Albert, & Co. The employment betterment book. A practical treatise on industrial lunch rooms and other industrial welfare projects. Chicago, 208-224 West Randolph Street, 1920. 72 pp. Illustrated.

PÖTHE, REINHOLD. Arbeiter- und Angestellten-Ausschüsse. Dresden, Gustav Wolf, 1919. 72 pp.

A prize essay on the subject of workers' and salaried employees' committees describing the history, organization, tasks, rights, and duties of these committees in commerce and industry with consideration of the economic and social development of large scale establishments and the experiences made with workers' committees in industry and mining.

ROBERTS, GEORGE E. The equilibrium in industry. [New York, 1921.] 15 pp. An address delivered at the annual meeting of the American Statistical Association at Atlantic City, December 29, 1920.

Seligman, Edwin R. A., and Nearing, Scott. A public debate: Capitalism v. Socialism. New York, The Fine Arts Guild (Inc.), 1921. 46 pp.

SMITH, GEORGE OTIS. The 1920 soft coal shortage. Washington, D. C., National Coal Association [1920]. 15 pp.

This letter of the Director of the Geological Survey was written to Senator Edge in response to the latter's request for Dr. Smith's views on the underlying reasons for the soft coal shortage. It consists of a discussion of the causes of the maladjustment between supply and requirements which caused the skyrocketing of prices. The depression of the industry during the winter of 1918–19 and the "buyers' strike" of that winter, the coal strike and the strike of the switchmen, the psychological effect of the knowledge of low "spot coal" supply upon the consumer, the export demand, and the failure of the transportation system are among the factors discussed.

Society of Civil Servants. The civil servant and his profession. A series of lectures delivered to the Society of Civil Servants in March, 1920. London, Sir Isaac Pitman & Sons (Ltd.), 1920. 124 pp.

Society of Industrial Engineers. Industrial education. Complete report of the proceedings of the fall national convention at Pittsburgh, November 10, 11, and 12, 1920. [Chicago, The Frederik H. Jaenicken Co.] January, 1921. 245 pp. Publications of the Society of Industrial Engineers, Vol. IV, No. 1.

The subjects of several papers read at this convention are: Training industrial engineers within the organization, Methods of training time study men, Training shop employees, The technically trained foreman, The nontechnical training of foremen, and The industrial physician as an educational factor.

THOMAS, J. H. When labor rules. London, W. Collins Sons & Co. (Ltd.), 1920. 204 pp.

This book is written, the author states, to set at rest the misgivings which many persons entertain as to the conditions which will prevail when labor secures economic and political control—an event which he expects will come to pass in the immediate future. While the program outlined is to secure ease, short hours, no unemployment, retirement at an early age, and generally improved conditions for every one, the author sees no reason to abolish the monarchy although the realization of the program is to be through nationalization of public utilities and natural resources and governmental control of prices and allocation of raw materials in private industry, in which the workers will share control.

Trades-Union Congress. Parliamentary committee. Joint committee on the cost of living. Interim report on money and prices. London, Cooperative Printing Society (Ltd.), 1920. 23 pp.

The joint committee on the cost of living is made up of representatives of the parliamentary committees of the Trades-Union Congress, the Labor Party, the Cooperative Union, the Triple Alliance, the Federation of Engineering and Shipbuilding Trades, the National Federation of General Workers, and the National Federation of Building Trades Operatives. This report, dealing with money and prices, takes up the various financial and currency problems, both national and international, affecting the cost of living, and is concerned with the factors which have disturbed the general level of prices and not with the influences which have been at work to raise the prices of particular commodities. The general conclusion reached by the committee is that "the rise in prices is due more to currency expansion than to contraction of production."

Wilbuschewitsch, N. The industrial development of Palestine. (Translated by Eden and Cedar Paul.) London, Central Bureau of the Zionist Organization [1920]. 54 pp.

One chapter is devoted to the labor question and stresses the need of introducing up-to-date methods and machines both for agriculture and manufacturing.

Zentralverband der Hotel-, Restaurant- und Café-Angestellten. Protokoll des 1. Verbandstages abgehalten zu Erfurt am 21. und 22. October, 1920. Berlin, 1920. 120 pp.

The minutes of the first general meeting of the German Central Federation of Hotel, Restaurant and Café Employees held at Erfurt on October 21 and 22, 1920. The above federation was formed as the result of a fusion of three central organizations. The general meeting adopted a set of by-laws and regulations for the payment of sick, unemployment, and strike benefits. The subjects discussed included the abolition of the tipping system, the unemployment problem, the bills pending in the Reichstag on employment offices and unemployment insurance, and international organization.